An investigation of the teaching of Greek as an additional language in the mainstream classroom
Case studies of four junior secondary classrooms in two mainstream schools

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King's College London

An investigation of the teaching of Greek as an additional language in the mainstream classroom:
Case studies of four junior secondary classrooms in two mainstream schools

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Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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May 2016

Abstract

This thesis is focussed on Greek as an Additional Language (GAL) in junior secondary schools in Greece. The necessity of incorporating a GAL dimension in the mainstream classroom has emerged in the last 20 years as rising numbers of immigrant pupils have been entering the Greek public school system. This has placed new challenges on mainstream teachers who are now expected to teach their subject to a culturally and linguistically diverse pupil population. Despite this change in the school population, the Greek educational system has not, so far, attempted to differentiate the national curriculum, considered different approaches to curriculum design, and offered support to mainstream teachers so that they can meet the needs of all pupils. This thesis explores the pedagogical principles and teaching practices that mainstream teachers working in junior secondary schools employ so as to teach the curriculum subject Greek to children from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds.

A qualitative research approach was adopted to collect and analyse observation and interview data. Multiple case studies of four teachers were carried out in order to examine the knowledge, beliefs and practices of experienced Greek language teachers who have been tasked with supporting immigrant pupils' language learning in mainstream classrooms. The data analysis draws on current international literature in the field of additional/second language education. The findings show that the participant teachers' beliefs and practices, although partially overlapped with additional language teaching principles, were largely conceptualised in terms of Greek as a mother tongue. The majority of the participant teachers, influenced by the national curriculum, felt that they only needed to adjust some aspects of their teaching practice and to apply some generic teaching strategies to facilitate immigrant pupils' learning. They also believed that immigrant pupils who were in the process of learning GAL should be given support outside the mainstream classroom. The findings of this investigation contribute to our understanding of the ways in which the Greek education system can be reformed to address the GAL dimension systematically in mainstream schools in terms of pedagogy and teacher education.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.0. Background

This thesis is concerned with the teaching of Greek as an additional language (GAL) through the subject Greek (as a mother tongue), a core subject of the national curriculum, in Greek junior secondary schools (*Γυμνάσιο*)[1], where pupils from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds have been placed together. The need to incorporate a GAL dimension in the national curriculum in Greece has emerged in the last 20 years due to the participation of an increasing number of refugee and immigrant pupils, whose mother tongues are different from that of the official language of Greek schools and of society as whole. In order to cope with this new situation, the Greek Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs has attempted to shape the primary national curriculum to meet GAL pupils' needs. It has established the *flexible zone* (*Ευέλικτη ζώνη*) to give primary teachers the opportunity to develop activities that promote GAL learning (Papazoglou, 2008). It has incorporated themes related to their language and culture in teaching materials to give Greek-mother tongue (GMT) pupils the opportunity to get to know GAL pupils' culture and to help these pupils feel accepted by the host population (ibid). It has also attempted to reduce ethnocentrism in the textbooks with the help of the Pedagogical Institute[2] and the Institute for Greek Diaspora Education and Intercultural Studies (IPODE)[3] (Eurydice, 2004).

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[1] In Greece, there are two types of public junior secondary schools (*Γυμνάσιο*): day (*ημερήσια σχολεία*) and evening schools (*εσπερινά σχολεία*). Day schools educates pupils aged 12-15, has three years and run between 8:15 and 14:15. Evening schools are for working pupils who are aged 14 years old and over and want to continue their education. It has three years and run after 18:00 for 3 hours. The national curriculum is the same for both types school, but in evening ones, some subjects, such as art and physical education, are omitted (UNESCO-IBE, 2012). In this study, I only focus on day schools because of the higher number of pupils.

[2] The Pedagogical Institute, which was under the Greek Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs and was abolished in 2012, was responsible for developing the public national curriculum, the syllabus for every subject area, teaching materials and for organising teacher training.

[3] IPODE established in 1996 was the official governmental organisation for heritage and intercultural education in Greece. Its main aims were to promote Greek education to the heritage population outside Greece and to help GAL pupils to integrate into the Greek educational system. It also aimed to conduct research on educational issues regarding heritage and intercultural

However, the Greek educational system has not addressed this issue systematically in secondary schools, despite the rising number of GAL pupils (see section 2.1), and especially in junior secondary schools which represent the last stage of compulsory education. From my experience as a private Greek language tutor to GAL pupils who attended such schools, I began to recognise their difficulties in understanding curriculum content materials, using Greek for both communicative and academic purposes as well as in participating in classroom activities. This made me cognisant of the reality that the current curriculum and teaching materials have not been designed to address the learning needs of both GMT and GAL pupils, and that mainstream teachers have not used instructional practices suitable for all the pupils. Consequently, I started looking for sources referring to GAL teaching through subject areas in mainstream classrooms, but little research appears to have been conducted about this issue in Greek secondary schools (see section 1.2). Despite attempting to apply in practice the general teaching approaches and methods suggested in this literature, I had difficulty in doing so because they were not related to my classroom reality and pupils' needs. As a result I started adapting my teaching practices to take my pupils' needs and backgrounds into account and modify teaching materials to make them more accessible to them. However, it was a difficult process as during the four years of my pre-service education, there was no prescribed course related to GAL teaching in secondary schools.

This personal experience led me to select 'Εκπαίδευση και επιμόρφωση εκπαιδευτικών στη διδασκαλία της ελληνικής ως δεύτερης γλώσσας' [Initial and in-service teacher education for teaching Greek as a second language] (for the terminology, see section 1.1) as the topic of my masters dissertation. My aim was to examine the curricula of Greek language departments and assess in-service programmes for the training given to Greek language teachers (GLTs) regarding GAL teaching in a multicultural classroom. This investigation found that GLTs receive minimum training in this field during their undergraduate and in-service programmes, and that this training has not been offered universally. From this perspective, I was interested in exploring what actually happens in

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education so that it could provide recommendations for improving the education of the target population (Repousis, 2000). This organisation was also abolished by the government in 2012.

real classrooms in junior secondary schools where GLTs are expected to teach the subject Greek (as a mother tongue) to children from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds and the reasons underlining their teaching practices. I was also curious to identify the extent to which teachers' teaching practices are connected with a set of principles of additional language teaching proposed in the professional literature. Such investigation can contribute not only to identifying the gaps in teachers' knowledge and expertise as well as in the national curriculum, but also to providing situated recommendations for how the national curriculum and teacher education could be improved to enable GLTs to deliver a more meaningful learning experience for both GMT and GAL pupils in their lessons.

1.1. The terminology

At this point, it is important to justify the adoption of the term Greek as an additional language (GAL) rather than any other term to describe the language that learners develop in addition to their mother tongue (for other terms, see Glossary). In the Greek education discourse, there appears still to be an overlapping of the concepts of 'second', 'foreign' and 'heritage' language (for example, see Georgogiannis & Baros, 2010; Mitsis, 2004; Ntina & Chatzipanagiotidi, 2007). By way of illustration, in the encyclopaedic guide for the language, Antonopoulou and Manavi (2001) use the terms 'second' and 'foreign' language interchangeably to refer to the language that is not learners' mother tongue but they need to learn as it is the official medium of communication in the host society. Another example of this overlapping is the use of terms 'second'/'foreign' for the language that expatriate Greek pupils develop in Greek communities outside Greece (e.g. Damanakis, 2001, 2010; Repousis, 2000). Some researchers (e.g. Charalampakis, 2000; Chatzidaki, 2000; Koiliari et al., 2001; Zaga, 2001) recognising the conflict between these terms have embraced only the term Greek as a second language (GSL) to refer to the language that GAL pupils need to develop so that they can participate in the mainstream classroom and the Greek society. Due to this discourse, I adopted this term for my abovementioned masters dissertation.

However, I decided not to use GSL in the current study. There is still the assumption underlying this term that language development is a process that it is the same for all the learners regardless of their linguistic or cultural background (Leung et al., 1997; May, 2011). This can be linked to the assertion that language users exploit their language resources in exactly the same way no matter what the social contexts are (Dewey & Leung, 2010). It can be also related to the prevalent notion that the way native speakers develop the language is the norm (Dewey & Leung, 2010; Leung et al., 1997). Language education programmes tend to emphasise the attainment of the same language skills and language features in order that learners can reach the language proficiency of native speakers (Leung, 2005a; Preston, 1981).

However, in a globalised world in which people have the freedom of movement, the categorisation of language as 'native', 'second' or 'foreign' and the conception of native-speakerness have been increasingly seen as insufficient (Dewey & Leung, 2010; Leung, 2005a; Leung et al., 1997). Dewey and Leung (2010) explain that due to the constantly changing sociolinguistic realities and the complexity of multilingual societies, it is extremely difficult to pre-assign language users to specific categories. For instance, in China where English tends to be labelled as a foreign language, owing to political and economic changes, many universities have introduced English-medium teaching, which thus is making this label obsolete (Dewey & Leung, 2010). Accordingly, GAL learners in Greece cannot be conceptualised as 'native', 'foreign' or 'second' language users. Many learners in my study, even though they first acquired the language of their parents, later shifted to using Greek exclusively. This has been a common phenomenon, as Gogonas (2009) noticed in his study on the maintenance of Albanian pupils' mother tongue. So, as Leung (2005a) contends, the term 'additional language' signals that language development tends to be grounded in learners' language needs and backgrounds as well as sociocultural contexts and thus is not the same process for all learners.

Seen in this light, while I am aware that there might not be a term within the Greek educational discourse that has the same meaning as GAL, I adopt this term as being closer to the term 'English as an additional language' used in the

Anglo-America educational discourse. As discussed above, I believe that the term GSL cannot explain the language proficiency and characteristics of migrant and refugee pupils as well as the different ways that language is exploited in actual settings. Nevertheless, due to the fact that the terminology used in the Greek educational discourse is usually derived from the English discourse, there is a disagreement over the way terms can be translated in Greek and so a range of interpretations and paraphrases for the same terms are given (Skourtou et al., 2004). In the light of the discrepancies between English and Greek terminology, when adopting this term in a Greek context, I will provide a term that is "linguistically grammatical and culturally acceptable to their native speakers", as suggested by Tosi (2013: 13). I will also always present the English term alongside with the Greek one and explain its underlying meaning, following the recommendation of Skourtou et al (2004).

1.2. Aims of the thesis

The aim of this thesis is to investigate, in real classroom settings, how GAL is addressed in the context of the subject Greek, by exploring the pedagogical principles and teaching practices of four native-speaker GLTs working in mainstream junior secondary classrooms with both GAL and GMT pupils. Despite the increasing number of GAL pupils in public junior secondary schools, the educational system has not provided a carefully considered policy or a dedicated curriculum for GAL teaching, and the teacher education has not prepared GLTs for this reality (see Chapter 2). There is also relatively little on language-focused discussion for GAL pupils in mainstream classrooms. In fact, the research on GAL has mainly focused on the following aspects:

- Identification of the language difficulties of GAL pupils in integration or mainstream classrooms as well as their language level (e.g. Iordanidou & Kondyli, 2001; Simos et al., 2014; Yerovasiliou & Iordanidou, 2003);

- Encouragement of teachers to adopt global teaching approaches for handing additional language teaching in mainstream or integration classes (e.g. Koiliari et al., 2001; Mitsis, 2004; Zaga, 2001);

- The perceptions of teachers regarding different aspects of GAL teaching (e.g. Sifakis, 2000; Tzortzopoulou & Kotzamani, 2008; Vasiloyannis, 2010);

- Ways of encouraging bilingualism in Greek schools (e.g. Koutsoyannis & Tsokalidou, 2008; Skourtou, 2002; Skourtou, 2008);

- Critique of the educational policy regarding cross-cultural schools and integration classes (e.g. Damanakis, 2000; Mitakidou et al., 2009; Paleologou, 2004);

- Suggestions for general principles of intercultural education that need to be adopted in all classrooms (e.g. Dimitriadou & Efstasiadou, 2008; Hajisoteriou & Xenofontos, 2014).

The above research mainly focuses on the learners and learning suggesting general theories for GAL teaching while ignoring the actual practices and principles of teachers in non-contrived classroom settings. The current research is aimed at filling this gap by conducting naturalistic research that involves investigating how GLTs cope with the necessity of teaching the subject Greek to both GAL and GMT learners in actual classroom settings without support from the educational system and any relevant knowledge.

This investigation will contribute to an in-depth understanding of GAL teaching through a subject area in actual classroom settings and to an identification of the extent to which teachers' principles are GAL-sensitive. Such understanding can inform teacher educators and education policy makers so that they can suggest situated pedagogical practices and context-specific solutions for GAL teaching (see Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Littlewood, 2014). Littlewood (2014) mentions that in Asian contexts teachers tend to have difficulty applying communicative language approach in practice in the sense that this is not conducive with their classroom reality. A number of studies in Little et al. (2014) also highlight that general policies can be transferred in practice in different ways and so, there is a

need for school-based policies that take into account local contexts. The outcomes of this study can also provide policy makers with the basis for understanding how best to implement curriculum innovation and to promote teacher change. Teacher education usually has an impact on teachers' practices and any innovation tends to be accepted by teachers when the new knowledge is accommodated to their own cognition (Breen et al., 2001; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Woods, 1996). Seen in this light, there is a need for any recommendations to take into account both social and educational contexts and teacher cognition so that the national curriculum and teacher education can be amended in a way that would be beneficial for GAL pupils' academic and language development.

1.3. Outline of the thesis

The overall structure of this thesis takes the form of eleven chapters, including this introductory chapter. Chapter 2 deals with the educational context in Greek junior secondary schools. The linguistic diversities in schools, the educational policies on minority education as well as the teacher education are discussed.

Chapter 3 begins by laying out the theoretical dimensions of this study, and looks at teachers' professional knowledge base. Specifically, the following aspects are discussed:

- The relationship between theory and practice in teacher education
- The importance of teacher cognition in designing teacher education programmes
- The suggested professional knowledge base of additional language teachers

In Chapter 4, literature related to principles of additional language teaching is reviewed. Specifically, the following principles are presented:

- The integration of content and language instruction
- The promotion of communicative competence of both informal interactive and formal academic language

- The promotion of comprehensible input
- Focus-on-form instruction
- The importance of language production and participation in classroom talk

The fifth chapter is concerned with the methodology used for this study. The following aspects are presented and discussed:
- The suitability of interpretive case studies for researching teacher cognition and teaching practices
- The rationale for the research methods used in the present research
- The research process, selection of sides, participants and ethical considerations
- The rationale for data analysis approaches and the frameworks for analysis

Chapters 6 to 9 present the four case studies, providing the following information in each chapter:
- Background information and influences
- Teachers' espoused beliefs about different aspects of GAL teaching
- Description of teachers' teaching strategies
- The key pedagogic principles underlying teachers' teaching strategies in conjunction with additional language teaching principles discussed in Chapter 4

Chapter 10 gives a commentary of the key findings in relation to the additional language principles mentioned in Chapter 4. The final chapter discusses the implications for teacher education and educational contexts, as well as providing suggestions for further research directions.

Chapter 2

Greek as an Additional Language in Junior Secondary Schools

2.0. Introduction

In this Chapter, I present the educational context in Greek junior secondary schools where this research was conducted. Understanding the educational context is important for conceptualising teachers' actual teaching practices and principles. As discussed in Chapter 3, contextual factors tend to have a great impact on teachers' lesson design and delivery. It also contributes to providing situated recommendations for educational policies and teacher education. As mentioned in section 1.2, my aim is to suggest context-specific principles that could support GLTs in teaching GAL in particular classroom contexts.

The chapter begins by describing the linguistic diversity in junior secondary schools (2.1), and especially focusing on the number of GAL pupils in such schools, their linguistic and cultural backgrounds, the organisation of migrant associations and their distribution across Greece. It then goes on to the educational policies on minority education (2.2) and to the policy stance underlying the national curriculum adopted in mainstream classrooms (2.3). Finally, the teacher education and professional development for GLTs is presented (2.4).

2.1. Linguistic diversity in Greek junior secondary schools

Over the past 20 years, Greece has become a host country for many economic and political refugees and immigrants from Central and Eastern European countries, mostly Albania and the former Soviet Union. Mitakidou et al. (2009) point out that "the collapse of the former Eastern bloc countries and the outbreak of nationalistic movements and wars in some of these countries caused mass emigration of their citizens" (p. 61). Immigrants have mainly come to

Greece to improve their lives by finding better jobs and living in a democratic political system (Damanakis, 2000).

The largest concentration of GAL learners, the majority of whom are first-generation immigrants as Greece has recently become a destination for migrants (OECD, 2012), is in primary and junior secondary schools. For instance, in the school year 2010-2011, 75,415 GAL pupils were placed in primary, 33,210 in junior secondary schools and 12,866 in senior secondary schools. In this thesis, I focus on GAL pupils attending junior secondary schools because, as mentioned in Chapter 1, little research has been conducted in this context and the Greek education system has placed little emphasis on the GAL dimension in this sector. All the data presented here are based on research by the IPODE and by the Hellenic Statistical Authority (EL.STAT) that provides data until the school year 2011-2012. No data are available for the school years 2012-2015. The lack of national statistical data regarding immigrant and refugee pupils is a reality in Greece (Palaiologou, 2012; Public Policy and Management Institute (PPMI), 2013).

The data presented below depicts the learner population that has been enrolled in Greek schools during the particular school years. No data are available for the GAL population at the end of these school years and so it is hard to calculate the dropout level. It is also worth noting that there are significant discrepancies between the statistical data presented by the IPODE and EL.STAT, as also noticed by Tzevelekou et al. (2013) and Skourtou et al. (2004). For example, IPODE mentions that in the school year 2004-05 GAL population was 29,792 in junior secondary schools while for the same year, EL.STAT reports that it was 23,033. From this it can be seen that only a rough estimate of the numbers of GAL pupils can be made for the years in question.

Despite this, from the school year 2003-04 to 2011-12, all the data show that there was a gradual rise in the number of GAL pupils in junior secondary schools. The OECD (2012) also notices that between 2000 and 2009 there was an increase of GAL pupils in junior secondary schools by 3-5%. As can be seen in Table 2.1, in the school years 2005-07, their percentage remained stable at

around 8%, in the next two years it increased by around 1% while in the last three school years it has fluctuated around 10%. This indicates that a significant number of GAL pupils have been attending junior secondary schools. An investigation by the OECD (2010a, 2010c) reveals that immigrant pupils irrespective of their socio-cultural backgrounds usually deliver high academic performance when participating in an educational system that respects and takes into account their backgrounds and needs. So, there is a need for the Greek education system to be reshaped such that the national curriculum can meet GAL pupils' academic and linguistic needs and secure high-quality teaching for all pupils (for a discussion, see subsection 2.3.3).

School Year	Total number of pupils	Total number of GAL pupils
2002-2003	309,029	22,657 (7.33%)
2003-2004	302,703	20,490 (6.76%)
2004-2005	307,723	23,033 (7.48%)
2005-2006	307,527	24,821 (8.07%)
2006-2007	312,992	26,808 (8.56%)
2007-2008	316,126	28,485 (9.01%)
2008-2009	314,265	29,519 (9.39%)
2009-2010	310,436	32,608 (10.50%)
2010-2011	306,785	31,698 (10.33%)
2011-2012	297,695	32,528 (10.92%)

Table 2.1: GAL learners in junior secondary schools from 2002 to 2012

The majority have arrived from Albania, Bulgaria, Romania and the former Soviet Union, especially Russia and Georgia, followed by immigrants from European Union countries (PPMI, 2013). As shown in Table 2.2, the number of GAL pupils arriving from these counties remained more or less steady over the school years 2007-2011 while in the school year 2010-2011 there was an increase in the number of GAL pupils arriving from Asia and Africa. In the school year 2011-2012, EL.STAT reports that in junior secondary schools 28,086 GAL pupils were from countries outside the EU while 4,373 were from unspecified EU countries. Behind these figures is the reality that GAL pupils have diverse educational and cultural backgrounds and so they should not be considered a homogenous group or as having the same background and needs as GMT pupils. As the OECD (2010c) argues, this diversity needs to be taken into

account so that "immigrants can be integrated into host societies in ways that are acceptable to both the immigrants and the populations in the receiving countries" (p.66).

School Year/ Countries of Origin	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011
Countries of EU	2,354	2,591	2,744	2,782
Albania	19,547	19,785	20,469	19,021
East Europe	159	149	168	146
Other counties of Europe	13	17	14	9
Ex Soviet Union	2,867	2,621	2,438	1,987
Middle East	289	300	294	317
Asia	330	357	496	564
USA and Canada	17	20	27	26
Rest of America	39	46	39	37
Africa	67	60	69	89
Oceania	4	7	7	6
unknown	1	1	387	333

Table 2.2: Countries of origin of GAL pupils in public junior secondary schools in 2007-2011

As can be seen from Table 2.3, in the school years 2007-2011, GAL pupils' mother tongues varied substantially with those having Albanian as their mother tongue being the majority. It is notable that in 2010-2011, there was a significant drop in the number of pupils with Russian as a mother tongue, while there was an increase in those having Bulgarian and Romanian as a mother tongue. It is also of interest that there was a rise of the number of those who had Greek as mother tongue but whose parents had a different linguistic background. Those pupils have been considered GAL showing that second-generation pupils have not been seen as GMT pupils. No similar data are available for other years.

School Year/ Mother tongues	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011
English	214	244	250	251
Albanian	19,481	19,220	20,527	19,796
Arabic	341	423	298	317
Armenian	371	326	283	267
Russian	1,421	1,350	1,060	792
German	81	83	73	85
Italian	12	18	21	22
French	27	31	26	30
Spanish	22	26	26	29
Flemish	4	2	3	5
Swedish	8	5	4	3
Greek	2,795	4,072	5,477	5,624
Finish	4	9	6	4
Dutch	18	20	17	12
Portuguese	11	9	11	14
Danish	7	6	12	3
Ukrainian	377	308	263	188
Polish	-------	-------	12	46
Romanian	-------	-------	17	172
Bulgarian	-------	-------	28	257
Urdu	-------	-------	-------	14
Rest	3,288	3,353	4,102	3,738
Unknown	3	14	75	11

Table 2.3: GAL pupils' mother tongues in public junior secondary schools in 2007-2011

The OECD (2012) points out that almost 50% of first-generation but only 10% of second-generation GAL pupils who were aged 15 years old used their mother-tongue at home. There are no data on mother tongue level of GAL pupils for all the school years. As Chatzidaki (2005) notes, little emphasis has been given to mother tongue development and GAL pupils' language level in the Greek research context. Nevertheless, some studies have revealed that GAL pupils have mainly acquired interactive informal mother tongue use (Gogonas, 2009; Koiliari, 2012). Koiliari's (2012) survey regarding the needs of primary and secondary school GAL pupils (n= 2875) for mother tongue instruction reveals that most of them reported that they had acquired their mother tongue but had difficulty in understanding and producing written language (see Table 2.4). In Gogonas' (2009) research, 70 second-generation adolescents of

Albanian origin reported that they had higher competence in Greek than in Albanian.

Language skills/ level	listening comprehension	speaking	reading	writing
very good	78.4 %	72.0 %	51.4 %	45.1 %
good	14.2 %	16.7 %	19.1 %	18.5 %
medium	5.2 %	8.6 %	17.6 %	18.3 %
none	2.2 %	2.7 %	11.8 %	18.2 %

Table 2.4: GAL pupils' beliefs about their language skills in their mother tongue (Koiliari, 2012: 15)

Despite the variety of minority languages and the mother-tongue level of GAL pupils, the official state and the educational system not only have not recognised GAL pupils' mother tongues but also have not encouraged their development in regular schools[4] (Nikolaou, 2003; Paleologou, 2004; Skourtou, 2002, see also section 2.3). Nevertheless, a range of associations have been created by migrant communities in Greece to ensure the maintenance of their identity, culture and language[5] as well as to provide various kinds of support. Because of a lack of data (see Dimitrakopoulos, 2004), I focus only on those communities for which information about mother tongue instruction is accessible. For instance, the Russian association and the Russian Centre in Thessaloniki declare that they organise mother tongue instruction for GAL pupils, but provide no more information in terms of the number of pupils, the type of lessons and the curriculum can be found. Other associations, such as the Bulgarian or Georgian ones, do not mention the provision of such courses.

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[4] The only minority language that has been officially recognised is Turkish, spoken by the Turkish minority in Thrace and protected by the Treaty of Lausanne (Dimitrakopoulos, 2004; Gogonas, 2009). As Chatzidaki and Maligkoudi (2013) report, "Greece is one of the few European countries which have not yet signed the European Charter for Minority and Regional Languages (http://www.coe.int). The Charter ensures certain language rights for minority languages with a long-standing presence within the borders of particular states. The 'languages of migrants' (such as Arabic, Turkish, but also Albanian in our case) are explicitly excluded from such provisions, because they are not considered part of Europe's cultural heritage" (p.686).

[5] For reasons of scope, I refer only to the communities of migrants and refugees. Regarding the education of recognised and established minorities, like the Pomaks in Thrace and the Armenians, see Nikolaou (2000, 2003) and Tsitselikis (2007).

Even though Albanians form the largest migrant community in Greece, there are few Albanian mother tongue classes running only in a few cities[6] and few Albanian 'complementary' schools (Gkaintartzi et al., 2014; Gogonas, 2009). The participation rate of Albanian immigrants in these courses is very low, only 18%, compared to other immigrant communities in Greece, such as the Poles (Hatziprokopiou, 2006; Maligkoudi, 2010). This seems to suggest that many Albanians tend not to pursue the development and maintenance of their mother tongue (see Chatzidaki & Maligkoudi, 2013; Gkaintartzi et al., 2014).

The Polish, Libyan-Arabic and Filipino communities seem to be the most organised communities in Greece regarding the education of their children, running day schools[7] supported by the governments of their country of origin. In these schools, the curriculum is the same as that in the schools of their country of origin while Greek language lessons imposed by the Greek government (Law 3794, 2009) are also delivered. In addition to the day school, the Greek-Arabic cultural centre and the Polish community offer mother tongue lessons for pupils who attend Greek mainstream schools (Ahmed & Georgiou, 2010; Gogonas, 2010). Polish pupils who live in other Greek cities also have the opportunity to attend such courses either online or in the two branch schools in Thessaloniki and Santorin (Ahmed & Georgiou, 2010). In the school year 2009-10, more than 1200 pupils attended the Polish day school and the 'complementary' lessons, the school population of the day Libyan-Arabic school reached 140 pupils (Ahmed & Georgiou, 2010) while that of the Filipino school was up to 185 (Kouvousi, 2010). Such information reveals that although some migrant organisations have attempted to promote the development of their mother tongue, these initiatives are not systematic, common among all associations or widespread. Seen in this light, there is an imperative need for the

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[6] In the city of Thessaloniki, Albanian mother tongue classes are organised by the Association of Albanian Migrants living in Thessaloniki' [Σύλλογος Αλβανών Μεταναστών Θεσσαλονίκης] which was the first association offering Albanian lessons in Greece and the 'Mother Teresa' [Μητέρα Τερέζα] association. In the city of Yiannitsa, the classes are organised by a branch of 'Mother Tereza' [Μητέρα Τερέζα] (Christouna, 2010; Maligkoudi, 2010). No classes have been running in Athens.

[7] In 1997 the first public Polish primary and secondary school 'Zygmunt Mineyko' was established in Athens (Ahmed & Georgiou, 2010). Since 1978, a day Libyan-Arabic school has operated in Athens while in 1997, the 'Katipunan Philippines Cultural Academy', the only day Filipino School in Athens, was set up (Kouvousi, 2010).

official Greek state to support such initiatives and include the delivery of mother tongue courses in the regular schools (for the significance of mother tongue development, see section 2.2).

Table 2.5 presents the distribution of GAL pupils across a range of areas in Greece, thus demonstrating that they have been placed in junior secondary schools throughout the country. However, their largest concentration is in Attica and Central Macedonia, which are the biggest urban and economic centres in Greece and hence, the city of Thessaloniki was chosen as the research site for this study. This would suggest that a centralised policy might not be effective for each area and hence, different educational policies would need to be designed for each taking account of the GAL population number and characteristics (for further discussion, see subsection 2.3.3).

Years/ Area	2005-2006	2006-2007	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011	2011-2012
East Macedonia and Thrace	526	828	649	604	693	693	634
Attica	14,223	14,036	13,054	12,629	14,575	12,444	14,393
North Aegean	335	398	392	414	494	487	522
West Greece	1,112	1,259	1,226	1,452	1,545	1,637	1,677
West Macedonia	389	493	478	406	484	535	518
Epirus	747	795	760	744	877	789	826
Thessaly	1,279	1,527	1,550	1,478	1,751	1,753	1,871
Ionian Islands	880	921	836	756	1,066	1,027	1,135
Central Macedonia	3,680	4,033	4,128	4,209	5,089	4,868	4,818
Crete	1,403	1,583	1,668	1,647	2,142	2,104	2,169
South Aegean	1,014	1,315	1,191	1,062	1,391	1,235	1,435
Peloponnesus	1,728	1,844	1,827	1,698	2,388	2,324	2,314
Central Greece	1,311	1,575	1,587	1,614	1,800	1,802	1,828

Table 2.5: The distribution of GAL pupils in Greece in 2005-2012

It can be seen then that the monolingual and monocultural character of the Greek public school has been changed as GAL pupils have become an important part of the regular classroom (Damanakis, 2000). This has created a need for the Greek educational system to address systematically the GAL dimension to meet the needs of the linguistically and culturally diverse population so as to deliver equal educational and social opportunities to all pupils regardless of their background. It is necessary then to examine in depth the current educational policies regarding minority education established by the Greek Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs as well as the national curriculum, in order to gain insights into how the educational system has attempted to cope with these new characteristics of public schools.

2.2. Greek educational policies on minority education

Over the last two decades, the Greek Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs has attempted to address issues associated with the rising number of GAL pupils entering the education system and to accommodate their needs by establishing a range of national policies[8]. In the 1970s, when a large number of immigrant and repatriated (*παλιννοστούντες*) pupils entered Greek schools, the ministry established a number of different laws[9] which, according to Damanakis (2000) and Kesidou (2008), aimed to assimilate GAL pupils into the host society. Damanakis (2000) explains that these laws saw GAL pupils as learners of the Modern Greek language[10] who were expected to learn Greek as quickly as possible and were not allowed to employ their mother tongue inside or outside class. According to these laws, this would enable GAL pupils to participate in the traditional national curriculum and fast become Greek-

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[8] In Greece, the Greek Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs decides the educational policies which are common for all the schools, and each is expected to adjust them to local circumstances without having the authority to change them or to establish new ones.

[9] The Greek educational policy established a) Royal and Presidential ordinances (Β.Δ. 585/72, Π.Δ. 417/77, Π.Δ578/77, Π.Δ. 117/78, Π.Δ. 257/78, Π.Δ. 155/78); b) the Law 1404/ 1983, article 45 (ΦΕΚ 173/24-11-1983), article 2 of the Law 1894/ 1990 (ΦΕΚ 110/27-8-1990); c) the Decree Υ. 2/378/Γ1/1124/ 1994 (ΦΕΚ 930 τ.β' 14-12-94).

[10] From now on, when I refer to the Greek language, I mean Modern Greek, following Holton, Mackridge, and Philippaki-Warburton (1997), and not Ancient Greek, which is also being taught in secondary education schools.

language-speakers. However, as research has revealed (see Damanakis, 2000), this policy had negative consequences for GAL pupils on the grounds that they did not develop Greek adequately and hence, had difficulties in participating effectively in the national curriculum. This led the ministry to replace this policy with one which has aimed at eliminating diversity and difference to provide equal opportunities to all pupils and equal access to the mainstream curriculum (Kesidou, 2008). In the following subsections, I describe in detail the official Greek educational policies for minority education seeking to promote GAL pupils' integration into the Greek education system.

2.2.1. Description and critique of 'cross-cultural schools'

In 1996, the ministry presented a new policy regarding minority education, i.e. the Law 2413/1996 entitled 'Greek Education Abroad, Intercultural Education and Other Provisions', which is the most recent law related to minority education, through which it established 'cross-cultural schools' (*Διαπολιτισμικά σχολεία*) in the Greek education system. The ministry highlights that it took the European 'cross-cultural schools' as a model for organising these schools. The aim of these schools, which still exist, is to "educate young people with special educational, social, cultural or educational characteristics" (Law 2413, 1996, my translation). According to this law, a public school can be called 'cross-cultural' when 45% of its population is repatriated or 'foreign'[11] pupils. In these schools, GAL and GMT pupils engage in a common national curriculum, which is the same as other public schools with the only difference being that in these schools GAL pupils have the opportunity to participate in special classes, where linguistic and academic support are delivered in both Greek and their mother tongue.

Although the establishment of this type of school reveals the good intentions of the ministry to provide quality minority education, in reality, a number of studies (e.g. Damanakis, 2000; PPMI, 2013) indicate that such education has not helped GAL pupils to interact socially with GMT pupils or achieve high

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[11] This is the term used in formal education documents for GAL pupils, thus indicating that the aim of the policies is to integrate the 'foreign' into the Greek culture.

academic and linguistic performance. PPMI (2013) and Damanakis (2000) state that these schools have highlighted the diversity and particularity of GAL pupils, leading to their segregation and marginalisation by the host Greek society. This can be evidenced from the behaviour of GMT pupils' parents, who avoid placing their children in these schools as they believe that the academic level is lower than in regular schools (Gropas & Triandafyllidou, 2005; Markou, 2010; Palaiologou & Faas, 2012). It can be also seen from the increased concentration of GAL pupils in such schools (Nikolaou, 2000) and from the practice of treating these pupils as learners with 'special' learning needs (Damanakis, 2000). The failure of these schools has been also demonstrated by the high dropout rates of GAL pupils. For example, during the academic year 2010-2011, overall, 13% of GAL pupils of cross-cultural schools dropped out. Such schools have been also unable to provide GAL pupils with additional language support in Greek as well as their mother tongue (Dimitrakopoulos, 2004; PPMI, 2013). Gogonas (2009) reports that "mother tongue teaching has so far been implemented only in a limited number of {cross-cultural} schools in the country on an experimental basis" (p.99).

The inadequate teacher preparation, teachers' teaching practices and the lack of teaching materials related to minority education are indicators of the inappropriateness of these schools (Mitakidou et al., 2009; PPMI, 2013). Despite teachers being expected to adjust national policies to their school contexts, PPMI (2013) found that the majority of teachers in these schools are without special training and they tend to adopt teaching practices and materials used in monocultural schools. Moreover, Mitakidou et al. (2009) notice that teachers tend to lower their expectations and hence their demands, under the false assumption that this approach is beneficial for GAL pupils. However, Cummins (2000) highlights that teachers' low expectations have a negative impact on pupils' performance in the sense that such expectations can result in their failing to give support appropriate for additional language (AL) pupils to deal with curriculum demands. Finally, few cross-cultural schools have operated as such in the last years. Dimitrakopoulos (2004) states that "although most inner city schools in the main urban centres of Athens and Thessalonica have by far exceeded this ratio they have not been designated as intercultural to

avoid the increased operational costs, despite protests by both parents and educators" (p.19). For example, only six cross-cultural junior secondary schools existed and yet 28,680 GAL pupils entered this level in 2008-2009, which clearly indicates that there has been a shortfall.

2.2.2. Description and critique of integration and support classes

In 1999, with the Presidential Decree Φ10/20/Γ1/708 (1999), the ministry established 'integration class I and II' (*Τάξεις Υποδοχής I και II*) and 'support class' (*Φροντιστηριακά τμήματα*) to assist GAL pupils who have been placed in mainstream classrooms with both language and curriculum subjects. These classes last for one to two years and they are conducted in primary and secondary regular schools only when teacher associations agree upon their necessity for their school. Their aim is the effective education of repatriated and foreign pupils so as to integrate them smoothly into the Greek educational system (Decree Φ10`/20`/Γ1`/708, 1999). The goal of 'integration class I' is to provide intensive Greek language courses so that newly arrived GAL pupils can develop the basic Greek language knowledge and skills to be able to participate in regular classes as quickly as possible, thereby being integrated into the Greek educational system (Damanakis, 2000; Mitakidou et al., 2009). GAL pupils are withdrawn from regular classes for 18 to 22 hours per week so that they can be taught Greek (14 hours), mathematics (4 hours) and some elements from other subjects (4 hours). In the remaining hours, they attend courses like foreign languages, ICT, physical education, art and home economics in regular classes.

'Integration class II' is for GAL pupils who have acquired a sufficient level of interactive language skills, but still have difficulties in grasping and using the academic language of curriculum subjects (Decree Φ10`/20`/Γ1`/708, 1999). According to this Decree, teachers at this level aim to facilitate the attainment of academic formal language skills in order for pupils to participate in classroom tasks and grasp subject content. There is also the possibility that their mother tongue and culture can be taught for four hours per week. On the other hand, 'support class' aims at supporting GAL pupils who have linguistic and academic difficulties and are unable to cope with the demands of the school

curriculum (Decree Φ10΄/20΄/Γ1΄/708, 1999). The teachers of these classes try to help them understand the curriculum content and assist them with their homework. These classes operate after school hours, lasting for up to 10 hours per week and they are for GAL pupils who have not had the opportunity to attend the integration classes as well as those who even after attending the integration classes still have linguistic and academic difficulties.

Despite the efforts of the Greek Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs to provide linguistic and academic support to GAL pupils in regular schools, the integration and support classes have been seen as ineffective in preparing these pupils for the mainstream classroom (Tourtouras, 2004; Xatzidaki, 2000). This has been evidenced by the fact that most of GAL pupils have either been found to fall behind their GMT peers or have left their particular school (PPMI, 2013; Tourtouras, 2004). In essence, these classes have the characteristics of withdrawal classes being run in parallel with regular ones inside the school, with the aim of providing extra language support (for a discussion, see Leung & Franson, 2001b) since GAL pupils are withdrawn from the mainstream classroom for a certain amount of time. These classes have been criticised in the literature for withdrawing AL pupils in such a way as promote their stigmatisation and marginalisation and for considering them as a problem and as something different when compared to 'ordinary' mother-tongue (MT) pupils (Davison, 2001b).

Tzevelekou et al. (2013) also mention that those who attend integration classes and usually remain there for a minimum amount of time have generally only been able to develop interactive informal language skills. This has been shown by the difficulty of these pupils to progress above the B1 level of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). However, the development of such skills tends not to be sufficient to assist AL pupils to cope with curriculum language demands (Cummins, 1996; 2000, for further discussion see subsection 4.3.2). Furthermore, the curriculum of these classes, in contrast to integration class II, focuses only on the transmission of Greek language knowledge and skills and there is no connection between these and meaningful subject curriculum content. This has been a serious obstacle to AL

pupils developing language proficiency according to a number of scholars (e.g. Genesee, 1994; Gibbons, 2009). This is discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

Another reason for the lack of effectiveness of this type of support is that the majority of teachers are inexperienced, have not had the appropriate training and are usually temporarily employed in these classes (Mpatsalia & Sella-Mazi, 2000; PPMI, 2013; Tsoleridou, 2000, 2001). Moreover, the selection of teachers to deliver these classes is random, despite the fact that general teacher qualifications have been specified in the Decree for eligibility (Mitakidou et al., 2009). This means they almost certainly do not satisfy the following requirements: a) being specialised in the teaching of Greek as a second/foreign language, b) having a good knowledge of a foreign language, preferably one of the pupils' mother tongues, c) participating in relevant in-service programmes, and d) having prior experience in dealing with this kind of class (Decree Φ10`/20`/Γ1`/708, 1999: 8682, my translation). In addition, no specific curriculum or materials have been defined and the teachers are responsible for adapting regular school materials to GAL pupils' needs. However, as mentioned above, they are usually inexperienced and do not have the skills to develop an appropriate curriculum or materials that take into account their pupils' needs.

Finally, the employment and development of GAL pupils' mother tongue and culture have not been promoted, even though this decree makes a reference to the importance of such development (Palaiologou & Faas, 2012; Xatzidaki, 2000). This might be explained by the linguistic mismatch hypothesis that tends to be embraced in withdrawal classes (see Cummins, 1996). Advocates of this hypothesis usually assert that pupils present academic difficulties when attempting to switch between the additional and their mother tongue during the curriculum instruction due to the dissimilarity between the two languages. So, it is assumed that only the host language is required to be both the target and the language of instruction (Cummins, 1984, 1996). However, neglecting the development of mother tongue can have a negative impact on academic performance (see subsection 2.3.1). Cummins (1996, 2000) highlights that the development of an adequate level of mother tongue can facilitate the acquisition of proficiency in an additional language. He mentions that the acquisition of

one language can contribute to the development of a deeper conceptual and linguistic proficiency, which results in the development of language and literacy skills in any other language (interdependence theory). This means that the continuous development of linguistic and academic skills in the mother tongue is beneficial, despite the host language being the dominant language of society and the school.

It is also important to bear in mind that there have been insufficient integration and support classes. For example, in 2006-2007 there were only 34 'integration classes I and II' for secondary education, although in the same academic year, there were 37,584 immigrant pupils in Greek secondary schools (IPODE, 2007). The OECD (2012) also stresses that GAL pupils with low Greek language skills are unlikely to be offered places in such classes. Moreover, GMT pupils who have academic difficulties have been also placed in support classes, and most teachers tend to experience difficulties in focusing on both GMT and GAL pupils' needs (Mitakidou et al., 2009). Finally, Mitakidou et al. (2009) state that schools have preferred to establish integration rather than support classes to ensure GAL pupils' quick integration into mainstream classrooms.

2.2.3. European-funded projects

From 1996 and onwards, the Greek ministry allowed the design and the realisation of a number of European projects related to the integration of repatriated, foreign and Roma pupils into the Greek educational system (see Appendix 3). These projects were mainly funded by the EPEAEK (EU Community Support Framework funding) and the Greek government, and were conducted by Greek public universities. The participation has not been compulsory but the decision to do so rested with head-teachers and individual teachers rather than being rolled out across all schools. Here, I describe the aims, actions and the impact of the projects that only targeted the GAL population in regular junior secondary schools (see Table 2.6). The outcomes of the other projects are beyond the scope of this investigation.

Project	School years	Organisation
Εκπαίδευση Παλιννοστούντων και αλλοδαπών μαθητών [Education of repatriated and foreigner pupils] (http://www.keda.gr/programs.php)	1997-2000	National and Kapodistrian University of Athens
Εκπαίδευση Παλιννοστούντων και αλλοδαπών μαθητών [Education of repatriated and foreigner pupils] (http://www.keda.gr/programs.php)	2002-2004	National and Kapodistrian University of Athens
Ένταξη παιδιών παλιννοστούντων και αλλοδαπών στο σχολείο για τη Δευτεροβάθμια εκπαίδευση (Γυμνάσιο) [Integration of Repatriated and Foreign Students in Secondary Education (Gymnasium)] (http://eppas.web.auth.gr/)	2006-2008	Aristotle University of Thessaloniki
Εκπαίδευση αλλοδαπών και παλιννοστούντων μαθητών [Educating foreigner and repatriated pupils] (http://www.diapolis.auth.gr/index.php)	2010-2014	Aristotle University of Thessaloniki

Table 2.6: European-funded projects in lower secondary schools

The project 'Education of repatriated and foreigner pupils' aimed at investigating the situation in Greek public primary and secondary schools where GAL pupils with low Greek language-level had been placed. This would help with the identification and implementation of interventional practices that would improve the learning of all pupils and facilitate GAL pupils' integration to the Greek school. The following activities were completed:

- Foundation of 120 classes that supported GAL development outside the mainstream classroom;

- Production of teaching materials and Greek language assessment tests for integration classes;

- Provision of psychological support to GAL pupils and their families;

- Involvement of GAL pupils' parents at school;

- Organisation of in-service training for mainstream teachers and head teachers in topics related to xenophobia, intercultural education, language teaching approaches, learning difficulties and psychosocial issues;

- Establishment of a network for issues related to intercultural education.

3,275 foreign and repatriated pupils studying in primary and secondary schools attended the support classes while 8,000 GAL pupils seem to have benefited from their participation in other actions or through their teachers' training. Despite the extensiveness of the project, the scientific coordinator declared that the lack of support from the official state and the lack of willingness of Greek society and parents to accept actions targeting GAL pupils obstructed its implementation in a number of schools (www.keda.gr/programs.php).

The same project was extended for 33 months with another scientific coordinator and had the same aims. However, it also included actions for GMT pupils because Greek parents did not allow their children to be in a school that had a project only for GAL pupils. The same actions were undertaken in addition to the production of new teaching materials for mainstream classrooms, the support of GAL pupils within the mainstream classroom and the establishment of centres that would support teachers. In this phase, 18,000 foreign and repatriated pupils attended the support classes in 600 regular schools across the whole country while it is believed that 48,565 GAL pupils benefited from the other actions. 750 hours of teacher training in total were provided, and 19 textbooks were produced for secondary school pupils that could be used in both support and mainstream classes (see www.keda.gr/epam/high_material_presentation.html).

According to the scientific coordinator, GAL pupils and their parents expressed their satisfaction regarding project's actions and the support given to them. However, Spinthourakis & Katsillis' (2003) report on the teacher preparedness for intercultural education shows that few primary school teachers had the opportunity to attend the teacher training sessions or to become informed about its actions. This was also confirmed by an independent company (REMAKO, 2005), which seems to offer the only official evaluation published for both phases of the project. According to this company, the project was not widespread and systematic, and did not influence educational policies on the grounds that the project's actions have not been implemented in all school settings. It also did not offer any mother-tongue courses and did not encourage the use of pupils' mother tongue in any educational intervention.

The project 'Integration of Repatriated and Foreign Students in Secondary Education (Gymnasium)' aimed to reduce the dropout level of foreign and repatriated pupils through a number of interventions so that all could have equal educational opportunities. Its purposes were to help GAL pupils to learn the Greek language, to offer support to teachers and GAL pupils within the mainstream classroom, and to get mainstream teachers to develop their knowledge and skills so as to be able to educate these pupils effectively. The activities involved were as follows:

- Analysis of GAL pupils' linguistic needs and development of a tool for linguistic need analysis;
- Establishment of support classes for GAL development outside the mainstream classroom;
- Founding of summer courses for pre-upper secondary school education offering language lessons and guidance counselling;
- Implementation of innovative teaching approaches (e.g. co-teaching) and of intercultural teaching approaches in the mainstream classroom;
- Provision of counselling and psychosocial support for GAL pupils (teacher training on counselling, identifying the pupils' psychosocial problems and pedagogical interventions in classrooms);

- Design and implementation of actions for intercultural communication between parents, schools and pupils in 57 schools;

- 93 training programmes for teachers and administration executives in topics related to intercultural education, social relationships in classes, managing mainstream schools as well as GAL teaching in mainstream and support classrooms;

- Evaluation of the teaching materials produced by other projects;

- 10 one-day conferences related to intercultural and GAL education (eppas.web.auth.gr/news/imeridesok.html).

In 2006, 70 junior secondary schools participated in the project while in 2007-2008 the number of schools reached 260. In 2006-2007, 2,600 pupils attended language support classes outside the mainstream classroom whereas in 2007-2008, the number rose significantly to 3,751. Ten in-service teachers engaged in co-teaching and in implementing innovative teaching approaches while eight others after intensive training supported GAL pupils with psychosocial problems. Furthermore, 1,900 mainstream teachers across a range of curriculum subjects as well as head teachers and education executives participated in the training programmes. Two teaching guides (Mavroskoufis, 2008; Xochellis, 2008) were published referring to intercultural education and to teaching approaches that could be applied in mainstream classrooms.

Although this project has not been assessed yet (http://www.epasi.eu/$-project-study.cfm?PID=109), it seems that a number of junior secondary schools and teachers were engaged in different actions. This shows that the project might have influenced teachers' teaching approaches and beliefs towards GAL pupils (for impact on one participant teacher in the current research, see Chapter 6). However, it has the same limitation as the previous mentioned project and focused only on junior secondary schools ignoring the presence of GAL pupils in senior secondary schools.

The last project conducted for the education of GAL pupils was the 'Educating foreigner and repatriated pupils' which aimed to support primary and secondary

public schools with over ten percent of GAL pupils to reduce dropout levels. The project was geared towards helping GAL pupils improve their academic performance, giving them the same educational opportunities as GMT pupils and integrating them into society. The following activities were realised:

- Assessment and support of 'integration classes I and II' running in public mainstream schools;
- Design and implementation of a pilot curriculum for teaching GAL in integration classes taking account of teachers' needs and GAL pupils' language proficiency;
- Update of the placement test "Let's speak Greek I, II, and III";
- Establishment of new Greek-language support classes outside the mainstream classroom in 124 primary and secondary schools throughout Greece;
- Establishment of a summer course for pre-junior and senior school education to avoid dropouts in 30 schools;
- Forty-six 15-hour seminars for newly qualified GAL teachers who would teach in the new-established Greek-language support classes;
- Implementation of activities that promote intercultural communication and respect for the other's culture and identity inside and outside the regular school (e.g. "Guide for Dramatization Activities and anti-racist material");
- 271 intra-school teacher training sessions, 179 teacher seminars and 34 seminars for administration executives in topics related to GAL teaching approaches as well as assessment in mainstream classrooms, intercultural education, learning difficulties and intercultural communication;
- Design, implementation and assessment of mother-tongue classes (Albanian and Russian) in the regular school outside the mainstream classroom and the design of online materials;
- Establishment of programmes of psychological support for GAL pupils and their families and realisation of 910 conferences (total duration

1,948 hours) on the psychological support for immigrant parents in 53 schools;

- Involvement of GAL pupils' parents in the regular school and building connections between school and family (e.g. translation of educational policies into four mother-tongues to give access to parents);
- Organisation of field visits for promoting cultural awareness and respect of diversity, e.g. ten classes from eight schools of all educational levels from Attica and central Macedonia participated in educational visits to museums.

During the school year 2010-2011 (www.diapolis.auth.gr/index.php/2013-10-17-09-04-52), 167 primary and secondary schools participated in the project. The new-established Greek-language support classes were attended by approximately 2,257 GAL pupils while the summer courses by 334 pupils. Co-teaching and class observations occurred in 14 primary and secondary schools in which 'integration classes' operated. In 2011-2013, 38 GAL pupils participated in the Russian as a mother tongue class in a primary school. From 2010 to 2014, 15,921 mainstream teachers and administration executives and 989 teachers who taught in 'integration classes' took part in training programmes. 51 integration class teachers and 132 GAL specialists participated in two 4-hour seminars in Athens and Thessaloniki concerning the update of the placement tests "Let's speak Greek I, II, and III".

Some of the problems faced during the project were also listed (www.diapolis.auth.gr/index.php/2013-10-17-09-04-52). GAL pupils had difficulty in comprehending the language of questionnaires and GAL pupils' parents were reluctant to participate in project actions and become involved in the school community. A number of GMT parents as well as teachers did not accept the implementation of innovative actions in schools and teachers were not eager to teach in the Greek language support classes in areas close to the border (South Aegean, East Macedonia, and Thrace). Frequently, in-service teachers were not able to engage in extra-curricular activities, in intra-school teacher trainings or provide feedback because of other obligations. The majority

participating in the teacher training programmes were primary school teachers, and rarely teachers from the same school showed an interest in these seminars (Kesidou, 2012).

Although no external assessment has been published for this project, it is noticeable that more actions were implemented than in the other projects and more teachers and GAL pupils seem to have taken part. This could indicate that it had an impact on teachers' actual teaching practices (for its impact on the participant teachers in the present research, see Chapters 6-9). However, the numbers are still low considering the number of GAL pupils in public schools, and innovative actions occurred in few mainstream schools. In the internal assessment report (www.diapolis.auth.gr/index.php/2013-10-17-09-04-52), it is clear that the projects' actions have not had an impact on the educational system and most of the actions took place in Athens or Thessaloniki making it hard for teachers and GAL pupils from other areas to participate.

2.2.4. Brief comments

The Greek Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs has established two national policies on minority education, which are common for all schools, for providing educational support to GAL pupils. These policies seem to comply with one part of EU requirements concerning the development of the host country's language (see Little, 2010b). However, the above discussion shows that there is growing evidence that these policies have not been appropriate for supporting GAL pupils. These policies mainly promote the development of language skills without a systematic connection to curriculum demands, are not effectively resourced, do not suggest any differentiated curriculum or teaching materials, promote segregation and marginalisation, and the teachers who are responsible for such classes have not had the appropriate training.

There is also a lack of implementation of these policies in schools (Palaiologou, 2012; Palaiologou & Faas, 2012; PPMI, 2013). As mentioned above, few integration and support classes have been launched over the last few years considering the number of GAL pupils. This could be due to the unwillingness

of teacher associations to organise such classes in their school or the difficulty of schools applying in practice general policies that do not comply with the local socio-economic needs of schools (Palaiologou, 2012). The financial crisis has also had an impact on the support provided to these pupils as the ministry has reduced the number of teachers and of integration and support classes (Palaiologou, 2012; PPMI, 2013).

Although there has been an attempt to support GAL pupils' academic and language development through European-funded projects, it is clear that these projects were mainly implemented in the two main urban centres (Athens and Thessaloniki) and the participation of mainstream secondary teachers and schools was low. This indicates that few mainstream teachers could have benefitted from the projects' actions and that most of the schools and teachers did not consider that it was necessary to take part in the projects. It is also noticeable that the projects did not have an impact on the official educational policies. The curricula and teaching materials produced by the projects were not incorporated into the educational system, the Greek-language support and mother-tongue classes did not continue running after the end of the projects, the teacher training materials were not exploited to prepare teachers for classroom reality and no support was provided to mainstream teachers and GAL pupils.

The inappropriateness and ineffectiveness of these policies is also shown by the high level of dropout and the low academic and linguistic levels of GAL pupils in regular schools. According to PPMI (2013), 40% leave school early, and according to the OECD (2010a, 2010b, 2010c, 2012), they have worse reading, maths and science performance than GMT pupils in the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2000, 2006 and 2009 reports. Agathopoulou (2013) also shows that in 'integration classes', GAL pupils usually face difficulties in producing written language and exploiting complex language phenomena. These difficulties can affect their academic performance in mainstream classrooms. Generally, the OECD (2012) concludes that GMT pupils outperformed GAL ones who belong either to the first- or second-generation, and GAL pupils are far less likely to be top performers than their counterparts. These facts provide evidence that the Greek education system has

not addressed systematically GAL pupils' learning needs and that there is still the need to do so.

2.3. GAL teaching in the mainstream classroom

Despite the fact that the majority of GAL pupils have been placed by default in mainstream classrooms without having the chance to participate in integration, support classes or cross-cultural schools, no educational policy has been established that could provide teachers with suggestions on how to support these pupils in these classrooms (PPMI, 2013). So, GAL pupils integrated in an age-appropriate classroom have been expected to follow the current national curriculum without having academic and language support. Bearing this in mind, the aim of this section is to give an analytic account of the policy underlying mainstreaming adopted in Greek classrooms and of how GAL has been currently conceptualised in the standard national curriculum that all pupils in Greek public schools have to follow. My intention is not to criticise the educational policy of mainstreaming in the Greek education system but to characterise this policy with the aid of international literature.

In subsection 2.3.1, following the framework proposed by Leung (2007) (see figure 2.1) and thus accepting the multidimensional character of additional language policies, I first describe the current GAL policy in the mainstream classroom and then I refer to alternative policies from other contexts. It is crucial to stress that policies and practices that have been adopted in other countries cannot be applied uncritically to Greek schools without considering school and social settings, as well as pupils' needs and characteristics (see Appel, 1988; Leung, 2007). In subsection 2.3.2, I analyse the aims, the methodology and the teaching materials of the subject Greek to demonstrate the extent to which GAL has been integrated into the syllabus of this curriculum subject. Finally, in subsection 2.3.3, I discuss the combination of different curriculum provision as a possible way for addressing GAL dimension in mainstream classrooms.

A. Public social and educational policy stance	B. Desired/ possible outcome	C. Underlying language education assumption	D. Mainstream curriculum provision	E. Pedagogic approach to language in classroom
1.Equal access and equal opportunities for all, with English as the preferred school language for minority language students	1.Monolingualism in English; minority bi/multilingualism not encouraged	1. Priority on developing English (minority L2); minority L1 not addressed	1. English-medium universal curriculum, with no dedicated L2 English extension for minorities; student-oriented ESL (England)	1. English L2 focussed; minority L1 not addressed
	2. Monolingualism in English; *laissez faire* position on minority bi/multilingualism	2. Priority on developing English; minority L1 useful as transitional aid to English (L2) development	2. English-medium universal curriculum, with dedicated L2 English extension for minorities; language-content, content-language and/or trans-curriculum-oriented ESL (parts of California before and after Proposition 227; Victoria)	2. English L2 focussed; minority L1 may be used opportunistically
2. Equal access and equal opportunities for all, with promotion of English (minority L2) and community language/s (minority L1s)	3. Monolingualism in English, recognising minority bi-/multilingualism as worthwhile	3. Priority on developing English (L2) and minority L1; both important as part of overall intellectual development for individuals		3. English L2 focussed; minority L1 used as transitional aid in a structured way (e.g. early-exit bilingual programmes)
	4. Minority bi-/multilingualism in English and minority community languages		3. Bilingual (minority L1-L2) medium curriculum (parts of California before Proposition 227; and post-Proposition 227 where special local dispensation is granted)	4. Both minority L1 and L2 addressed in a systematic way (e.g. two-way bilingual programmes)

Figure 2.1: Dimension of EAL policy and practice (Leung, 2007: 263)

2.3.1. Policy stance underlying Greek mainstream classrooms

In Greek mainstream classes, a policy stance promoting the development of the host language has been adopted. Greek is the medium and the target of instruction, whereas GAL pupils' mother tongue development has been ignored (Eurydice, 2010; Koiliari, 2005; Palaiologou, 2012), despite its importance having been recognised in the official policy documents (see section 2.2). Mother tongue instruction is possible outside the mainstream classroom for up to four hours per week with funding provided by the government but it is not

compulsory and a minimum of seven pupils is required (Eurydice, 2004; Law 2910, 2001). Chatzidaki and Maligkoudi (2013) state that this measure has not been applied in practice and there are only isolated examples of mother tongue instruction in a few schools. The ministry justifies the lack of these classes by the fact that immigrant parents have shown limited interest (Mitakidou et al., 2007). Even though the European-funded projects - except for the project 'Educating foreigner and repatriated pupils' (see subsection 2.2.3) - make a reference to mother tongue development, they did not organise any lessons and did not seem to consider it an important factor for GAL pupils' academic and linguistic achievement in the mainstream classroom (see Skourtou et al., 2004). No reference has been made concerning this issue either in the national curriculum, and so, it can be seen that priority has been given to the development of Greek. This shows that monolingualism in Greek is being promoted while bilingualism has been considered an undesired outcome (see also Skourtou et al., 2004; Spinthourakis & Karakatsanis, 2011).

Many reviews of the academic outcomes of curricula adopting this stance, which can be regarded as submersion programmes (see subsection 4.1.1), have highlighted their negative results in terms of pupils' academic achievement (Cummins, 1984, 1996, 2000; Cummins & Swain, 1986). Cummins (1996, 2000) notices that many pupils participating in such programmes have experienced academic failure and have only achieved low levels of literacy in both languages. He argues that one of the causes of these outcomes is that more emphasis has been placed on developing the additional language than on the attainment of mother tongue and literacy-related skills in both languages (see subsection 2.2.2). Seen in this light, it could be the case that the low academic and language achievement of GAL pupils (see subsection 2.2.4) is due to the non-promotion of their mother tongue development.

As a reaction to the negative outcome of this stance, an alternative policy perspective has been adopted in a range of countries, where the maintenance and development of language and literacy skills in the mother tongue has been encouraged in conjunction with these skills in the host language (Cummins, 1984; Cummins & Swain, 1986; Skutnabb-Kangas & Cummins, 1988). This

stance has been seen as one of the most effective ways of educating AL pupils (Cummins, 1996, 2000; Cummins & Swain, 1986; Skutnabb-Kangas & Cummins, 1988). Pupils usually present high linguistic and academic performance participating in programmes where they get to learn and develop their mother tongue, in contrast to pupils who are forced to replace their mother tongue with the host language (Cummins & Swain, 1986).

Three models of bilingual programmes have mainly related to the education of AL pupils in mainstream schooling, i.e. transitional/early exit bilingual education, developmental/maintenance bilingual education and two-way bilingual education/dual language instruction (for a description, see Cummins, 1984, 2000; Jong & Field, 2010). The last two models have been considered by researchers, such as Thomas and Collier (1997), as effective for empowering these pupils to be successful in the mainstream classroom, because of the high language and academic proficiency attained by all the pupils participating in them. However, not all bilingual programmes have contributed to pupils' academic and language enrichment. For instance, when the mother tongue is used as a means for facilitating communication and subject content grasping, like in transitional/early exit bilingual programmes, pupils tend to experience language problems when entering mainstream classrooms (Cummins, 1984). For this reason, Cummins (1984) stresses that pupils' needs, status and characteristics, the use of the mother tongue as well as social, political and psychological factors which affect their academic and linguistic achievement, need to be taken into account when shaping a bilingual programme for a particular school context and for particular pupils, if positive outcomes are to be achieved.

However, bilingual programmes cannot be developed in all contexts, especially in schools where AL pupils have more than one mother tongue (Appel, 1988; Jong & Field, 2010), which resonates with the Greek situation. Under such circumstances, the policy stance of encouraging host language development could be adopted without neglecting the importance of pupils' mother tongue development. Leung (2007) explains that different desired learning outcomes, language education assumptions and mainstream curriculum provision could be

put in place following both policy stances in the sense that policies and practices are usually interconnected and are not mutually exclusive (see figure 2.1). For example, in Australia, although monolingualism and host language development are encouraged, bi/multilingualism and mother tongue development have been deemed worthwhile (Davison, 2001a; Leung, 2007). The mother tongue instruction in the mainstream classroom is discussed in detail in section 11.3.

Seen in this light, despite the adoption of a policy stance encouraging monolingualism in Greece, different curriculum provision and pedagogic practices could be adopted, whereby mother tongue could be exploited to enhance pupils' progress (see Chapter 11). In addition to including mother-tongue instruction, the regular school needs to address the additional language dimension in a systematic way so that equal access, participation and opportunities for high performance could be provided for all pupils irrespective of their linguistic and cultural background (Mohan et al., 2001; PPMI, 2013). Moving on from policy considerations, in the following subsection, I discuss how GAL has been conceptualised in the national curriculum.

2.3.2. Conceptualisation of GAL through curriculum subjects in the mainstream classroom

The lack of a dedicated curriculum or teaching materials for GAL highlights that GAL has not been considered a distinct curriculum subject in the Greek educational system (for the distinctiveness of GAL, see subsection 2.3.3). The ministry has assumed that GAL pupils would be able to develop GAL, reach the academic level of their peers and continue their conceptual development by participating in the Greek-medium national curriculum whose goals, content and activities are common for all pupils (Skourtou, 2002). Seen in this light, it has conceptualised GAL as a teaching and learning issue that can be addressed within the age appropriate classrooms and within the teaching of all curriculum subjects.

This conceptualisation of GAL can be seen when reviewing the aims, content and assessment criteria for different subject areas. There is no reference to GAL pupils and the focus of curriculum subjects, such as maths and science, is on facilitating the learning of subject concepts (Pedagogical Institute, 1997, 2003b). This implies that the GAL pupils' participation in the current curriculum subjects is seen as adequate for GAL development. Only the syllabus of subject Greek (*Γλώσσα*) refers to GAL pupils (Pedagogical Institute, 2003a) and hence, I have chosen to investigate mainstream classrooms where this subject is being taught. This is a core subject area of the standard national curriculum of Greek secondary schools (see Eurydice, 2010), in much the same way as the subject English is for the British National Curriculum, which aims at Greek as a mother tongue development (Katsarou, 2009; Pedagogical Institute, 2003a). In the rest of this subsection, the syllabus is analysed with the aim being to conceptualise its underlying principles and educational philosophy as well as how GAL dimension has been integrated into this subject area.

The Greek education system is centralised, with the Greek Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs being responsible for developing the public national curriculum, the syllabus for every subject, as well as teaching materials, which are the same for all public schools (Katsarou, 2009; UNESCO-IBE, 2012). In school settings, teachers are expected to apply this syllabus in their classrooms without making important changes to its aims, content and materials. In reality, they tend to follow the national curriculum without adaptations as they are required to complete a defined syllabus by the end of every school year in order for pupils to be ready for their exams. Nevertheless, they have flexibility in the choice of teaching approaches, despite the fact that the curriculum proposes suitable approaches for each subject.

The syllabus of the subject Greek comprises two parts (see Appendix 4 for the syllabus of the subject Greek translated into English). The first part presents the Cross-Thematic Curriculum Framework, which introduces an inter-disciplinary approach to learning (Eurydice, 2009; UNESCO-IBE, 2012). It includes the general goals, key content principles, objectives (knowledge, skills, standpoints and values) and indicative cross-thematic concepts, e.g. communication,

culture, time, that need to underpin all years. The general goals of this subject are to provide pupils with opportunities to:

- Acquire knowledge of the Greek language as a means of communication between the members of their community, in order to develop mentally and emotionally.
- Realise the significance of language for their participation in social life, either as senders or receivers of information and also as free and democratic citizens with a critical and responsible attitude towards public affairs.
- Be able to recognise the structural and grammatical elements of Modern Greek at clause and text level, in order to be able to identify and explain possible errors.
- Appreciate the significance of language as the fundamental vehicle of expression and culture of every nation.
- Appreciate their cultural heritage, a basic component and vehicle of which is language, showing also respect for the language and the cultural values of other peoples.
- Realise that interaction among nations has an influence on their languages.

(Pedagogical Institute 2003a: 47, my translation)

These goals address the knowledge and skills that all the pupils are expected to develop, and there is no separate reference to GAL pupils. So it is assumed that all the pupils have the same educational and language needs and characteristics as well as being at the same stage of language development. The content and general objectives outline the reading and listening comprehension skills, speaking and writing, grammar points and pragmatics that pupils need to acquire (see Appendix 4). This indicates that this subject is geared towards helping all pupils gain language knowledge and all the language skills in both interactive informal and academic formal language.

The second part describes the specific objectives, the goals, main themes and sample teaching activities for each year, as well as the teaching methodology, teaching materials and assessment criteria that are same for all years. The specific objectives are similar to the general goals discussed in the first part with some additions (see Appendix 4). An examination of these objectives reveals that the syllabus mainly focuses on the needs of GMT pupils and mentions GAL pupils only once.

In terms of pupils who do not have Greek as their first/ mother tongue (foreign and repatriated), the familiarisation and learning of Greek can be achieved by using

Greek in real situations inside and outside school, however, it is important to respect the first/ mother tongue of these pupils.

(Pedagogical Institute, 2003a: 49, my translation)

This objective is abstract and general, and there is no mention to the differences between learning GAL and Greek as a mother tongue. It is expected that GAL pupils will develop competence in Greek through the exposure to language in real situations. Also, although the importance of respecting the mother tongue is recognised, no mention is made regarding its use and development in the classroom or even on how teachers should respect the pupils' mother tongue (for the importance of mother tongue development, see subsection 2.2.2).

The aims, content and sample teaching activities for each year are also outlined with 27 units being expected to be taught throughout the three years of junior secondary school. Katsarou (2009) mentions that the structure and the content of this subsection "give the impression of a rather goal-centred and closed curriculum, since specific goals dictate the specific content to be taught, and teaching activities are recommended to ease the task" (p. 57). In particular, pupils are expected to become knowledgeable about the oral and written use of different text types (genres), like narrative and description, and to be able to comprehend and produce texts that are syntactically and accurate. For example, in Year 2, pupils are expected to: a) understand the arguments of a speaker and judge his/her conclusions, b) monitor discussions and evaluate the quality and effectiveness of arguments used by speakers, and c) develop spoken or written texts using arguments in topics that contain abstractions (Pedagogical Institute, 2003a: 57, my translation).

Pupils are also expected to develop knowledge about the structure and use of language points so that they can attain spoken and written language and grasp how to employ them correctly in extended written language. This can be illustrated by the following goal for Year 3:

Pupils need to become familiar with time conjunctions (words and expressions) and whether the conjunctions indicate that an action occurs previously to, simultaneously with, or after the action of the main clause.

(Pedagogical Institute, 2003a: 59, my translation)

The content supporting the goals seems to be derived from the index of a grammar book (Katsarou, 2009) in the sense that it outlines the language features that pupils need to learn, e.g. Adverbs, Linking words, Subject and Paragraph, while the suggested activities mainly promote grammar practice. For example, for the above-mentioned goal, the content is 'time clauses' and the suggested activities are: pupils need to study narrative texts and recognise the time relationships expressed in time clauses along with other adverbial clauses, and produce a narrative text using a range of time clauses (Pedagogical Institute, 2003a: 59, my translation). No mention has been made about GAL pupils implying that the goals, content and sample teaching activities are appropriate for all learners irrespective of their linguistic backgrounds and needs.

The teaching approaches that have been proposed in this syllabus are communicative language teaching, text-based, and interdisciplinary approach (Pedagogical Institute, 2003a). It would appear that these are considered suitable for all the pupils, given there is no mention of differentiation in the syllabus. According to the syllabus, communicative language teaching can facilitate the development of pupils' interactive informal language use and can help them amend their language for different purposes, while an interdisciplinary approach can enable them to recognise the links between a range of themes (Pedagogical Institute, 2003a). Eurydice (2004) reports that the interdisciplinary approach to learning has been included in the syllabus so that teachers could incorporate an intercultural perspective into their lessons.

According to the syllabus, a text-based approach can help pupils develop their reading comprehension skills, become aware of the characteristics of text types and recognise the functions of language features (Pedagogical Institute, 2003a). This explains why the textbooks, which are in accordance with the syllabus (ibid), include a variety of texts from social and academic life used as carrier content[12]. By way of illustration, in Unit 8 of Year 1, entitled 'Sports and

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[12] Dudley-Evans & Jo St John (1998) distinguish the notion of 'carrier content' from 'real content'. The former refers to the content that teachers tend to use to show how language is used in a particular context, as their aim is to teach language points or skills and not to help learners

Olympics: Watch and Participate' [Αθλητισμός και Ολυμπιακοί Αγώνες: Παρακολουθώ και συμμετέχω], texts related to the Olympics and sports are included. From these texts, pupils are expected to grasp the characteristics of the narrative genre, to produce narrative texts and to gain knowledge of how to use simple sentences and sentence connectors correctly, but not to learn the text content itself (Aggelakos et al., 2005).

The only reference to the teaching of GAL pupils is the following:

> Individual teaching, repetitive exercises or other activities to resolve problems in writing and reading comprehension are necessary. In this way, in junior secondary school individual pupils who have problems in using basic skills can be helped. In this category, foreign and repatriated pupils who have not developed adequate Greek language and writing must be included. During such courses, language activities must be based on pupils' levels - and the specific problems that they face - and on whether they are related to writing problems or problems in using language in communicative contexts.
>
> (Pedagogical Institute, 2003a: 62, my translation)

In this passage, it is apparent that GAL pupils have been included in the category of pupils who have language and especially writing problems, and so their inadequate development of Greek is recognised. Nevertheless, no pedagogical strategies for GAL teaching have been proposed in this syllabus. It appears to be assumed that GLTs should adopt the same pedagogical approaches to teach the subject Greek to all pupils but are responsible for adapting their teaching activities taking into account GAL pupils' level and language problems. This would make classroom activities accessible to GAL pupils and facilitate GAL pupils' apprehension of the subject Greek content.

The same assumption of no differentiation between GAL pupils and their counterparts is apparent when it comes to assessment in the focal subject. The assessment can occur through tests, exams, writing activities, homework or participation in classroom talk and is ongoing (Pedagogical Institute, 2003a). It aims to provide feedback on pupils and teacher's performance in terms of

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understand the content. On the other hand, the latter refers to the content that learners have to understand and consolidate. So, in the focal classrooms, the 'real content' is language points or skills while the 'carrier content' is the texts that the focal teachers used to teach these points or skills.

identifying the strengths and weaknesses of the learning and teaching. The assessment criteria focus on pupils' ability to produce academic written and spoken texts that are accurate, coherent and appropriate for different communicative purposes (see Appendix 4). Their ability to comprehend both written and spoken texts as well as to respond appropriately is also assessed. An example of these criteria is: pupils' ability to comprehend different types of spoken language use from a wide range of senders (to be able to answer comprehension questions, to produce language that is based on the speech hearing, and so on) (Pedagogical Institute, 2003a: 63). No mention is made of GAL pupils, and so it can be inferred that they are assessed by a method primarily designed to assess the Greek (as a mother tongue) performance of GMT pupils.

To summarise, given the characteristics of the syllabus of subject Greek, it would appear that GAL teaching and learning can be achieved through the engagement with the subject Greek. The syllabus aims, content and assessment criteria have remained unchanged despite the presence of GAL pupils in mainstream classrooms, and no detailed aims and teaching specifications for GAL development have been provided. It is implicitly assumed that the language learning process is the same for all pupils irrespective of their language needs, level and backgrounds, and so GAL learners are treated as if they are GMT learners. It is also clear that GLTs are encouraged to adopt teaching strategies to support GAL pupils in learning the subject Greek (as a mother tongue) and not in GAL learning. So, it seems that GAL development has been considered as taking place through exposure to and participation in the classroom activities without explicit GAL teaching. In general, the distinctive nature of GAL teaching in the mainstream classroom seems not to have been recognised, and GAL learning tends not to be promoted alongside subject content learning.

2.3.3. Reconsideration of the conceptualisation of GAL

The adoption of the above mentioned GAL conceptualisation can be explained by the intention of the Greek education policy to avoid the marginalisation and

assimilation of GAL pupils. Kesidou (2008) and Damanakis (2000) explain that the ministry aimed to deliver equal educational and social opportunities by integrating GAL pupils into age appropriate classrooms and expecting them to follow the same curriculum as GMT ones. However, Leung (2005b) contends that "mainstreaming of ESL [English as a second language] students is a necessary step toward genuine educational integration, but in itself it is not sufficient to promote effective language and curriculum learning" (p. 95). In this subsection, I discuss the need for the current national curriculum to be reformed due not only to the low academic and linguistic performance of GAL pupils and the high levels of dropouts (see section 2.2) but also to its characteristics discussed in the previous subsection.

The absence of differentiation of the curriculum for GAL and GMT pupils can lead to unequal educational opportunities for the former and to their assimilation (see Davison, 2001b; Leung, 2001a, 2005b). Leung and Franson (2001c) point out that AL pupils tend to have dissimilar linguistic and academic needs, learning styles, educational backgrounds as well as proficiency levels when compared to MT pupils and to other AL pupils. This shows that they usually have different language and academic demands and so the same curriculum for all of them will probably not address their needs adequately (see Leung, 2005b).

No official educational policy or framework regarding GAL assessment has been provided (PPMI, 2013; Tzevelekou et al., 2013). There have been scant attempts to develop such a framework adapting the CEFR level descriptors (e.g. Tzevelekou et al., 2013). However, the CEFR have not been designed for additional language assessment (Little, 2010a) and in any case the developed frameworks have not been integrated into the national curriculum. So, it can be assumed that the assessment criteria of the subject Greek discussed in the previous subsection can define both GMT and GAL pupils' language proficiency. However, the adoption of the same assessment criteria is problematic on the grounds that this practice blurs the distinction between MT and AL development and assumes that MT development is the norm (Leung & Franson, 2001a; Monaghan, 2010). So, it is crucial that any assessment should

be tailored to AL pupils' personal progress as well as their needs and weaknesses. This will contribute to giving pupils the personalised assistance so that they can improve their academic and language performance.

In addition, even though there is a reference to the need to respect GAL pupils' culture and language, the curriculum content and teaching materials tend not to promote this assertion (Polivaka, 2010; Vorvi & Daniilidou, 2010). As Cummins (1984) states when teachers are not aware of classroom strategies that respect the diverse linguistic and cultural background of LM pupils, they tend to promote the majority population's language and culture at the expense of their mother tongue and culture. These actions affect their school achievement and personal development negatively. This highlights the need to incorporate this dimension into the curriculum and teacher education (for further discussion, see subsection 3.2.1 and section 4.0).

There is the assumption underpinning the syllabus that GAL pupils' academic and linguistic needs could be addressed effectively when classroom activities become accessible to GAL pupils. However, the understanding of the curriculum content and the participation in classroom activities have been seen as only one part of additional language teaching (Davison, 2001c; Gibbons, 1991; Harper et al., 2010). As discussed in section 4.1, there is a need for explicit additional language teaching so that AL pupils can develop language alongside curriculum content.

Aligning to these perspectives, without addressing GAL teaching as a specific language teaching and learning issue, GAL pupils would have difficulties in attaining language skills needed for dealing with academic and language curriculum demands, and their needs would be ignored. So the mainstream classroom can be considered a potential environment for teaching an additional language if accompanied by a policy that integrates the host language as an additional one within the curriculum in systematic and principled ways (Gibbons, 2009; Leung, 2001a, 2005b; Leung & Franson, 2001c).

A differentiated curriculum with specific aims, content and assessment criteria as well as a pedagogy will be helpful for AL pupils' academic and linguistic development (Leung, 2005b; PPMI, 2013). This curriculum would aim at additional language development in conjunction with subject content development, and would also consider and respect AL pupils' different educational backgrounds, age and stages of language development. In this way, AL pupils would have the opportunity to enhance their subject content knowledge and skills as well as the host language throughout the schooling process (for such curricula, see section 11.3). However, this does not mean that there is a fixed curriculum framework for GAL. Leung (2005b) contends that pupils' needs, policy and classroom settings should be taken into account when deciding how an additional language should be addressed in the mainstream curriculum. Seen in this light, sometimes a combination of different types of curriculum provision (see Chapter 4) may contribute to raising GAL pupils' academic and linguistic attainment (for examples, see section 11.3).

2.4. The role and education of Greek language teachers

Despite the fact that the knowledge and expertise of GLTs cannot be the same as specialist GAL teachers (see Harper et al., 2010), as there are no specialist GAL teachers present in mainstream classrooms, GLTs are expected to teach Greek (as a mother tongue) to all the pupils, including GAL ones in such classrooms. This is evident from analysing the university curriculum content. Only the Greek Language University Schools that prepare GLTs at undergraduate level to acquire a qualified teacher status have included any courses on additional language teaching and as will become apparent below, these are small in number. Other subject areas, such as maths, physics etc. offer no instruction on how to teach Greek through the curriculum content (Karagianni, 2010; Liakopoulou, 2006).

Almost all the courses of the seven Schools of Greek Language and Literature have been aimed at getting GLTs to develop theoretical knowledge of Ancient, Medieval and Modern Greek language and literature, history and Latin.

Xochellis (1991) points out that these schools invariably provide theoretical rather than pedagogical content knowledge (see subsection 3.2.2) as they consider that GLT trainees need to become experts on subject matter knowledge. However, from 1996 onwards, at undergraduate level, four of the seven schools delivered a small number of courses in applied linguistics and second language acquisition (SLA), with the aim being to transmit theoretical knowledge about these areas. Nevertheless, no course has been delivered for how GAL can be addressed in real classroom settings or for the development of pedagogic content knowledge. Moreover, these courses have been optional and provided only by the linguistic departments[13], consequently just being attended by linguistic students interested in GAL teaching. In fact, in the academic year 2009-2010, each of the four schools had only one course related to GAL through the department of linguistics. In recent years, from my analysis of university curricula, these courses have not increased in number and their delivery has not been consistent, thus suggesting that only teacher educators with a particular interest in this subject have introduced these courses into the university curricula.

Over the same period, at the postgraduate level in the linguistics departments, only two of the seven aforementioned schools provided courses related to applied linguistics and SLA, which did not focus on GAL teaching exclusively. For example, in 2009-2010, the School of the National and Kapodistrian University of Athens offered 14 courses relevant to GAL teaching only because the linguistic department offered a master programme related to the teaching of Greek as a foreign language. On the other hand, the equivalent School of the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki provided only two courses, both of which were optional (Karagianni, 2010). However, not many GLT trainees have attended such programmes as they do not form part of the compulsory curriculum for qualified teacher status, and, as mentioned above, GAL teaching has not been considered a curriculum subject (ibid). So, very few GLT trainees have availed themselves of the opportunity to attend these courses at

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[13] The Greek Language Schools are divided into three departments: Classic, Modern Greek and Linguistics. Students are required to choose the department of their interest after one or two years of a common curriculum.

undergraduate or postgraduate level and the Schools of Greek Language and Literature by their scant provision have demonstrated that they do not consider this subject essential for preparing GLTs for school reality.

The in-service seminars designed to help GLTs teach GAL in secondary schools were mainly part of the EU projects 'Integration of Repatriated and Foreign Students in Secondary Education (Gymnasium)]' and 'Education of foreigner and repatriated pupils' (see subsection 2.2.3). The aim of the seminars was to inform GLTs about GAL teaching strategies that can be used in either integration or mainstream classrooms (Karagianni, 2010). However, they provided no theoretical knowledge about GAL, and did not give those attending the opportunity to reflect on their practice. The seminars organised by the second project covered general pedagogic principles and practices that can be used by both primary and secondary school teachers in integration or mainstream classrooms. Attendance at these seminars was voluntary as they were not organised by the Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs, and so few GLTs participated in them, for the most part those interested in GAL teaching (Karagianni, 2010, see also subsection 2.2.3). Seen in this light, both initial and in-service teacher education have not considered GAL as a salient subject for equipping GLTs to meet the demands of the educational reality despite the necessity of preparing them for the multilingual and multicultural classroom.

The Greek Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs seems not to believe that it is necessary for GLTs to have knowledge and skills for GAL teaching. It has not specified the knowledge and skills that GLTs should have to be employed in public schools, and so for ascertaining them, the syllabus and themes of teacher national examinations through which teachers are recruited to public schools need to be investigated. These examinations are conducted by the Supreme Council for Civil Personnel Selection (ASEP) that first recruits teachers and then places them in schools after considering staffing needs. Through analysing the questions of the last national examination for GLTs in 2009, it is apparent that the highest emphasis was given to subject matter knowledge and not to general pedagogical knowledge or pedagogical content

knowledge (see Shulman, 1987). In addition, GAL teaching has not been considered an essential knowledge or skill for GLTs to acquire, given that no mention was made of it in the examination themes and syllabus.

To sum up, it can be seen that GLTs have neither the appropriate teacher preparation nor the support of the Greek educational system in order to be able to address GAL in mainstream classrooms. Nevertheless, Fenstermacher (1994), Johnson (1996a) and Richards (2008) point out that although in-service teachers often lack training in a particular area, they still regularly bring their practical knowledge (see section 3.1.1) and beliefs to bear when having to address something they have not been specifically instructed about. Given this situation as well as the lack of prior research, I consider it would prove beneficial to investigate how GLTs teach GAL and what their underlying knowledge and beliefs are that influence their decisions and practices.

Chapter 3

Teacher Professional Knowledge Base and Expertise

3.0. Introduction

In recent years, there has been an increasing body of literature that conceptualises language teachers as professional (e.g. Leung, 2009; Richards, 2008; TESOL, 2010). Leung (2009) argues that teacher professionalism has two parts. One is "sponsored professionalism" and is defined by ministries of education, regulatory bodies, teacher education and development and so on. This aspect pertains to specifying the professional knowledge base that teachers need to develop as well as the standards for language teaching that teachers need to meet to be allowed to teach in actual classrooms. The other part of professionalism is "independent professionalism", whereby teachers take the responsibility for being informed professionals who have the knowledge and expertise to interpret and reflect on their teaching practices, beliefs, educational contexts as well as on sponsored professionalism. Both parts of teacher professionalism are important for teachers to be able to plan and conduct lessons that are appropriate for a specific learner population and for a specific educational context, as well as to promote learners' language and subject-content development (Leung, 2009).

The current research, which focuses on the teaching practices of GLTs working in Greek mainstream classrooms where pupils with diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds have been placed, aims to provide recommendations in Chapter 11 for the preparation of GLTs for GAL teaching. Hence, in the literature review that follows, I sketch out the types of knowledge and expertise that can constitute the professional knowledge base that language teachers who are required to teach an additional language in mainstream classroom settings should develop. Section 3.1 discusses the complex relationship between theory and practice with the aim of highlighting the importance of combining a range of types of knowledge and expertise to language teaching. In section 3.2, drawing on relevant literature (e.g. Burns & Richards, 2009; Leung, 2012;

Richards, 2008), I present an account of what is generally agreed to be the areas of teacher professional knowledge that language teachers should develop during their pre-service and in-service education.

3.1. Language teacher professional repertoire - theory and practice

Over the last two decades, both theory and practice have been seen as salient aspects of the professional knowledge base of language teaching. On the one hand, theoretical knowledge about language, language learning and language teaching can inform and contribute to the improvement of teachers' teaching decisions and practices (Bartels, 2005; Tarone & Allwright, 2005). On the other hand, practical knowledge arising from experience can equip teachers with the skills to cope with the complexity of teaching (Elbaz, 1983; Freeman & Johnson, 1998). This debate is covered in subsection 3.1.1. Researchers and practitioners in language teaching (e.g. Borg, 2006; Breen et al., 2001; Woods, 1996) have also remarked that theoretical knowledge, teachers' learning and teaching experiences as well as their beliefs tend to have an impact on their decision making and practice, a view presented in subsection 3.1.2. Seen in this light, teacher professional knowledge base should draw on the theoretical knowledge and knowledge derived from teaching practice as well as being influenced by teachers' beliefs.

3.1.1. The relationship between theoretical and practical knowledge

Wallace (1991) describes three approaches - the craft, the applied science and the reflective model - to teacher education and development that foster different kinds of teacher knowledge. The craft model assumes that language teachers can teach effectively in any context and in all situations, by acquiring a set of teaching skills and practices that emerge from the teaching practice of more experienced and expert teachers. Language teaching is conceptualised as a process in which teachers, as mechanical operators, can apply existing language teaching skills and practices in practice (Crandall, 2000; Freeman, 2002; Freeman & Johnson, 1998). This model mainly emphasises the development of

practical knowledge or knowledge-how. This kind of knowledge grows out of teachers' teaching experience and practice, which give them the capacity to combine different types of knowledge so as to interpret a situation, make decisions and cope with practical problems in particular classroom settings (Calderhead, 1996; Elbaz, 1981, 1983; Fenstermacher, 1994). A problem with teacher education and development following this model is that teachers may develop specific teaching practices and strategies that may not be informed by theory and that may not be adapted in certain contexts (Crandall, 2000; Freeman, 2002; Freeman & Johnson, 1998). Another problem is that it seems not to promote change or the introduction of new ideas. New teachers are expected to follow the teaching practices that more experienced teachers tend to adopt in their classrooms (ibid).

The applied science model is underpinned by the assumption that supplying teachers with theoretical/disciplinary knowledge about language, language learning and language teaching that usually arises from university-related research will lead to effective teaching practices. In this model, language teaching is viewed as process in which teachers can make use of the disciplinary knowledge to which they are exposed during their teacher education and development of their practice (Borg, 2006; Fenstermacher, 1994). On the one hand, this model may be considered flexible in that it provides teachers with the opportunity to adapt disciplinary knowledge to different contexts. For example, Communicative Language Teaching recommends general principles that teachers may have the opportunity to adapt in classroom settings.

On the other hand, the applied science model may not give teachers the flexibility in adapting such knowledge so as to take into account classroom settings when promoting tightly defined approaches. There are a number of teaching approaches and methods, like the audio-lingual method, natural approach and total physical response, which describe specific procedures and techniques that teachers can follow in the teaching process in any classroom context (Celce-Murcia, 2001b). Richards and Rodgers (2001) attempt to describe these approaches by first introducing theories about the nature of

language and language learning and then specifying the elements of language teaching design and practices in language teaching as derived from the theory. Their description implies that teaching practices are closely related to theories and may aid teachers in applying theory in practice (Kiely, 2000).

In practice, however, a significant number of teachers tend to experience difficulties in transferring theoretical knowledge to the environment of the real classroom (Fenstermacher, 1994; Johnson, 1996, 2009; Richards, 2008). Schön (1983) contends that theoretical knowledge is abstract and decontextualised and so professionals often struggle to adapt it for different situations and contexts. Johnson (1996a) also states that "… theory often fails to inform practice because the problems that arise in practice are generally neither caused by nor the result of teachers' lack of knowledge about theory" (p. 766). In her opinion, "this being the case, one cannot assume that theory does, or can ever, fully and completely inform practice" (Johnson, 1996a: 766). In fact, teachers tend to make adaptations and to combine the principles of the teaching approaches discussed in related literature to meet the needs of pupils and to attend to classroom situations (Andon, 2009; Andon & Eckerth, 2009; Bartels, 2005). For example, Andon (2009) in a study of how four experienced EFL teachers applied a task-based approach in their lessons, reports that even though they had acquired a theoretical knowledge of this approach, in practice they did not adopt a single approach but a mixture of principles from different language teaching approaches.

This does not mean that theoretical knowledge should be not integrated into the teacher professional knowledge base. The complex relationship between theory and practice has led some researchers (e.g. Elbaz, 1981; Freeman, 2002; Schön, 1983) to favour practical knowledge arising from the activity of teaching itself over theoretical knowledge. Fenstermacher (1994) asserts that practical knowledge can mainly assist teachers in understanding how to adapt their teaching to a particular situation in a way that makes language teaching understandable to pupils. This would help them cope with the complexity of language teaching. However, theoretical knowledge generated within applied linguistics can also contribute to the facilitation of language teaching when it is

related to classroom reality (Bartels, 2005; Fenstermacher, 1994). Indeed, it can inform teachers' decisions and practices, challenge their beliefs emerging from their prior experiences and allow them to interpret and improve their teaching practice (ibid).

Seen in this light, there is no issue regarding the promotion of theoretical or practical knowledge, but rather, the problem lies in the tendency to promote one type of teacher knowledge over the other. Teachers cannot address adequately the complexity of the teaching process by simply applying in practice the theories about language, language learning and teaching or by using practical knowledge as a sole source of planning and teaching (Burns & Richards, 2009; Ditfurth & Legutke, 2006; Freeman, 1989). A combination of these types of knowledge can help teachers find solutions for the complexity of teaching and adapt their teaching to a particular teaching situation. Shulman (1987) asserts that teachers should develop theoretical knowledge for the content of teaching, but also should know how to make this content understandable and learnable to pupils so as to enhance their language learning.

Wallace's (1991) reflective model also acknowledges the importance of knowledge combination and indicates ways in which teachers can draw on different kinds to design and deliver their lessons. This model mainly emphasises the development of critical reflection and research skills with the aim of preparing teachers to become informed independent professionals (for a discussion, see subsection 3.2.4). Teachers who adopt a reflective practice approach would be in a position to decide on teaching practices taking account of contextual factors, to update and to modify their cognition and practices where appropriate (Calderhead & Gates, 1993; Fenstermacher, 1994; Leung, 2012b).

3.1.2. Teacher cognition as a central part of teacher professional repertoire

Another issue with the applied science and the craft models is that they tend to ignore how teachers conceptualise the whole process of teaching and how their conceptualisations influence their teaching decisions and actions. Teachers are

no longer viewed as passive transmitters of knowledge without opinion, but rather as active and thinking decision-makers who construct their teaching based on their beliefs, thoughts and knowledge (Borg, 2003; Calderhead & Gates, 1993). This notion as well as the development of cognitive psychology have led to the development of teacher cognition research (Borg, 2006; Calderhead, 1996). Such research seeks to grasp the complex ways language teachers think about language, teaching, learning, contexts, curricula, materials, instructional activities and self as well as the way they conceptualise research-based theoretical knowledge and their practices. It also aims to investigate how these conceptualisations have an impact on teachers' teaching decisions and practices (Borg, 2006; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Woods, 1996).

Borg (2003, 2006) has put forward a framework that identifies the key elements and processes involved in language teacher cognition (see figure 3.1). Within this framework, theoretical knowledge, which teachers can develop from their professional development, their attendance at conferences, workshop, seminars and their readings, is not the only knowledge that guides and influences teachers' decisions and practices. Teachers' decisions and practices may be heavily influenced by their practical knowledge, developed during their teaching experience in particular contexts (Fenstermacher, 1994; Meijer et al., 1999). For example, in his research investigating how nine experienced ESL teachers working in three adult education institutes had approached instructional decision-making, Smith (1996) concludes that teachers' decision-making tended to be based on their beliefs and practical knowledge, despite the fact that they were aware of the theoretical ideas related to language, language learning and teaching.

Teachers' decisions and practices may be also affected by their beliefs that, in turn, have an impact on how they make sense of their experiences, of teaching situations and of theoretical knowledge (Breen et al., 2001; Graves, 2009). In his case studies of what affected eight teachers' teaching plans, decisions and practices, Woods (1996) notices that participant teachers interpreted differently theoretical knowledge supplied through teacher education as well as their teaching practice. This occurred because of their different beliefs in terms of

language, learning and teaching. These beliefs are usually tacit, and so teachers tend to struggle to identify or evaluate them. They most likely emerge from teachers' own experiences as learners, as student teachers and as teachers, as well as being influenced by the theoretical knowledge that they receive from their professional development, from informal discussions with colleagues or from the curriculum and teaching materials. For example, language teachers tend to enter teacher education programmes having developed some beliefs about what language means, how learners acquire a language and how a language can be taught, which have been shaped by the way their own teachers conducted their lessons (Freeman & Richards, 1996). This phenomenon, named the "apprenticeship of observation" by Lortie (1975), has a strong impact on how teachers conceptualise theoretical knowledge provided in teacher education and how they design and deliver their lessons (Borg, 2006; Johnson, 1994b).
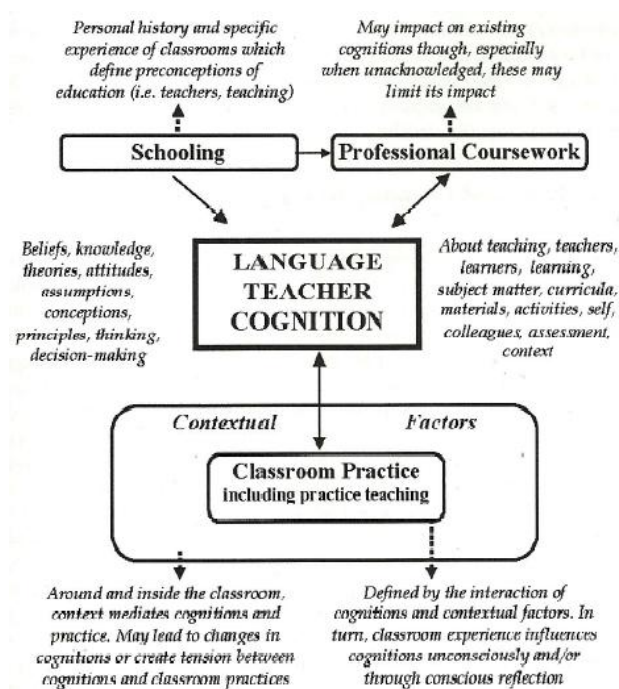
Figure 3.1: Elements and process in teacher cognition (Borg, 2006: 283)

Contextual factors, such as particular teaching situations, actual classroom culture, learners' actions, educational policy, prescribed curricula and time constraints, also play an important role in shaping teachers' practices. For instance, teachers may change their practices during a lesson, and they may not always act in accordance with their cognition, because of different contextual

factors (Breen et al., 2001; Burns, 1996; Richards, 1996). Johnson (1996b) describes a case study of a teacher who started a lesson with specific principles in mind, but who had to modify her practices during the lesson because of her difficulty in covering all the required materials, dealing with students' questions and keeping to time. Teachers may also design teaching practices that are not related to their cognition but are imposed by educational policies or curricula (Leung, 2012b).

3.1.3. Brief comments

Teachers tend to combine different types of knowledge from different interrelated sources during planning and carrying out their teaching practices. Taking into account the above discussion, it seems that the professional knowledge base of language teaching should make teachers capable of developing theoretical knowledge relevant to classroom practice; researching their own contexts, interpreting their beliefs and understanding how these impact on their practice; of learning from their experience and adapting existing knowledge to different contexts. Teacher education also needs to make it easy for teachers to understand how to combine the different types of knowledge to teach a language in particular classroom settings. In the following section, drawing on a large number of studies that have investigated language teacher education in recent years, I portray the professional knowledge base that teachers can develop to be able to teach an additional language in particular classroom settings.

3.2. The professional knowledge base of additional language teachers

The professional knowledge base of language teachers is not something stable, but rather, tends to change over time depending on the trends in language learning and teaching (Katz & Snow, 2009; Leung, 2012b; Richards, 2008). Leung (2012b: 14) notices that "the current conceptualisation of additional language teachers' professional knowledge and expertise" is influenced by the principles of Communicative Language Teaching, which in the recent years has

been seen as an effective language teaching approach. Also, in the period during which grammar-translation was seen as the most effective language teaching approach, teacher education focused on enabling teachers to develop grammar knowledge and translation skills (Burns & Richards, 2009). Thus, while defining the teacher knowledge base, teacher education should take into account language teaching and learning principles.

However, teachers are expected to work in a variety of classroom contexts and educational systems and so they are expected to adapt their knowledge and expertise to cope with changing contextual demands (EUCIM-TE, 2010; Leung, 2012b). For instance, mainstream teachers who are expected to teach a subject in a mainstream classroom with both MT and AL learners will need to have some knowledge of how to support both language and content development of the latter type of learners. This knowledge may be not necessary for additional language teachers who teach in reception classes because only AL learners attend and their main aim is to promote the development of additional language. EUCIM-TE (2010) also states that the suggested European Core Curriculum for Mainstreamed Second Language Teacher Education needs to be adapted to national or local contexts. Teachers' professional knowledge base, then, should be shaped by the context in which teachers are expected to teach an additional language, the pupil population and the local education systems.

As discussed above, teacher cognition arising from prior learning experiences before entering teacher education tend to have a strong impact on how teachers learn to teach (Borg, 2006, 2009; Johnson, 2009; Lortie, 1975). Borg (2006) claims that some research has suggested that teachers' beliefs are often difficult to change, which may hinder their ability to accept new knowledge and enhance their expertise. The knowledge base then should enable teachers to identify and interpret their beliefs so that they can develop new knowledge and expertise (Borg, 2006, 2009; Graves, 2009; Richards, 2008).

Second language researchers (e.g. Carrasquillo & Rodrguez, 2002; Garcia, 1996; Graves, 2009; Leung, 2012b; Lucas & Villegas, 2011; Lucas et al., 2008), organisations (e.g. TESOL, 2010), EU projects (e.g. http://www.eucim-te.eu)

and governments (e.g. the Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority-ACARA, 2014) have attempted to define the types of knowledge and expertise that teachers need to master so as to demonstrate their competence in teaching an additional language in a variety of settings. Specifically, they have advised that the professional knowledge base should include disciplinary knowledge, pedagogic content knowledge, knowledge of learners, school and society and critical reflection skills. These types of knowledge and expertise vary according to context but share certain common characteristics. In this section, I discuss current conceptualisations of the areas of knowledge that teachers working with AL pupils in national school systems are likely to need.

3.2.1. Disciplinary knowledge

Disciplinary knowledge is an essential component of the teacher professional knowledge base of both initial and in-service teacher education. As mentioned above, even though teachers tend to have difficulties in translating this type of knowledge into teaching practice, when it is connected with the school reality and learners' needs, it can shape their practices and can facilitate their planning of their teaching aims, content and assessment criteria in ways that incorporate an additional language dimension (Bartels, 2005). This knowledge is not static but is likely to change over time, being influenced by current theories of additional language learning (Leung, 2012b).

Disciplinary knowledge emerges from a range of related fields (e.g. applied linguistics, sociolinguistics and literacy studies) and comprises different areas of professional knowledge (EUCIM-TE, 2010; Graves, 2009; Leung, 2012b). One aspect of disciplinary knowledge is knowledge about language, i.e. knowledge about structure (phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax) and language functions (Leung, 2012b; Richards, 2008; TESOL, 2010). Lucas and Villegas (2011) advocate that all language teachers should develop this knowledge, even the native speakers of a language subject (e.g. English), who tend to have an implicit knowledge of the language and consequently may have difficulty in explaining specific language features to AL learners. EUCIM-TE (2010) also argues that teachers need to be aware of how language is used in

different subjects. This knowledge would help them identify the language demands of classroom activities and content materials, penetrate learners' language difficulties and teach language features and uses explicitly through subject areas (ACARA, 2014; TESOL, 2010).

Another aspect of disciplinary knowledge is that about theories of additional language learning and teaching (ACARA, 2014; Leung, 2012b; Lucas & Villegas, 2011). This knowledge can refer to factors affecting AL learners' language progress, the interconnection between additional language and mother tongue skills, as well as ways of assessing these learners' language proficiency (ACARA, 2014; TESOL, 2010). Carrasquillo and Rodrguez (2002) and EUCIM-TE (2010) also highlight that teachers need to be aware of teaching principles that can promote both subject-content and additional language development (see Chapter 4). With this knowledge, teachers would be able to understand the process of additional language development, design and deliver lessons that would contribute to learners' language and subject-content development in mainstream classrooms (Carrasquillo & Rodrguez, 2002; EUCIM-TE, 2010).

Disciplinary knowledge may also include information about intercultural education (EUCIM-TE, 2010; Lucas & Villegas, 2011; TESOL, 2010). Cummins (2000) states that when teachers aim to promote the host population's language and culture, they tend not to exploit the linguistic and cultural backgrounds of AL pupils. This usually makes pupils feel that their culture and mother tongue are inferior to that of the host population, and so they tend not to improve their performance when facing academic difficulties. Sometimes they prefer to abandon school to protect their own identity (Cummins, 2000). So, Cummins (2000) argues that it is crucial for teachers to draw on pupils' linguistic and cultural resources, accept and respect their diverse background (see subsection 2.2.1). This acceptance assists learners in feeling that they are equal members of the host culture, being comfortable with their own identity and culture as well as becoming motivated to achieve high academic performance. So, being aware of intercultural education can lead to teachers accepting and valuing linguistic and cultural diversity, creating a supporting

environment, preventing miscommunications that tend to interfere with pupil learning, integrating learners' culture into their lessons and addressing bias and stereotypes. Of course, teachers tend to combine these different aspects of disciplinary knowledge. They usually choose those that can facilitate the planning and delivery of classroom activities that are appropriate for their classroom contexts, meet learners' background and needs, address curriculum demands and facilitate learners' subject-content and language development (Leung, 2012b).

3.2.2. Pedagogic content knowledge

As discussed in section 3.1, besides acquiring disciplinary knowledge, teachers have the responsibility to make new subject content understandable and learnable using a range of teaching strategies acknowledging a range of contextual factors. Leung (2012b) highlights that no single teaching strategy is appropriate for all learners and all contexts, especially in classrooms with diverse learner populations. For instance, teachers might choose to teach language features explicitly in a classroom where they acknowledge that learners struggle to grasp these features through focus on form (see Chapter 4). This can be related to Shulman's (1987) notion of "pedagogical content knowledge", whereby according to him, this knowledge "represents the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction" (1987: 8). From this perspective, teachers need to be in a position to convert disciplinary knowledge into teaching practices so as to be able to offer specialised support to learners with particular needs at a particular moment in a particular context. This support would aid learners in coping with curriculum language demands, comprehend new subject content and in becoming proficient in the target language.

In her review of the teacher professional knowledge base, Graves (2009) stresses the need for teachers, in addition to know teaching strategies and activities, to choose teaching strategies and activities that cater for learners'

needs and background as well as classroom settings. For instance, in cases where AL learners are not familiar with language production activities, they are likely not to participate in such activities, and so teachers would have to choose different tasks for them. According to Leung (2012b), teachers can develop pedagogic content knowledge when they are exposed to the theory and practice of other professionals. This exposure can inform teachers how other teachers usually select teaching strategies and activities suitable for teaching different topics to different learners. He also advises that this knowledge can be developed when teachers experiment with a range of teaching practices in real classroom settings and constantly evaluate the classroom reality. Through such experience, teachers would be in a position to understand how to teach new subject content and language using strategies and activities that will encourage a particular learner population to grasp this content in particular settings and at a particular moment in time. However, as pointed out in the next subsection, teachers may not be capable of providing such teaching in contexts where they need to follow a prescribed curriculum and specific educational policies.

3.2.3. Contextual knowledge

As discussed in the previous subsection, no single approach is effective for all classrooms and all learners. Teachers need to be in a position to adapt their teaching strategies and activities to plan and carry out lessons suitable for particular classroom settings. From this perspective, teachers need to be aware of the needs, abilities and background experience of all the learners, especially in mainstream classrooms where AL learners are not usually a homogenous group (EUCIM-TE, 2010). Cummins (1996, 2000) indicates that the connection between new information and learners' background knowledge could foster the learning of the target language. For example, if learners have prior experience and knowledge of how to write formal letters in their mother tongue, it will be easier for them to gain an understanding of how to write such letters in the target language. Carrasquillo and Rodrguez (2002) also mention that by knowing learners' prior experience, language level and background knowledge, teachers can identify the potential difficulties that AL learners may experience while participating in classroom activities. This would enable teachers to adopt

strategies and activities appropriate to learners' needs so that all can become involved in classroom activities.

Teachers' teaching decisions and practices are usually influenced not only by their cognition, but also by the current curricula, teaching materials and educational policies (Borg, 2006). Teachers are sometimes expected to follow curriculum guidelines and teaching materials during the planning and delivery of their lessons, despite the fact that the underlying principles may not be in accord with their own cognition. Seen in this light, teachers should be informed about these curriculum documents and educational policies (EUCIM-TE, 2010; Lucas & Villegas, 2011). Lucas and Grinberg (2008) state that with this knowledge, teachers would be able to detect the expectations and demands of curriculum and teaching materials, thus being able to acknowledge the potential language difficulties that AL pupils may have while using these materials. Leung (2012b) also points out that teachers would become capable of ascertaining deficiencies in the curriculum and policies. This would assist them in adopting teaching practices that can facilitate learners' access to the curriculum, design new materials or adapt their lesson aims, subject content expectations and materials. This would make it possible for AL learners to achieve high language proficiency and academic attainment.

3.2.4. Reflexivity

The relationship between teacher cognition and their teaching practices (see section 3.1) has led a large body of literature to argue that teachers should make their cognition explicit by expressing, explaining and questioning the underlying beliefs and conceptions of their own practice (e.g. Calderhead, 1996; Eraut, 1992; Leung, 2009, 2012b). However, Tsui (2003) emphasises that teachers tend to find it hard to make their cognition explicit, even though it influences their teaching decisions and practices, since it tends to be implicit (see also section 3.1). In order to make cognition explicit, an increasing amount of literature has favoured the development of skills of critical reflection as well as skills of classroom research (e.g. Burns, 1996; Calderhead, 1996; Eraut, 1992). This can be achieved when teachers are engaged in self-monitoring

activities, reflection on critical incidents, classroom research, teacher support groups and action research during their teacher education and experience (for an extended description, see Richards & Farrell, 2005).

Such an approach would allow teachers to understand how to transform knowledge to practice, how to interpret their practice and classroom events, how to analyse, interpret, change and improve their teaching practices and how to modify their beliefs around accepting new knowledge and ideas (Calderhead, 1996; Eraut, 1994; Tsui, 2003). Schön (1983) insists that critical reflection in and on their practice can assist professionals in interpreting it and their underlying beliefs and in acquiring new knowledge. This can contribute to the resolving of problems, and as a result, to improving their practice. Eraut (1994) contends that through critical reflection and research, teachers will become able to understand how they can exploit disciplinary knowledge in the actual classroom. Johnson (1996a) also mentions that this way of thinking about their work would aid teachers in analysing classroom settings and in carrying out the process of discovering what works in particular contexts so as to adjust existing knowledge and their teaching to particular teaching situations.

Leung (2009, 2012b) postulates that the development of critical reflection would enable teachers to examine educational policies and school practices. As mentioned in the previous subsection, teachers are responsible for tailoring their lessons to their learners' needs and abilities. So, they need to be in a position to modify educational policies and school practices that do not meet AL learners' needs. For example, in Greece, teachers could design new materials and adopt teaching practices other than those proposed by the national curriculum to support the learning of GAL pupils. Leung (2009) also proposes that these thinking skills would allow teachers to examine carefully and critically the assumptions of disciplinary knowledge provided at the university level. For example, the disciplinary knowledge of language teaching may be context-free or may not be related to teachers' views, and so teachers may need to update and modify this knowledge.

3.3. Brief comments

From the above discussion, it is clear that teacher education should prepare teachers as independent professionals who besides developing disciplinary knowledge would be able to construct their own knowledge base, decide on which teaching practices would work best and improve their teaching by reflecting upon and analysing their own cognition and practices as well as educational settings (see table 3.1). This view will be underlying the recommendations that I make in Chapter 11 regarding the professional knowledge base that GLTs need to develop to be able to teach GAL in mainstream classrooms. These recommendations are built on the findings of my research, which endeavours to grasp the cognition underlying the focal teachers' teaching decisions and practices.

1. Disciplinary knowledge
a) Knowledge about language
b) Theories of additional language learning and teaching
c) Knowledge about intercultural education
2. Pedagogic content knowledge
a) Situated teaching practices for AL teaching alongside subject content teaching
3. Contextual knowledge
a) Analysis of classroom reality
b) Analysis of learners' needs, characteristics and backgrounds
c) Analysis of the educational policies and the national curriculum
4. Reflexivity
a) Making teacher cognition explicit
b) Evaluation of the educational policies and the national curriculum

Table 3.1: Professional knowledge base for mainstream teachers

Chapter 4

Principles of Additional Language Teaching for Mainstream Classrooms

4.0. Introduction

There is a need for an interdisciplinary approach to the education of AL pupils in mainstream classrooms so that educational systems could support their academic and linguistic development effectively (May, 2011; PPMI, 2013). The EU drawing on international literature has identified four main areas for effective support for AL pupils, i.e. linguistic support, academic support, parental and community involvement, and intercultural education (OECD, 2010a; PPMI, 2013). In fact, the EU has argued that it is important for AL pupils to develop the language of the host country to be able to participate in the national curriculum and so, there is a need for constant linguistic support outside and inside the mainstream classroom (Nusche, 2009, see also section 2.3). At the same time, it has highlighted the need for academic support alongside linguistic support so that the academic abilities and difficulties of AL learners could be identified and targeted assistance could be given (OECD, 2010a; PPMI, 2013). It has also contended that parental and community involvement as well as the acceptance and incorporation of their culture and language in the school life are crucial for motivating AL learners to learn and stay at school (Heckmann, 2008, for the benefits of intercultural education, see subsection 3.2.1). This multi-dimensional support would result in educational systems being designed based on social and educational contexts as well as learners' needs and characteristics. It would also equip teachers to modify their practice so as to be able to address "the specific needs of any given learning/ teaching setting" (Dewey & Leung, 2010: 10).

For reasons of scope, in this study, I focus on the linguistic support given in mainstream classrooms which is a salient determinant of academic achievement whilst not ignoring the need for other kinds of support. The OECD (2012) reports that AL pupils who have less exposure to the schooling language tend to

present lower reading performance than MT pupils or AL pupils with high exposure. As mentioned in Chapter 2, in Greek contexts, the majority of GAL pupils have been placed in mainstream classrooms where they have not usually received GAL teaching support. The Greek Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs assumes that the participation in subject-content classrooms without explicit GAL teaching is sufficient for language development and subject content mastery. However, additional language teaching needs to be included alongside subject content teaching in mainstream classrooms to facilitate AL pupils' language and cognitive development (Leung & Creese, 2010; Mohan et al., 2001; Vollmer, 2006). Seen in this light, in this chapter, I seek to discuss how language and content integration can be brought into being in mainstream classes by drawing on a relevant literature.

For this review, I draw key ideas from two strands dealing with language teaching to identify models of language and content integration as well as general instructional principles because of their relevance to the context of the present study. The first strand pertains to minority language teaching and includes studies conducted in ethno-linguistically diverse situations (Cummins, 1996, 2000; Leung & Creese, 2010; PPMI, 2013). I focus on such studies as I am interested in the models and instructional principles that can be used for fostering language and content development in mainstream classrooms where pupils from diverse cultural and linguistic environment have been placed together. The second strand covers foreign/second language teaching and refers to the literature conducted in foreign/second language classes, such as English or French classes in Greek schools (e.g. Ellis, 2003, 2008; Richards, 2006; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Seedhouse, 1997). My interest is directed to these studies as they discuss the principles of language teaching in language classes. Despite the contextual difference between these two stands, they share analytic and interpretive sensibilities regarding language learning and teaching.

This chapter is divided into six sections. In section 4.1, I describe five models of additional language pedagogy that represent different orientations in terms of how additional language and content teaching can be integrated into mainstream classrooms. From these models, a set of instructional principles and illustrative

practices arise which could contribute to the inclusion of additional language instruction in subject-focused mainstream classrooms. In sections 4.2 to 4.5, I outline these general instructional principles that may inform teachers' instructional practices rather than specific language teaching approaches. As discussed in Chapter 3, teachers tend not to adopt specific teaching approaches, but rather, select different teaching principles appropriate to suit particular classroom settings. To conclude this chapter, in section 4.6, I introduce the analytic framework influenced by the discussed theoretical orientations and used for characterising the classroom practices of the focal teachers in Chapters 6-10.

4.1. Models of integrated content and language instruction

A number of definitions for integrated content and language instruction have been proposed. These have emanated from a variety of models that clearly vary because of the different conceptualisations of content, emphases on language or content and uses in different contexts. Among others, Crandall et al. (1987), Met (1999) as well as Davison and Williams (2001) attempt to categorise those models that can be implemented in foreign language classes, immersion programmes, bilingual programmes as well as mainstream classes from elementary through to tertiary levels to show their common and diverse features. For this study, I follow the descriptive framework of Davison and Williams as a basis for showing the range of possibilities in integrated language and content instruction. They mainly categorise the models that can be used in mainstream classrooms, unlike the other categorisations.

Davison and Williams (2001) conceptualise this kind of instruction as "a cline ranging from contextual language teaching to language-conscious content teaching" (p. 60) and indicate the distinctions between these models in terms of curriculum focus, underlying theories, teaching materials, curriculum function, programme type and teacher roles. At the two ends, the models either concentrate exclusively on language or content (see subsection 4.1.1), and in the middle, there are those attempting to integrate content and language in some

way or another (see subsections 4.1.2 to 4.1.4). The decisions about the type of integrated language and content instruction tend to be based on "conceptual, linguistic and cultural challenges of the content area curriculum" (Harper et al., 2010: 76) and learners' learning needs (Leung & Franson, 2001c). By way of illustration, Leung and Franson (2001c) propose that beginners need to develop quickly both interactive and academic language skills. So, they may be required to attend additional language support programmes promoting language development and using subject content only as a basis for such development. Of course, Leung (2007) stresses that in real education settings, these models are not mutually exclusive in the sense that sometimes they overlap.

4.1.1. The two extremes: Exclusive focus on language and on content

At the one end of the continuum, the curriculum focus is on host language teaching without any assistance with subject content development. Under these circumstances, the curriculum aim is for learners to master the grammar structures and vocabulary of the host language without connecting them with the language used in curriculum subject areas (Gibbons, 2009; Leung & Franson, 2001c). Leung (2007) reports that this kind of curriculum tends to be applied by additional language specialists in withdrawal classes, the target of which is to support AL pupils with the attainment of basic language knowledge and skills before entering the mainstream classroom.

At the other end of the continuum, the curriculum focus is on content teaching with little or no dedicated and explicit assistance with language development. According to Davison and Williams (2001), this model tends to be adopted in mainstream classrooms without language sensitivity. For example, it underlines mainstream classes delivered by subject teachers in which the lesson is geared towards pupils gaining subject knowledge with no consideration of AL pupils' needs or language objectives. Immersion and submersion programmes are also representative of this model (Met, 1999). Immersion programmes mainly trigger the development of two languages through subject-content teaching but without explicit language teaching (for a description, see Cummins, 1984; Skutnabb-Kangas & Cummins, 1988). On the other hand, submersion

programmes, in which the school curriculum is common for all pupils without any differentiation in its content or its pedagogy and AL pupils do not usually receive any academic and language support, promote exclusively subject content development (Creese, 2005; Cummins, 1984, 2000; Skutnabb-Kangas, 1988).

These extreme views tend not to be helpful for preparing AL learners to deal with the cognitive and language demands of the mainstream classroom (Skutnabb-Kangas & Cummins, 1988). Regarding the first model, Cummins (1994) posits that learners should not delay content learning while improving their language as this may affect their academic performance and thus hold back their becoming academically and cognitively on a par with their native-speaking peers (see also subsection 4.3.2). For example, in Germany where linguistic support is provided but academic support is less important, it has been noticed that this practice has had negative effects on AL learners' educational performance (PPMI, 2013). In Norway, 20% of AL pupils attending language support classes never join the mainstream classroom and in Switzerland, AL pupils participating in such classes usually have difficulty following the mainstream curriculum (Nusche, 2009).

Regarding the second model, Swain (1988) points out that exposure to subject content without explicit language teaching does not promote language and cognitive development. As mentioned in sections 4.3 and 4.4, an additional language can be learned effectively when it is used as a way of communicating meaning in a range of contexts rather than as an end itself. PPMI (2013) mentions that most of the EU countries tend not to support the language development of AL pupils alongside subject content development consistently. This usually makes AL pupils' transition from one education level to another difficult and hence, it negatively affects their academic performance (OECD, 2010a).

AL learners, however, need to build up higher-order thinking skills, such as analysing, synthesising and evaluating, with the appropriate language, whilst at the same time mastering subject content to overcome the cognitive and

academic requirements of the school curriculum (Creese, 2005; PPMI, 2013; Snow et al., 1989). So, other models need to be adopted aiming to foster content and language integration. In Davison and Williams' (2001) framework, three models, i.e. a) contextualising language teaching, b) simultaneous language and content teaching, and c) language-conscious content teaching, focus on both language and content in different ways and lie between the two poles of the continuum.

4.1.2. 'Contextualised language teaching'

Although there are many disadvantages of language support outside the mainstream classroom (see Karsten, 2006), Christensen and Stanat (2007) reveal that such support can be effective when the language development is promoted through mainstream curriculum themes rather than through everyday topics. Davison and Williams (2001) call this model "contextualised language teaching" and has been mainly applied in support language classes occurring in parallel with the mainstream classroom. In such classes, teachers tend to place the emphasis on host language development but using subject content as a vehicle for language teaching. In contrast to extreme language-oriented classes described in subsection 4.1.1, teachers' main aim is to assist AL learners not only to develop language points and vocabulary, but also to use these points and vocabulary for different academic and communicative purposes (for the importance of teaching language functions, see subsection 4.3.2). In these classes, teachers tend to conceptualise subject content as an avenue for getting pupils to become aware of the relationship between language function and structures as well as for meaningful and purposeful language use (Harper et al., 2010; Met, 1999).

In Sweden, the "Swedish as a Second language" curriculum applied in preparatory classes has been aligned with the mainstream curriculum by including key subject concepts. This has been seen as an effective linguistic support on the grounds that AL learners tend to present good academic achievement in PISA reports (Christensen & Stanat, 2007; PPMI, 2013). Davison and Williams (2001) also categorise the topic approach adopted in

Australian contexts in this model. This approach has the purpose of helping pupils to develop language knowledge and the ability to employ it appropriately for different purposes. This can be achieved by encouraging them to express their opinions and ideas about different subject concepts (for an extended description, see Davison, 2001a).

4.1.3. 'Simultaneous language and content teaching'

Another model of integrated language and content instruction, which Leung (2007) also calls trans-curriculum language approach, has the goal of both subject content mastery and language development. Davison and Williams (2001) state that it can be adopted in either mainstream classes or additional language ones, where teachers aim at supporting both pupils' content understanding and language development. However, mainstream subject and/or additional language teachers may have difficulties in applying it in practice. For example, in her ethnographic research in secondary schools in London, Creese (2005; 2010) notices that subject teachers may not have suitable knowledge and skills for detecting language features in their subject area that need to be taught to AL learners or may be reluctant to amend their teaching to cater for these learners' needs. On the other hand, because of a lack of subject knowledge, as Ashworth (2001) points out, additional language teachers may not be able to promote learners' development of the language skills required by the curriculum subjects without the support of subject teachers. Seen in this light, it would appear that collaboration between teachers tasked with different roles in children's learning, as well as related teacher training are crucial for this model to be applied in practice. This can be confirmed by the positive outcome of such practices regarding AL pupils' performance in Sweden (Christensen & Stanat, 2007).

The Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) proposed by Chamot and O'Malley (1987) can be included in this model. Through its application, the aim is to prepare intermediate or advanced AL pupils who have already become competent in interactive informal language use to make a transition from additional language classes to mainstream ones. According to

proponents of this approach, this transition can occur when pupils obtain the academic language skills that are essential for participating in the mainstream classroom. This model recommends that teachers design their lessons geared towards language development by taking topics from the subject content of the mainstream curriculum. This can assist pupils in acknowledging how language is employed in different academic contexts, enhancing their language skills and gaining understanding of language functions, structures and subject-specific vocabulary. It can also give learners opportunities to use language actively for academic purposes (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987). Under CALLA, teachers also need to support pupils in becoming aware of learning strategies that can facilitate their comprehension, learning and the grasping of how to handle new concepts. However, besides the development of academic formal skills, the development of interactive informal language needs to be promoted in mainstream classrooms in order for learners to reach high-level language proficiency (for a related discussion, see subsection 4.3.2).

Snow, Met and Genesee (1989; 1992) also propose a conceptual framework for integrating language and content objectives, that can be applied in mainstream or support language classes, for enabling pupils to learn language and content simultaneously. They express the view that teachers need to include "content-obligatory language objectives" in their lessons to promote AL learners' development of the subject-specific language needed to master subject content. These objectives can be structural (e.g. specific words and structures) or functional (e.g. requiring information, evaluating) and need to be linked with the concepts expressed in the subject content. By way of illustration, pupils need to know the vocabulary used in maths to grasp mathematical concepts and produce related language. Teachers also need to include "content-compatible language objectives" for learners to acquire language knowledge and skills that are not related to subject-specific language, but can have an effect on their language performance. These objectives are mainly derived from either additional language curricula or pupils' language assessments, and content is used as a vehicle for meaningful and purposeful language practice. For instance, history teachers could teach the past tense in their lessons so that pupils can gain knowledge of how it can be used in history texts and hence, can produce

texts using this tense. Despite its positive elements, Davison and Williams (2001) remark that its proponents have not considered time constraints and the difficulty of collaboration between additional language and subject-content teachers. Leung (2007) also points out that this model is not subject specific (for a discussion, see Davison & Williams, 2001; Leung, 2007).

In the European contexts, another approach inspired by the Canadian immersion education has launched called *Content and Language Integrated Learning* (CLIL). European Commission has promoted this approach with the aim of encouraging Europeans to communicate effectively in two community languages in addition to their mother tongue (Coyle, 2007, 2008; de Graaff et al., 2007). In EU mainstream schools following this approach, curriculum subjects are taught in an additional language in a context where their mother tongue is strong, and the focus of instruction is on both language and content mastery (Eurydice, 2006). According to Coyle (2007, 2008), this would make learners capable of using additional languages effectively and appropriately whilst mastering subject content. There is no single model of CLIL and thus CLIL is seen as an umbrella term (Coyle, 2007; Eurydice, 2006). It has been applied differently in different EU countries, based on the variety of contexts, education stage, learner characteristics, subject content and teacher types (for a discussion on these models, see Cenoz et al., 2013; de Graaff et al., 2007; Eurydice, 2006; Pérez-Cañado, 2011). Coyle (2007) states that there are mainly two types of CLIL programmes, i.e. language-driven and subject-driven, on the grounds that a balance between language and content teaching is hard to achieve. Although these programmes can be used as an example of integrating language and content in mainstream classrooms, in most of EU countries, the target languages are foreign languages showing that CLIL has mainly targeted MT rather AL pupils (Eurydice, 2006). In the next subsection, I describe another model that encourages the integration of language and content, giving emphasis to the teaching of academic content.

4.1.4. 'Language-conscious content teaching'

Although this last model called "language-conscious content teaching" or "language-sensitive content instruction" (Crandall, 1992) emphasises academic subject mastery, it endeavours to facilitate pupils' subject content comprehension by using an array of teaching strategies. Davison and Williams (2001) claim that it has been mainly implemented in mainstream classes including an additional language dimension. In such classes, teachers tend to focus on subject specific vocabulary, discourses and registers to support pupils' grasping of subject concepts, whilst at the same time seeking their acquisition of the target language (Harper et al., 2010; Leung, 2007).

An example of this model is sheltered instruction, which has been developed for both primary and secondary education in USA, and in which teachers have attempted to adapt subject content taking account of pupils' level and needs (Crandall, 1992; Crandall, 2012). Another example is the English national curriculum in which subject teachers are advised to use different strategies to facilitate AL pupils' participation in mainstream classroom activities (Leung, 2007). Based on the systemic functional linguistics perspective, Mohan (1986, 2001) also recommends a teaching approach that encourages teachers to identify and explain knowledge structures underlying curriculum content. For him, this approach can enable pupils to become able to grasp this content, to enhance their thinking skills and at the same time to develop their language during subject-content classes. However, the subject content understanding has been shown not to lead to language accuracy and appropriateness development. So there is a need for explicit language teaching (for extensive discussion, see section 4.3).

4.1.5. Brief comments

There is a range of models for integrating content and language development in mainstream education and the choice of the effective model is mainly based on educational and classroom contexts. Sometimes, a combination of these models might be more effective rather than the implementation of a single one. For

example, as mentioned in section 11.3, in Denmark, different models have been applied according to the AL learners' language level. Despite the differences between these models, a set of instructional principles and representative practices relevant to them can be applied in mainstream classrooms for contributing to language development in conjunction with content mastery in a range of ways. It is important to bear in mind that because of the complexity of teaching, no single approach can be suitable for all classroom contexts and for all pupils (see Chapter 3). So, teachers need to extend their professional knowledge by making themselves aware of a variety of principles and illustrative practices. The principles discussed in detail in the rest of the chapter are not mutually exclusive in the sense that often they overlap in classroom delivery.

4.2. Making classroom language and content materials understandable

Several studies on language development have argued that exposure to input (spoken and written language), which needs to be meaning-focused and comprehensible rather than extensive (Harklau, 1994), can facilitate language development (e.g. Cummins, 1996, 2000; Ellis, 2008; Krashen, 1982; Leung, 1996). This idea was initially expressed by Krashen (1982), who contends that learners can acquire an additional language by only comprehending the input that they are exposed to, which should contain language features that are a slightly beyond learners' present level of proficiency. Such exposure will assist them to absorb and employ new language features and functions without the need for explicit language teaching (Krashen, 1982). This assumption tends to underpin Canadian immersion programmes (see subsection 4.1.1). Allen et al. (1990), investigating these programmes, found that through the exposure to such input without considering language features during classroom interactions, learners were able to master content, whilst at the same time improving some aspects of their language proficiency, such as comprehension skills.

However, other researchers have provided evidence that the exclusive exposure to input may be an obstacle to children mastering aspects of language

proficiency comprehensively (e.g. Harklau, 1994; Long, 1991; Mohan, 2001; Swain, 2005). VanPatten (1990) maintains that there is a possibility that learners comprehend input without focusing on or remembering its morphosyntax. Swain (1988, 1995; 1996) also claims that when teacher input is limited in complexity and functionality, it can prevent learners from producing language accurately and appropriately (see also section 4.4). Nevertheless, even though input comprehension cannot lead to language learning as such, according to Long (1985) and Pica et al. (1987), it can contribute to encouraging learners' participation in classroom interactions, which may result in language development (see section 4.5). In the subsequent subsections, I discuss different pedagogic practices that have been recommended by a range of educators (e.g. Chaudron, 1988; Cummins, 1992b, 1996, 2000; Leung, 1996; Long, 1985) and that can be used to render input comprehension in mainstream classrooms.

4.2.1. Providing contextual support

Contextual support has been seen as an effective practice for engendering comprehension of classroom language and content materials in mainstream classrooms (Cummins, 1996; Harris & Leung, 2007; Leung, 1996). Cummins (1992b, 1996, 2000) presents a framework in an attempt to explain the linguistic and cognitive demands of a range of social and education situations as well as the variety of contextual support that can be used to assist pupils in expressing and receiving meaning (see figure 4.1).
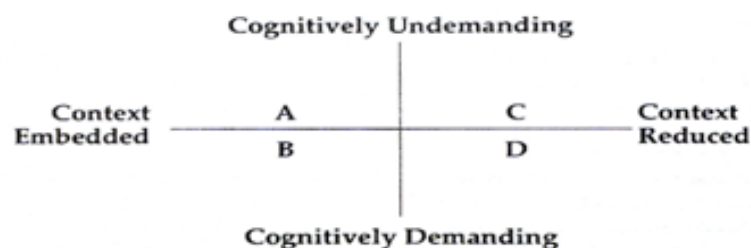
Figure 4.1: Range of contextual support and degree of cognitive demands (Cummins, 1992b, 1996, 2000)

Based on this framework, he argues that learners are able to comprehend meaning when they are engaged in cognitively undemanding and context-embedded situations. These situations tend to occur during everyday communication when people can negotiate and perceive meaning through contextual support, for under such circumstances interactive informal language tends to be used and little cognitive involvement is required. On the other hand, learners can present difficulties in grasping meaning when they are expected to participate in cognitively demanding and context-reduced situations. In these situations, learners have to rely only on linguistic cues to comprehend meaning, academic formal language tends to be used and active cognitive involvement is required. According to Cummins, this happens because of the conceptual difference of BICS and CALP[14] and the existence or absence of contextual support to understand meaning. From this perspective, in order that learners can cope with their difficulties, he maintains that teachers not only need to engage them in cognitively demanding tasks to continue their cognitive development, but also to apply instructional strategies that provide them with contextual support. This support will facilitate pupils' comprehension of academic language used in classrooms as well as coping with cognitive curriculum requirements (Cummins, 1992b, 1996, 2000). This view has been sustained by many researchers (e.g. Palincsar & Schleppegrell, 2014; Wong Fillmore, 2014). In a study conducted by Palincsar & Schleppegrell (2014), it was shown that AL learners were able to read and comprehend complex science texts as well as to write arguments using evidence from the texts when they had the appropriate instructional support.

Cummins (1996) refers to two types of instructional strategies that can promote or hinder academic language understanding, i.e. "attributes of the individual" and "aspects of input that facilitate or impede comprehension" (p. 60). Regarding the first type, learners' prior knowledge in their mother tongue, their experience, their interests and culture can be used during classroom activities

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[14] Cummins (1992a, 1996, 2000) proposes that language proficiency can be divided into *Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills* (BICS), which are acquired over a short period, and *Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency* (CALP) that is acquired later. Cummins (2008) clarifies that BICS/CALP is just a conceptual distinction used to emphasise the need for providing explicit teaching of academic language skills.

for bringing forth their comprehension of new concepts. He also points out that using visuals and realia or using clear language, which contains syntactic and semantic redundancy can also render comprehension (for a range of contextual support strategies, see Cummins, 1992b, 1996, 2000).

In contrast to Cummins, Leung (1996, 2012a) states that in order for contextual support to be effective for learners, it is necessary for teachers always to take account of pupils' background knowledge. If learners do not have background knowledge to make sense of contextual support, this type of support will not have an effect on learners' comprehension, despite the fact that some teachers may consider this practice effective for language learning. In addition, Leung (2012a; 2014b) maintains that learners may need contextual support to gain an understanding of not only academic formal language, as Cummins suggests, but also of interactive informal language. Leung (2012a) shows by analysing classroom interactions between a teacher and a pupil in a mainstream classroom setting that even when the teacher used everyday language to give an explanation for a maths concept, the pupil had difficulty in attaining the meaning. He concludes that language use in classroom interactions can take different forms that learners may not be familiar with owing to the limitations of their prior learning.

Based on this critique of Cummins (1992b, 1996, 2000), Leung (1996: 29-30) proposes five aspects that need to be taken into consideration when contextual support is included in mainstream classrooms so that learners can grasp academic formal and interactive informal classroom language as well as comprehend content materials.

- "*Learners' background knowledge about the learning tasks*": refers to the importance of connecting background knowledge with the learning tasks and of using the learner's mother tongue to show the relevance of the new to the prior understanding.
- "*Use of drama, visual/ audio material and realia*": pertains to how pictures, maps, charts, videos, real objects and/or graphics can be used by teachers to explain concepts. For example, Mohan (2001) proposes that diagrams can be used to explain the knowledge structures to help learners understand the content of different texts.

- "*Use of language in the classroom*": places emphasis on the importance of teacher-pupil interaction through which learners will understand meaning.
- "*Learning styles and personal preferences*" aspect refers to the need to take into account of learners' learning styles and personal preferences that have an influence on how they engage in and understand a particular task.
- "*Classroom environment and school culture*": pertains to how teachers and other learners' perceptions of learners' "abilities, achievements and personal worth" (p. 30) affect their participation in classroom activities.

Of course, he emphasises that these aspects are interconnected, and therefore all of them should be considered during the planning of contextual support. These studies outline the critical role of contextual support for input comprehension in conjunction with the need to take in account contextual factors.

4.2.2. Teacher speech modifications

Besides providing contextual support, speech modifications tend to promote teacher talk comprehension (Gass & Varonis, 1985; Long, 1985; Wong-Fillmore, 1985). Harklau's (1994) investigation of language use in mainstream and additional language classrooms indicates that the absence of such modification hinders pupils' comprehension of teacher talk. He found that the vast majority of mainstream teachers did not modify their speech, but continued speaking as if they were addressing native speakers of English. In these classes, AL pupils found it difficult to perceive what their teachers were saying, whilst in additional language classes, where teachers adjusted their speech while interacting with them with the aim of making it comprehensible, this was not reported as being the case.

Several studies on speech modifications have revealed that not all types of modified input assist comprehension (e.g. Ellis, 2003; Gibbons, 1998; Long, 1983). Long (1983; 1985) notices that when native speakers used "foreigner talk", meaning that they simplified their speech by using shorter utterances, simple syntactic structures and high frequency words, without taking any notice of what was happening during interactions, non-native speakers struggled to comprehend their language. On the other hand, he illustrates that when speech

modifications occurred during interactions and emerged out of comprehension difficulties they were beneficial for non-native speakers to perceive the meaning of their interlocutors' talk. Similarly, Pica et al. (1987) remark that "interactionally modified input" fosters non-native speakers to comprehend input better than when it was pre-planned. Chaudron (1988: 45) summarises and explains teacher speech modifications occurring during teacher-pupil interactions that can facilitate the comprehension of teacher talk in the classroom:

- **Repetition**: an exact repeating of a previous string of speech (either partial or full, and either a self- or other-repetition),
- **Expansion**: a partial or full repetition which modifies some portion of a previous string of speech by adding syntactic or semantic information,
- **Clarification request**: a request for further information from an interlocutor about a previous utterance,
- **Comprehension check**: the speaker's query of the interlocutor(s) as to whether or not they have understood the previous speaker utterance(s),
- **Confirmation check**: the speaker's query as to whether or not the speaker's (expressed) understanding of the interlocutor's meaning is correct,
- **Repair**: an attempt by a speaker to alter or rectify a previous utterance which was in some way lacking in clarity or correctness (either self- or other-directed),
- **Model**: a type of prompt by a speaker (usually a teacher) intended to elicit an exact imitation or to serve as an exemplary response to an elicitation

Overall, Gibbons (2006) stresses that the quality rather than the quantity of speech modifications facilitates comprehension. This means that it is important for teachers to select carefully how to make spoken or written language comprehensible taking account of classroom context and learner backgrounds.

4.3. Explicit language teaching alongside meaning-focused activities in mainstream classrooms

Some researchers (e.g. Allwright, 1976; Prabhu, 1987) have asserted that the involvement in meaning-focused activities in which learners have the potential

to employ language for communicating concepts and ideas is an important dimension of language development. Others (e.g. Long, 1991; Seedhouse, 1997; Swain, 1996) have emphasised the need for including explicit teaching of language features in the context of such activities to get learners to use language not only fluently but also appropriately and accurately. In the first subsection, I discuss the importance of incorporating language-focused activities alongside meaning-focused ones and in subsection 4.3.2, I present the possible objectives of such instruction. In subsections 4.3.3 to 4.3.4, I put forward instructional principles and practices that can be used during explicit language teaching in mainstream classrooms and comment on their limitations.

4.3.1. Language-focused activities within meaning-focused instruction

An additional language can be learned when it is exploited as a way of communicating meaning in a range of contexts, whereby learners can present high levels of fluency and communicative competence (Littlewood, 2011; Savignon, 2005). Nunan (2004) argues that creative and real language use in classrooms can foster language acquisition in the sense that learners can exploit "their emerging language skills and resources in an integrated way" (p.20). Leung (2005b) supports that involvement in language-using activities would enhance learners' participation in classroom interaction which, as discussed in section 4.5, can promote language development. Allwright (1976) also noticed that a heterogeneous group of students who were involved in communicative activities the aim of which was to solve communicative problems were more capable of producing unpredictable language and were more motivated than those undertaking lessons where the focus was solely on language points.

Littlewood (2004) puts forward a five-category framework which categorises the classroom activities in terms of their communicativeness (see figure 4.2). For him, communicative activities emphasise meaning and promote 'authentic' communication in which learners are able to use unpredictable language to communicate meaning in real-life or quasi real-life situations. Similarly, despite the different definitions of tasks (see Ellis, 2000; Ellis, 2003), there is a general consensus that tasks are communicative activities in which learners tend to be

involved in "meaningful, goal-oriented communication to solve problems, complete projects, and reach decisions" (Pica, 2008: 71) using real-life or quasi real-life language (Ellis, 2003). Creative role-play, discussions, exchanges of opinions and ideas regarding a range of everyday topics, problem-solving activities are a good illustration of communicative activities (Littlewood, 2004; Richards, 2006).

Focus on forms		← →		Focus on meaning
Non-communicative learning	Pre-communicative language practice	Communicative language practice	Structured communication	Authentic communication
Focusing on the structures of language, how they are formed and what they mean, e.g. substitution exercises, 'discovery' and awareness-raising activities	Practising language with some attention to meaning but not communicating new messages to others, e.g. 'question-and-answer' practice	Practising pre-taught language in a context where it communicates new information, e.g. information-gap activities or 'personalized' questions	Using language to communicate in situations which elicit pre-learnt language, but with some unpredictability, e.g. structured role-play and simple problem-solving	Using language to communicate in situations where the meanings are unpredictable, e.g. creative role-play, more complex problem-solving and discussion

Figure 4.2: From focus on forms to focus on meaning (Littlewood, 2004)

Adopting this principle but going a step forward, proponents of the 'strong' version of communicative language teaching claim that language is learned through communicative language use without teachers paying specific attention to language features (Howatt, 1984; Prabhu, 1987). Similarly, Krashen (1982) argues that explicit language teaching does not assist language development, but on the contrary, can actually interfere with the natural developmental process. He also points out that error corrections can discourage learners from using language and may interrupt communication. It would be apparent that natural language use and interaction has been considered sufficient for learners to absorb language points and enhance their language skills without any planned grammar instruction or incidental error correction.

By contrast, a number of other scholars (e.g. Grim, 2008; Mohan, 2001; Spada & Lightbown, 1993) have pointed out that although the involvement in meaning-focused activities without explicit teaching of language use may assist

learners to acquire some language features, it may prevent them from developing all aspects of language proficiency. Having investigated classroom extracts, Seedhouse (1997) discovered that exclusive concentration on meaning can lead to the production of fragmentary one-word answers as teachers placed emphasis on pupils being engaged in communication rather than producing accurate contributions. He also elicited that when learners' language errors were not corrected, since teachers' aim was solely to engage them in communication, they made errors that they could not repair, which hindered their achieving language accuracy. After researching the learning outcomes of Canadian immersion programmes, Swain (1985, 1988, 1993) also reported that learners presented morphological and syntactic errors and their language use did not contain sociolinguistic and discourse competence. For instance, immersion students had difficulty in using the French politeness marker *vous*, as subject teachers did not make a distinction between its polite and plural use.

Such findings have highlighted the benefit of integrating explicit language teaching with meaning-focused instruction (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Long, 1991; Long & Robinson, 1998). Allen et al. (1990) support the view that explicit language teaching can lead learners to employ language accurately, coherently and appropriately, thereby achieving high levels of language proficiency. Similarly, Lightbown and Spada (1990) having analysed classroom observations of four intensive ESL classes in Quebec, found that language learners who were engaged with explicit language instruction through meaning-based instruction, developed accuracy, fluency and communicative skills. In a study which set out to investigate the effects of explicit instruction of self-referential pronouns on learners' writing, Abbuhl (2012) also observed that learners in the instruction group were more capable of writing an essay using the taught rhetorical targets than those in the non-instruction group.

Of course, this does not mean that language features should be taught out of context and without reference to the different functions or in separate language classrooms without a connection to subject content (see subsection 4.3.3). On the contrary, the proponents of this principle (e.g. Doughty & Williams, 1998; Long, 1991, 2015) contend that language features need to be explained when

teachers realise that pupils have had a difficulty in using them accurately and appropriately during meaning-focused activities. Ellis (1997, 2006) also highlights that a range of factors need to be taken into account when the content of focus-on-form instruction is decided and that not all language points need to be explicitly taught. The evidence presented in this section suggests that language teaching needs to be conducted through activities which focus on meaning rather than on the language itself. In the subsequent subsection, I consider the elements on which teachers may focus during explicit language instruction.

4.3.2. The objectives of explicit language instruction

There is a consensus among many additional language researchers that learners need to attain communicative competence of both academic formal and interactive informal language so as to enhance fluency, accuracy, coherence and appropriateness (e.g. Allen et al., 1990; Leung, 2010a; Scarcella, 2003). Halliday (1975) introduces the term "language function" to stress the relationship between language form and meaning as a reaction to the view of language as an autonomous and "abstract system whose meanings reside in the forms themselves rather than in the uses to which they are put" (Hall, 2002: 9). Halliday (1975) maintains that in real life, people use language features to express ideas and concepts as well as to communicate with others rather than talking about language itself. They also exploit them to express meaning in terms of the purpose of communication and the emphasis that they want to provide (Halliday, 1975).

Hymes (1972) also supports the perspective that in order to acquire communicative skills, learners need not only to have language knowledge, but also to know how to use it appropriately for different purposes. He uses the notion of "communicative competence" to refer to the knowledge and ability that learners are expected to obtain to be able to communicate with others using the language features appropriately in authentic and meaningful contexts. Canale and Swain (Canale, 1983, 1984; Canale & Swain, 1980) adopt and adapt

the Hymesian ideas to additional language teaching, proposing that communicative competence consists of the following components:

1) *Grammatical competence*: this refers to the importance for learners to develop "knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology" to understand and express meaning accurately (Canale & Swain, 1980: 29).

2) *Sociolinguistic competence*: this refers to "sociocultural rules of use" that learners need to know to understand and produce appropriate language within sociocultural contexts.

3) *Discourse competence*: this refers to the importance for learners to know the characteristics of every text type and be able to combine grammatical forms and meanings so as to produce coherent and cohesive texts.

4) *Strategic competence*: this refers to the "verbal and nonverbal communication strategies" that learners need to develop to cope with breakdowns in communication.

From this perspective, they conclude that language teaching should pursue the development of not only language knowledge, but also functions, the characteristics of text types and the fostering of communicative strategies. Leung (2010a) notices that this framework has influenced the conceptualisation of communicative competence in additional language curricula, materials and pedagogy and has been considered an essential objective of explicit language instruction. However, one major drawback of this framework is that it ignores the necessity of preparing learners to understand how to adapt their language use to a range of communication contexts (for a discussion, see section 4.5).

Furthermore, several studies have shown that learners need to develop two types of language use (Leung, 2012a; Scarcella, 2003). Language use in terms of subject content tends to differ from that outside the classroom, with each requiring different language use and knowledge (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987; Cummins, 1992b; Snow et al., 1989). For this reason, Mohan (2001) advises that learners need to become aware of the subject-specific language knowledge and use underpinning each type of subject content in order not only to understand it but also to reproduce it. As mentioned in subsection 4.2.1, Cummins (1992b, 1996, 2000) also emphasises the longer period that learners

need to enhance academic language skills when compared to those required for everyday communication with the aim of justifying the importance of explicit academic formal language teaching.

In addition to the teaching of academic formal language, interactive informal language teaching in mainstream classrooms is salient (Davison & Williams, 2001; Leung, 2012a; Scarcella, 2003). Scarcella (2003) points out that pupils may develop some aspects of interactive informal language late and those of academic formal language earlier. Davison and Williams (2001) also declare that the exclusive focus on the development of academic language may lead to the development of "language trapped in specific content" (p. 66), and as a result pupils will not be able to employ language in everyday social communications. This indicates that learners may need to become proficient in both language types to become capable of dealing with communicative and subject-content demands inside and outside classroom.

Scarcella (2003) attempts to combine the significance of developing communicative competence with the need to promote the attainment of both academic formal and interactive informal language. She proposes a framework which describes the linguistic components (phonological, lexical, grammatical, sociolinguistic and discourse component) of both types of language that teachers can include in their instruction from primary to secondary education (see Appendix 5). For example, the grammatical components of everyday language could include "knowledge of syntax or of simple punctuation" while those of academic language could entail "knowledge of grammatical content-occurrence restrictions governing words" (Scarcella, 2003: 12). Despite the detailed description of the key features of both types of language, this framework is not subject-specific, i.e. it does not entail the registers of all curriculum subjects, does not consider the proficiency language level of learners and is not age or level appropriate. As Scarcella (2003) explains, it provides a general understanding of the components of both types of language, and so learners' needs, language problems and subject content demands need to be taken into account when this framework is applied in classroom settings. Two important themes emerge from the studies discussed above: language

objectives incorporated into the mainstream curriculum need to a) address both academic formal and interactive informal language use and b) promote the development of all of the aspects of communicative competence. These objectives should be adapted to learners' language level, needs as well as class level. In the following subsections, I describe the teaching practices that can be adopted during explicit language teaching, commenting on their advantages and disadvantages.

4.3.3. Traditional approaches to language teaching

Richards (2006) remarks that when teachers adopt traditional approaches to language teaching, also called focus on forms (Long, 1991), this often involves giving grammar rules, explaining vocabulary and elucidating the forms of discrete language features (in terms nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc.) one at a time without referring to their appropriateness, thus presenting them out of context. A well-known model emerging from a traditional approach, i.e. the audio-lingual approach (for a description, see Richards & Rodgers, 2001), and used in language classes is the three-stage sequence *PPP* model (Present-Practice-Produce). The purpose of this model is to get pupils to learn and practice specific language features one at a time so that they can use them outside the classroom environment. In this model, language features are preselected and presented deductively or inductively[15]. Learners are engaged in controlled practices activities and then participate in production activities in which they can grasp the opportunity to talk about different topics or in role-play assuming that they can transfer grammar rules "into communicative use in appropriate contexts" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006: 107).

As discussed above, explicit language teaching is a determinant factor for additional language development, but the exclusive focus on forms in either mainstream classrooms or separate language ones has not triggered pupils to

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[15] In deductive instruction, the teacher initially presents the grammar rule of a single language feature and then gives examples to explain it (DeKeyser, 1995; Ellis, 2001; Ellis, 2006; Richards, 2006). On the other hand, in inductive instruction, learners are first exposed to a set of examples containing language features and are expected to identify the grammar rule by analysing the examples (ibid).

employ language for academic and communicative purposes in real-life situations (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Littlewood, 2011; Long, 1991). For instance, Norris and Ortega (2000), after reviewing 49 studies in which teachers focused exclusively on language points in isolation of context and expected pupils to produce linguistically correct forms without the purpose of communication, observed that learners failed to use language points spontaneously and fluently in real-life communication. Lyster (2007) also reveals that in a mother tongue class in which the teacher emphasised the forms of words without referring to their meanings or different functions, AL learners had difficulties in utilising this knowledge in other subject-content classrooms. Based on similar research findings, Long (1991) expresses the opinion that language features need to be taught in the context of meaning-focused activities through so-called focus-on-form instruction.

4.3.4. Focus-on-form instruction

As discussed in subsection 4.3.1, numerous studies (e.g. Grim, 2008; Long, 2015; Nassaji, 2000) have revealed the effectiveness of drawing learners' attention to language features in context while participating in meaning-focused activities. In the second and immersion language literature, two alternative types of focus-on-form instruction have been proposed to indicate how this can be delivered in conjunction with focus on meaning or communication (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis, 2001; Lyster, 2007).

The first type, planned or proactive focus on form, entails meaning-focused instruction in which teachers preselect the language features, the explanations as well as related activities according to their judgment regarding which language features are difficult rather than learners' actual language difficulties (Ellis, 2001; Ellis et al., 2001; Lyster, 2007). It can happen through 'enriched input', meaning that teachers tend to modify input to include plentiful examples of the target language feature so that learners can notice form in the context of meaning-focused activities and it can be realised through 'input flood' or 'input enhancement' practices (for a description, see Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis, 2001). Planned focus on form can also occur through 'focused communicative

tasks', which have mainly been adopted in task-based teaching, during which teachers turn learners' attention to specific language features while communicating content (for a description, see Ellis, 2003).

Another type of such instruction is incidental or reactive, which is related to Swain's Output Hypothesis (1985, 1993; 1995 and for a description of this hypothesis, see section 3.4). This refers to the need for providing feedback on learner language errors and for turning pupils' attention to form during language use. Under this arrangement, teachers tend not to predetermine the language features that they will teach as in planned focus on form, but rather, focus on features that learners have not used accurately or appropriately during lessons (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ellis et al., 2002; Long & Robinson, 1998). Teachers may inform learners about their errors and give the correct answer, explain it by using mainly metalinguistic information or attempt to elicit the correct form from the learners (Ellis, 2001). They may also correct the errors by reformulating learners' replies (recast) and requesting clarification or repetition so as to assist them in identifying and maybe correcting their errors. A number of studies have reported that feedback which does not give the correct forms, but leaves pupils to repair their errors, is more effective than when the correct answer is given (for these studies, see Lyster, 2011). Regardless of the type of feedback, Allen et al. (1990) argue that it needs to be given systematically if it is to contribute to pupils' language development.

Both types of focus-on-form instruction have been considered effective, despite their disadvantages (for a critique on both types, see Ammar & Spada, 2006; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis et al., 2002). There is also the assumption that focus on form can be useful to some extent, for some language points, for some learners and at some time periods during language learning (for a discussion, see DeKeyser, 1998; Ellis, 2006). For this reason, DeKeyser (1995) proposes that teachers need to decide which type or combination is appropriate for their classrooms, by taking account of learner age, proficiency level, educational background, educational context as well as the complexity of the language features. Together these studies provide important insights into the benefits of explicit language teaching in mainstream classrooms where the main focus is on

meaning and into how such teaching could enhance language attainment alongside content mastery.

4.4. Creating opportunities for producing extensive spoken and written language

Data from several sources have revealed that learners' language production is among the most important factors for additional language development (Lyster, 2007; Richards, 2006; Swain, 1993, 1995, 2005). Noticing that teachers gave pupils minimal opportunities to produce extensive language in immersion classes, Swain (1985, 1993) assumed that this was a key reason for their restricted language use and numerous language errors. This led her to emphasise the necessity of involving them in language production (speaking and writing) activities, a view that has been embraced by several additional and second language researchers (e.g. Ellis, 2008; Genesee, 1994; Gibbons, 2009; Harklau, 1994). In this section, first, I explain the role of comprehensible output for language development (subsection 4.4.1), and then I describe practices that teachers can adopt to encourage extensive language production during whole-class and collaborative activities in mainstream classrooms (subsection 4.4.2).

4.4.1. The role of comprehensible output

Meaningful and purposeful language use (output) in mainstream classrooms appears to foster additional language development in terms of fluency, accuracy and appropriateness (Allen et al., 1990; Izumi et al., 1999; Richards, 2006; Swain, 1985, 1988, 1993, 1995). Swain (1993) mentions that language use can provide learners with opportunities to practise their linguistic resources using them effortlessly for discussing a range of topics for real purposes. Richards (2006) also states that it can support the development of communicative skills as well as the production of unpredictable language. After reviewing studies conducted in classrooms organising mainly communicative activities, Ellis (1997) highlights that such classrooms succeed in promoting the attainment of pupils' communicative abilities as well as their discourse and strategic

competence. From this perspective, it would appear that language use could be a means for greater fluency and for the development of communicative efficiency.

Swain (1993), however, contends that output that includes grammatical and sociolinguistic errors can still foster meaning communication. This observation led her to put forward the Output Hypothesis referring to three functions of comprehensible output, i.e. 'hypothesis-testing', 'metalinguistic (reflective)' and 'noticing/ triggering'. Swain (1985, 1995, 2005) proposes that output emerging during interactions will assist learners to become aware of and resolve their language problems, to automatise existing language knowledge, to test new language expressions in terms of how they can be used in context, to develop discourse skills and to infuse metalinguistic awareness. In this way, for her, learners can be triggered to go beyond their comfort zone to get across their message accurately, coherently and appropriately while discussing subject concepts with others (Swain, 1985, 1995, 2005). Seen in this light, she claims that output can promote the enhancement of not only fluency but also grammatical and sociolinguistic competence.

The aspects of this hypothesis have been tested by several studies (e.g. Izumi et al., 1999; Mackey, 2002; Swain & Lapkin, 1995). Swain and Lapkin's (1995) study on the noticing function of output indicated that in a French immersion programme, learners were able to notice their language problems in their writing and attempted to correct them during thinking aloud sessions. Mackey (2002) provided evidence of the hypothesis-testing function of output. She revealed that after receiving the teacher's feedback, a learner was testing different pronunciations of the word 'suite' to find the correct one. Swain (1998) found out that collaborative talks about language can enhance accuracy. After the researcher and the teacher modelled metalinguistic talks, the students were encouraged to reconstruct a given text working in pairs and to engage in such talks when a language problem arose. In the post-test which focused on language points discussed in pairs, the learners who were able to solve the problems correctly presented higher results than those who could not.

Nevertheless, not all kinds of output can fulfil the functions suggested by Swain (1985, 1995, 2005). Harklau (1994) illustrates that the use of a range of language features and complex utterances that are grammatically and sociolinguistically appropriate and coherent can enhance learners' ability to produce such language inside and outside the classroom. Spada and Fröhlich (1995) also point out that unpredictability tends to motivate learners to communicate with others. So, there seems to be some empirical evidence to suggest that output, under some conditions (see subsection 4.4.2), may promote language development.

4.4.2. Language production in whole-class and in collaborative activities

Research, such as that conducted by Pica and Doughty (1985b), has shown that there is a difference between language production opportunities that teachers usually give during whole-class and collaborative activities. In whole-class activities in which teachers tend to control classroom talk, many teachers take a great deal of class time to introduce and explain content concepts without leaving sufficient time for learners to produce spoken or written language (Allen et al., 1990; Harklau, 1994; Leung, 1993). In their ethnographic research, Allen et al. (1990) observed that during such activities, learners had minimal opportunities for extensive language use or they used simplified language in terms of syntax, vocabulary and grammar.

In a great part of classroom talk during such activities, teachers have the tendency to ask numerous questions that influence the length of language use (Creese, 2010; Faruji, 2011; Fröhlich et al., 1985; Wardman, 2012). When investigating the communication features that promote extended language production, Allen et al. (1990) became aware that in immersion classes, subject teachers mainly asked 'display requests' the answer to which they already knew. These requests resulted in 'relatively predictable' and 'minimal' answers from learners consisting of one clause or sentence. Similarly, in mother tongue language classes in which teachers aimed to check learners' language knowledge, they often asked 'display requests' about particular language points that also led to 'restricted' pupil language use (Allen et al., 1990). In her

ethnographic study in a secondary mainstream classroom, Creese (2010) also observed that subject teachers' display questions mainly resulted in one-word answers.

On the other hand, there is evidence that open-ended questions that do not aim at examining learner language and content knowledge, but rather, at getting them to discuss different ideas extensively tend to engender the use of unpredictable and complex language (Allen et al., 1990; Chaudron, 1988; Creese, 2010; Faruji, 2011). Allen et al. (1990) found that when teachers made 'information requests' the answer to which they did not know in advance, the pupils produced 'sustained speech', which was 'unrestricted' and 'relatively unpredictable'. Learners regularly produced extended talk with utterances longer than one sentence and discussed a range of topics exploiting language resources not specified by the teachers. After reviewing a number of studies on the use of questions in second language classrooms, Chaudron (1988) also observed that questions about their experience or their opinion and beliefs often triggered learners to produce more complex and extended spoken and written language. Nevertheless, Lyster (2007) and Chaudron (1988) maintain that both display and information requests can be combined in a classroom for language use depending on the lesson aims and learner needs.

The involvement in collaborative activities has been also found to facilitate the production of extended and contingent language (Allen et al., 1990; Long & Porter, 1985; Pica & Doughty, 1985a). Long and Porter (1985) point out that in such activities, learners tend to have more time to practise language and so can produce more extended language when compared to answering teacher questions as no one is controlling the talk. They also propose that through such activities the quality of learner language use can be improved. Learners can draw upon a range of linguistic resources to engage in conversations with their peers, adapt their language according to the context and as a result, they can increasingly come to understand how to produce appropriate and coherent language (Long & Porter, 1985). Lyster (2007) referring to several studies conducted in immersion classes concludes that such activities enabled learners to pay attention to and discuss their output in terms of language problems,

which, according to Swain (1993, 1995), can engender accuracy development. However, Leung (2001b) advises that these activities need to be organised carefully so as to maximize language production opportunities (for an extended discussion, see subsection 4.5.3). Overall, these studies highlight the need to encourage learners to produce extensive, complex and unpredictable output during teacher-pupil or pupil-pupil interactions. This can enable them to develop the grammatical, sociocultural and discourse features required for them to cope with academic and communicative demands.

4.5. Participation in classroom interaction

Following Vygotskian theory about learning (for a description, see Vygotsky, 1978, 1986), a considerable amount of literature has supported that learners' active participation in meaningful interactions with their teachers or peers is pivotal to the accomplishment of additional language development in classrooms (Allwright, 1984; Hall, 2003; Leung, 1993; Van Lier, 1996). In the previous sections, reference to interaction has been made as this entails both language comprehension and production, but in this section, I outline the instruction practices that can encourage participation involvement in interactions in mainstream classrooms. In subsection 4.5.1, I discuss the theoretical considerations underpinning the importance of participation in interactions and in the subsequent subsections, I present how this can be encouraged. Of course, as Johnson (1994a) reports, participation structures need to be chosen carefully and can be combined depending on learner characteristics and learning needs as well as classroom context so that all the learners at different levels can participate in classroom interactions.

4.5.1. The importance of participating in classroom interactions

There is a consensus among additional language researchers that classroom interaction can foster the development of communicative competence (Genesee, 1994; Gibbons, 2009; Mohan et al., 2001). Gibbons (2009) mentions that in meaningful interactions, learners can maintain a conversation with teachers and

their peers by using linguistic resources to understand meaning and to make themselves understood. In fact, in such interactions, learners tend to make their language use understandable by adjusting it phonologically, morphologically, semantically or syntactically after the interlocutor's request for clarification or after realising the interlocutor's difficulties in understanding. At the same time, they attempt to comprehend their interlocutor's input by requesting clarification. The teachers' role is usually to provide scaffolded support taking into consideration learners' backgrounds mainly by adjusting their speech to encourage learners' participation in classroom tasks (Hawkins, 2010). Such support can also occur during learner-learner interactions in which the more capable learners are able to support their peers' participation (Leung, 2001b). Of course, this support needs to be gradually reduced until learners are able to accomplish curriculum tasks without the assistance of teachers or peers (Gibbons, 2009).

This process can enable learners to realise how language can be used in different contexts, as well as to develop and model new language features (Allwright, 1984; Ellis, 1985; Gibbons, 1998). Gibbons (1998) found that in a science mainstream classroom, by engaging a AL pupil actively in naturally occurring interactions, the teacher facilitated her development of academic formal language vocabulary alongside subject-content understanding. Likewise, Ellis (1985) maintains that learners are able to incorporate new language points in their speech when the teacher embraces speech modifications during meaningful negotiations. Dobao (2014) also demonstrated that interaction in small groups in which learners had to complete a written task through collaborating with their peers engendered vocabulary development.

Leung (2005a, 2013, 2014a) also argues that active participation in interactions can enhance the development of communicative capacity. He remarks that the components of communicative competence expressed by Canale and Swain (Canale, 1983, 1984; Canale & Swain, 1980 and for a description of these components, see subsection 3.3.2) represent only one aspect of communicative capacity. According to him, communicative competence has been conceptualised as a stable phenomenon. It is assumed that by learning to use

language knowledge appropriately, accurately and coherently in classroom settings, learners will be ready to cope with all the communicative situations outside the classroom. However, language can be employed in an unlimited number of ways outside the classroom to convey meaning and how it is used depends on participants' conceptualisation of the context, their purposes and the social situations. This means that its usage cannot always be prescribed, predictable or established (Leung, 2005a, 2013, 2014a). According to Leung (2013), this situation makes it impossible for teachers to cover all the aspects of language use occurring outside the classroom, being only able to address the most typical ones.

Seen in this light, Leung (2013, 2014a) advises that it is essential for learners to comprehend how they can employ their linguistic resources after considering situated social practices if they are to communicate appropriately with others. In his opinion, this can be achieved when they are encouraged to participate in classroom interactions that cannot be predetermined. During such interactions, learners would have the chance to exploit their linguistic and sociolinguistic resources to communicate with others spontaneously. This would assist learners to acknowledge how to adapt their source in unpredictable social contexts, both inside and outside the classroom (Leung, 2013, 2014a). This observation led him to call for a change to the concept of communicative competence and to suggest the incorporation of participation engagement into the notion of communicative competence.

In the same vein, Hall (2003) asserts that language development is not an internal and individual process in which learners assimilate and internalise linguistic components. On the contrary, for her, it is "a fundamentally social process" in which "through repeated participation in these [communicative] activities with more capable learners" (Hall, 2003: 170) learners would be able to develop communicative competence and become capable of adapting their language use in different social situations. In view of all that has been discussed so far, it seems reasonable to contend that active participation in classroom interactions can enhance the development of not only grammatical,

sociolinguistic and discourse competence but also the capacity for adapting language use to particular communicative contexts.

4.5.2. Whole class participation

Several studies on classroom interactions have demonstrated that in teacher-led classrooms, the main participation structure is whole class during which teachers interact only with individual class members (Mehan, 1979; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Van Lier, 1996). A common pattern of teacher-pupil interaction observed in such classrooms is known as initiation-response-follow up (IRF) (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) or teacher initiation-pupil response-teacher evaluation (IRE) (Mehan, 1979). During such interactions, the teacher is the one who controls the interaction and turn-taking, and initiates classroom talk by asking questions related to the lesson topic to either the whole class or specific learners. The learners are then required to answer the questions and either raise their hand waiting for the teacher to give them the floor, volunteer the answer or answer immediately. To conclude the interaction, the teacher evaluates the proffered answer by giving positive (e.g. providing positive praise or repeating the correct answer) or negative evaluation (e.g. using negative statements or giving the correct answer) (Mehan, 1979). After completing such a sequence, the teacher usually turns to another learner or to the whole class initiating a similar interaction, asking the same or a follow-up question (Hall, 2003).

This pattern, according to Van Lier (1996), can be useful when teachers' purpose is to check learners' knowledge or understanding, to lead learners to predetermined topics and maintain control in the classroom. However, there is evidence that it delivers few opportunities for learners to become involved in classroom interactions (Bloome et al., 2005; Gibbons, 2009; Mehan, 1979). Gibbons (2009) declares that learners tend not to have chances to initiate interaction and to participate in extended and substantive discussions with their teachers. Van Lier (1996) also expresses the view that this pattern is, by and large, absent outside the classroom, as in real-life conversations, participants are not mandated to evaluate each the other's answers, and so the classroom

situation cannot represent true dialogue. Further, despite the fact that by addressing questions to the whole class, teachers give all the learners the opportunity to participate in talk, this technique is mainly beneficial for confident learners. Non talkative or reluctant learners, like AL learners, in most cases, lack the confidence to participate in classroom interaction (Harklau, 1994; Van Lier, 1996).

Many researchers (e.g. Hall, 1995; Nunan, 1987; Nystrand et al., 1997) also found that the IRE pattern often restricts the development of communicative competence. Nunan (1987) analysing classroom extracts noticed that this pattern of interaction did not foster pupils' participation in communication that could be found outside the classroom. According to him, it does not include "content-based topic nominations by learners; student/student interactions; an increase in the length and complexity of student turns; the negotiation of meaning by students and teacher, with a concomitant increase in the number of clarification requests and comprehension checks" (Nunan, 1987: 143). In her study in a Spanish as a foreign language class, Hall (1995) also discovered that learners had limited opportunities to engage in communications in which they could use complex language to convey meaning due to the teacher's decision to adopt the IRE pattern. So, she concluded that the engagement of learners in this pattern cannot lead to the development of communicative competence.

On the other hand, there is an argument that when the IRE sequence is recast, it can provide ample opportunities for participation (Van Lier, 1996; Wells, 1993; Zemel & Koschmann, 2011). This can occur when its third part is turned from 'evaluation' to 'feedback', and so this change can lead to instructional conversations (Walqui, 2006; Wells, 1993). Walqui (2006) describes that in such conversations teachers do not assess learners' answers against predetermined correct ones. On the contrary, they provide the learners with several opportunities to answer their questions by guiding them towards the answer through conversation. This can be done by embracing a range of instructional strategies, such as confirmation check, clarification check (for further strategies, see subsection 4.2.2), or by asking them to expand on their thinking and comment on others' contributions (Walqui, 2006).

This view is supported by Nassaji and Wells' (2000) study on teacher-whole class interactions. In this, they found that when teachers asked for justifications, encouraged learners to extend their arguments and to connect ideas rather than evaluating their answers, they enhanced learners' participation in extended conversations. Likewise, based on his study on teacher-small group interactions in a multilingual classroom, Dufficy (2005) elicited that when teachers did not evaluate pupils' responses but supported their contributions, even less-proficient bilingual children were capable of participating in conversations and of understanding complex ideas. Hall (2003) also reviewing a number of studies concludes that their findings illustrate the strong connection between the IRF pattern and the pupil participation in extended communications. From this perspective, it can become apparent that whole-class participation does not always restrict learner participation in classroom interactions. On the contrary, it can provide pupils with opportunities to engage in conversations, but only in cases where learners have the chance to participate in IRF rather than in IRE sequences.

4.5.3. Collaborative group activities

Collaborative group activities have been long recognised as an important factor for encouraging learner participation in classroom activities (Chaudron, 1988; Leung, 2001b; McGroarty, 1992). As mentioned in the previous subsection, for the majority of class time teachers tend to engage learners in teacher-learner interactions. Even though these can lead to extended discussions, the teachers usually initiate and conclude the interaction. So, learners appear to participate in interactions that eliminate the authenticity and equilibrium characterising the real-life ones in which each participant can initiate the talk, maintain the topic, participate equally and negotiate meaning (Cummins, 1996; Leung, 2001b).

Several scholars have recommended the organisation of collaborative group activities as a way of creating real-life interactions (Long & Porter, 1985; McGroarty, 1992; Swain, 1993). Long and Porter (1985) argue that in these activities natural settings of communication can be created. Learners would have the opportunity to participate in face-to-face conversations in which they

can exchange information and try to get agreement on a topic, as well as to use a range of communicative skills. Swain (1993) also comments that learners would participate equally in such interactions in contrast to teacher-learner interactions. McGroarty (1992) supports that learners would also become capable of initiating and regulating the discussion, modifying their output to become understandable, accurate and appropriate as well as managing to perceive the meaning of their interlocutors' language.

However, there is an argument that these activities have to be designed carefully after taking account of learners' background, needs and language level, as well as classroom contexts in order to support pupils' effective participation (Foster, 1998; Leung, 2001b; Pica & Doughty, 1985b). Foster (1998) found that even though working in small groups to complete classroom tasks, many pupils did not participate in the interaction and were disinclined to begin or follow an interaction. According to her, this may occur due to the hesitation of learners to indicate their language weaknesses and the lack of clarification on the part of the teachers in terms of the significance of these tasks and learner roles. Leung (2001b) also highlights that it may be difficult for beginners to participate in extended discussions and their inclusion in group work may be frustrated. Pica et al. (1993, in Leung, 2001b) recommend four characteristics that could be taken into account for ensuring the participation of all the learners in group work activities: *role responsibility among participants, role requirement, goal orientation and outcome option*. In their opinion, activities with these characteristics would assist learners to become aware of their roles and their responsibilities, the goals that they have to achieve and the outcomes that they are expected to arrive at. In view of all that has been mentioned so far, one may suppose that collaborative group activities can give the context in which learners would have ample opportunities to involve in real-life interactions inside the classroom, but they must be planned carefully according to a range of factors.

4.5.4. Individual work participation

Although during individual work participation, learners do not have the opportunity to interact with others, it can assist in language learning (Ellis, 2003; Johnson, 1994a). According to Johnson (1994a), in such situations, learners are able to interact with the content by engaging in reading or writing activities and to learn how to use different resources to complete tasks. Such participation also encourages them to complete activities at their own pace and in their own way (Johnson, 1994a). However, not all types of activities are suitable for learners working individually, and the necessary resources and sufficient time are required to facilitate pupils' participation in such activities (Johnson, 1994a). Furthermore, Johnson (1994a) claims that sometimes, a combination of this participation structure with other formats can be beneficial for learners as it can give them individual time to prepare for classroom tasks.

4.5.5. Classroom layout

Classroom layout plays a salient role in encouraging classroom interaction (Brown, 2001; Harklau, 1994; Johnson, 1994a). Brown (2001) describes that in traditional classes, desks are lined up in rows and chairs face forward such that the teachers have direct eye-contact with individual learners; layout that promotes teacher-pupil interactions. On the other hand, Harklau (1994) notices that when desks are in a semi-circle or U-shape, they can promote both teacher-pupil and peer-peer interactions, as learners have the opportunity to have eye-contact with both teacher and their peers. In group-work activities, learners often connect their desks in a way that will enable them to have direct contact with all the members of their group (Brown, 2001). Overall, there seems to be some evidence to indicate that classroom arrangement needs to be decided carefully to promote both peer-peer and teacher-learner interactions that show awareness of classroom contexts.

4.6. Pedagogic principles of additional language teaching - Analytic framework

The analytic framework presented here and used for characterising the key instructional practices and principles of the focal teachers in Chapters 6 to 9 and in a later discussion in Chapter 10, has been derived from the theoretical orientations discussed in the above sections and has been also influenced by the codes that emerged from the observation and interview data (see Appendices 11 and 12). The principles presented are not in any particular order nor should teachers be expected to apply all of them in their practice. As professionals, they would be in a position to adopt principles that suit their learners' characteristics, their needs, as well as education contexts.

Principles	Description
1. Integrating language and content objectives	To what extent and in what ways do the focal teachers integrate language and content objectives? To characterise the type of language and content integration in the focal classrooms, I use Davison and Williams' (2001) framework. In particular, I examine the focus of the curriculum and of the teaching materials, as well as lesson aims and activities (see section 3.1).
2. Communicative competence in both everyday and academic language	To what extent do the focal teachers promote the development of grammatical and sociolinguistic aspects of both academic and everyday language? To what extent do they teach explicitly the characteristics of text types (genre) that learners are expected to produce? To address these questions, I use Scarcella's (2003) framework that clarifies the key linguistic components of everyday and academic language (see section 3.3).
3. Form-focused language teaching	What type of form-focused instruction do the focal teachers adopt in their lessons? What kind of strategies

	do they use to teach language points, what kind of activities do they engage learners in, and how do they draw their attention to language points? (see section 3.3)
4. Focus on carrier content meaning	To what extent do the focal teachers organise meaning-focused activities in which pupils are able to use language to communicate in ways that reflect real world or real-world-like communication processes? Do learners have the opportunity to use unpredictable language to complete classroom tasks? To address these questions, I use Littlewood's (2004) framework to classify the classroom activities in terms of their communicativeness in the observed lessons (see section 3.3).
5. Promoting comprehension of classroom language and content materials	What kind of input do they expose learners to (academic formal language or interactive informal language) and how much of this do they put in front of them? How do they make classroom language and content materials comprehensible to all pupils? What types of speech modification do they use to make their talk comprehensible? To identify how the focal teachers make input comprehensible, I use Cummins (1992b, 1996, 2000) and Leung's (1996) framework, as well as Chaudron's (1988) categorisation of teacher speech modifications (see section 3.2).
6. Creating opportunities for extended language production	To what extent do they provide opportunities for active language use during teacher-led and group-work activities? What kind of questions do they ask pupils? What are the length and the characteristics of pupils' language use? To address these questions, I use the categories discussed in section 3.4 and based on the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) framework proposed by Allen et al. (1990).

7. Promoting participation in classroom interactions	What kind of participation structures do they organise in their lessons? How do the pupils participate in the classroom? Who does initiate, terminate and control the interaction? What patterns of interactions do they use? What kind of feedback do they provide? To address these questions, I use IRE and IRF patterns (see section 3.5).

Table 4.1: Analytic framework for focal teachers' instructional principles and practices

Chapter 5
Research Design and Methodology

5.0. Introduction and research questions

As described in Chapter 2, the deficiencies of the Greek educational system and of teacher education and development regarding GAL teaching, as well as the lack of research into this phenomenon, led me to question how GAL is actually addressed in real classrooms where GLTs are expected to meet the needs of both GMT and GAL pupils. An in-depth understanding of language teaching, according to Borg (2006) requires examination of not only what teachers do in the classroom, but also how they conceptualise their own practices. In addition to teachers' cognition, as discussed in subsection 3.1.2, contextual factors, such as particular teaching situations, actual classroom culture, learners' actions, educational policy and prescribed curricula, tend to restrict the extent to which teachers are able to adopt practices based on their cognition (Borg, 2003, 2006; Burns, 1996; Richards, 1996). Aligning to these perspectives, I seek to investigate the cognition of GLTs on various aspects of GAL pedagogy as well as the various contextual factors that have an impact on their practices. Such an investigation can contribute to comprehension of why GLTs embrace certain practices during the teaching of GAL in a particular classroom and thereby, can give a holistic picture of how GAL is conceptualised and practised. The following three questions developed over the course of the research can provide awareness of GAL teaching in the four focal mainstream classrooms.

1. How do four Greek language teachers conceptualise the teaching of GAL in the regular class?
2. What actual teaching activities do Greek language teachers use when they teach the subject Greek to both GMT pupils and GAL pupils in the mainstream classroom?
3. How do teaching activities and stated principles of these teachers relate to additional language teaching principles as found in the literature?

In the rest of the Chapter, I give the reasoning behind my methodological choices regarding the research paradigm and the research approach. I also explain and justify my choices for the methods of data collection and data analysis employed to interpret the observed phenomenon of GAL teaching. Marshall and Rossman (1989) state that "researchers should design the study according to the research questions they seek to answer" (p. 42). In order to carry out this research, I selected an interpretive, case study approach from an early stage as clarified in the next section.

5.1. Researching language teaching through an interpretive, case study approach

In the Greek context, most studies that are concerned with the teaching of GAL in junior secondary schools have used questionnaires to examine the issues of interest (for example, see Sifakis, 2000; Spinthouraki et al., 2001). However, even though questionnaires can give a broad insight into what happens in similar settings and can uncover themes that need further investigation, they cannot account for the complexity of teaching. This can be achieved by adopting an interpretive research approach (Erickson, 1986; Freeman & Johnson, 1998), and so this was adopted for this study. In this section, I justify my choice of an interpretive, case study approach for exploring GAL teaching holistically. In subsection 5.1.1, I discuss the fundamental differences between the quantitative and qualitative research paradigms so as to explain the reasoning behind my choice of adopting an interpretive research approach and demonstrate that this can contribute to the exploration of my research questions. In subsection 5.1.2, I specify that I chose to carry out a qualitative case study, giving its characteristics, advantages and disadvantages, and the reasons that it is suitable for addressing the research questions.

5.1.1. Interpretive research approach

In the main, when quantitative and qualitative research paradigms have been compared, their differences have been highlighted more than their similarities in

favour of different research camps. The distinction between these paradigms is grounded in the different ways that the nature of the social world can be interpreted, that individuals can acquire knowledge about this world and the ways in which individuals can research this world (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). However, as Ritchie and Lewis (2003) comment, "the distinction between quantitative and qualitative research is not clear cut as some qualitative approaches have sought to emulate natural science models, and not all quantitative studies are based on hypothesis testing but can produce purely descriptive and inductive statistics" (p. 14). The existence of several perspectives within each paradigm, which are linked to different beliefs about knowledge of the social world and research, has also blurred the distinction between them (Bryman, 2008). From this perspective, it would appear that these two paradigms represent only general guidance for the conduct of social research and researchers tend to adapt these based on their research perceptions.

Many quantitative researchers have treated social phenomena in much the same way as natural phenomena, without taking into account the meaning that individuals give to social phenomena (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003; Silverman, 2010). In their opinion, the social world is external to individuals, existing independently of the activities and conceptions of individuals. They have pointed out that knowledge about the social world has been gained by becoming aware of general laws underlying social phenomena and causal relationships between variables. Indeed, their overall aim has been to define general laws and universal truths to explain social phenomena that are unaffected by the activities and decisions of individuals (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003; Silverman, 2010). A good illustration of this research is the research into language teaching that in the 1960s adopted a process-product approach. This approach focused on identifying and quantifying the behaviours and activities of teachers that had a positive impact on pupil learning (Borg, 2006). The main limitation of this approach is that it does not allow for an in depth understanding of what actually happens in classrooms.

The majority of qualitative researchers, on the other hand, have argued that individuals are continually constructing and reconstructing their social worlds

through interacting and interpreting their experiences and actions (Merriam, 1998; Richards, 2003; Ritchie & Lewis, 2003). Under this lens, individuals are not considered passive observers of social reality, who cannot reach or influence what is 'out there'. Instead, they are seen as being active participants in the construction of reality since they are the ones who interpret and give meaning to their experiences and actions through interacting with others (Bryman, 2008; Burrell & Morgan, 1979; Creswell, 1994). Johnson (2009) also states that knowledge tends to emerge from the actions of individuals in a particular context and the meanings that individuals give to these actions. This has led many qualitative researchers to focus on the actions of individuals occurring in particular settings and time, as well as their interpretations of their own actions (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000).

Although the use of either quantitative or qualitative paradigms could potentially contribute to the investigation into the phenomenon of GAL teaching, I adopted an interpretive approach, a perspective that comes within the qualitative research paradigm, as the most suitable for this research. Spindler and Hammond (2000) argue that this approach has been well suited to studies aiming to discover a phenomenon from multiple perspectives. The majority of interpretive researchers have not aimed to explain causal relationships between some variables of a studied phenomenon. Rather, they have endeavoured to explore how participants understand their actions in particular settings, how their perceptions of a phenomenon affect their actions as well as how context influences the participants' actions and interpretations (Erickson, 1986; Richards, 2009). Such detailed description can help to capture the complexity of a focal phenomenon and thus enhance the stock of knowledge. In addition, a significant amount of research has involved adopting an interpretive approach to investigate the conceptualisations of language teachers and interpretations of their practices in both general (e.g. Elbaz, 1983; Shulman, 1987) and language teacher cognition research (e.g. Mangubhai et al., 2004; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Woods, 1996). From this perspective, this approach can shed light on the complexity of GAL teaching in mainstream classrooms in the sense that it can encourage the investigation of different factors affecting the teaching process, such as teachers' cognition underlying

their teaching practices, their teaching practices occurring in non-contrived settings and the educational context.

Despite the fact that the detailed exploration of a known phenomenon or new research areas from multiple perspectives has been seen as an advantage of interpretive approaches (Bryman, 2008; Dornyei, 2007), these approaches tend to have some limitations. One is grounded in the lack of generalisability as sought by quantitative researchers (Dornyei, 2007; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Varghese (2008) and Woods (1996) point out that a significant number of qualitative researchers have focused on a small sample and have not been oriented towards providing generalised research results for a larger population with similar characteristics, as is commonly the case with quantitative researchers. They have usually aimed to describe a phenomenon holistically, giving readers the opportunity to determine research results or to compare a case with other cases (Duff, 2008). This shows that they have conceptualised the concept of generalisability differently than quantitative researchers (for extended discussion, see subsection 5.1.2).

Another limitation pertains to the involvement of researchers in the conduct of research and the absence of statistical methods. Bryman (2008) supports the view that "the investigator him- or herself is the main instrument of data collection, so that what is observed and heard and also what the researcher decides to concentrate upon is very much a product of his or her predilections" (p. 391). This led Bryman (2008) to assume that the perceptions and prejudices of researchers may have an impact on their methodological choices and so may alter the research findings and data interpretation. The ways that I addressed these limitations in the current research are discussed in the next subsection in which I also explain why I decided to adopt a qualitative case study approach.

5.1.2. Qualitative case study approach

The case study approach related to the qualitative research paradigm is the most suitable approach for addressing my research questions because of its characteristics. Although there are various definitions describing what a case

study entails (Duff, 2008), there are a number of similar characteristics. A case study focuses on a particular case, a 'bounded system', with the aim of studying a social phenomenon or a case occurring in non-contrived settings over a particular time period (Nunan, 1992; van Lier, 2005). It can enable researchers to investigate phenomena deeply and holistically by ascertaining the perspectives of the participants (Merriam, 1998; Stake, 2005; Yin, 2003). Baxter and Jack (2008) suggest that a qualitative case study "facilitates exploration of a phenomenon within its context using a variety of data sources" and "… ensures that the issue is not explored through one lens, but rather a variety of lenses which allows for multiple facets of the phenomenon to be revealed and understood" (p. 544). Researchers adopting the case study approach can also discover unknown aspects of a phenomenon, or they can identify changes occurring in a case by studying it over a long period (Duff, 2008; Richards, 2011).

Many researchers have adopted case studies to investigate teachers' cognition and the relationships between this and classroom practices (e.g. Arioğul, 2007; Farrell & Lim, 2005). For example, Ho and Toh (2000) used qualitative case studies to explore in depth how teacher knowledge and the beliefs of newly-qualified teachers impacted on their classroom practices during their teaching practicum. Aligning to these perspectives, by adopting a qualitative case study, I was able to explore the different aspects of GAL teaching, detail the contextual factors affecting it as well as uncover the teaching practices of GLTs and their conceptualisations of these. This led me to present a holistic picture of the complexity of GAL teaching in the mainstream classroom, which could not have been discovered by using a quantitative research approach.

Duff (2008) and Richards (2011) explain that the advantages of the case study approach are particularly in relation to their characteristics - particularity, contextualisation, multiple data sources, multiple perspectives and in-depth study. However, limitations of this approach can be also seen, which are similar to those of the interpretive approaches discussed in subsection 4.1.1. One limitation, according to its critics, is the lack of generalisability (Duff, 2008; Yin, 2003). A case study tends to be grounded in the research of a single case

rather than in the research of a representative sample from a larger population with similar characteristics. Duff (2008) maintains that researchers adopting a case study approach have not attempted to generalise their findings as quantitative researchers strive to do, but rather to understand how a case functions in particular contexts and time. This led Guba and Lincoln (1994) as well as Duff (2008) to argue that the notion of transferability is a more appropriate term than generalisation in case study research on the grounds that readers have the responsibility to connect the findings of a case with other cases.

From this perspective, in this study, even though there are several types of case studies which differ in terms of their purpose (for a description, see Stake, 2005; Yin, 2003), I adopted the multiple and descriptive case study approaches. The former can facilitate the exploration of the similarities and differences of the cases, thus giving the opportunity for comparison, and provide evidence of how GAL teaching exists within particular cases. The latter can give an in depth account of the context of the cases, the school policy as well as the practices and the interpretations of GLTs or other people involved (e.g. the school head teacher or the pupils' parents). Through such 'thick' description, sufficient information can be collected to help readers to conceptualise the phenomenon from multiple perspectives and hence, connect the findings to their particular situation or others.

Another limitation of case study research is related to the assumption that the bias, perceptions and attitudes of researchers may alter the research results. Researchers are the ones who select the cases and conduct the process of data collection and analysis (Dornyei, 2007), but they tend to have their own conceptions and interpretations about their area of research (Erickson, 1986). Therefore, as Davis (1995) suggests, "all studies are in danger of biased interpretations" (p. 437). In this study, I have presented my background, standpoints and preconceptions as well as my relationship with the field of GAL teaching and I have reflected constantly on my perceptions in an attempt to minimise their impact on the interpretation of the research results. I have also adopted playback interviews to discuss the observed teaching practices with the

focal GLTs so as to capture their point of view and I have discussed my data with other researchers related to my field, as suggested by Woods (1996).

A further possible limitation pertains to the subjectivity of the accounts of the participants (Duff, 2008), as they may draw an ideal picture of their actions and themselves. Research findings, then, may not reflect their everyday actions and a false picture may have been given about the researched phenomenon. According to Duff (2008), however, subjectivity may not be a problem as it can contribute to a better understanding of a phenomenon. Nevertheless, to minimise the negative effects of subjectivity, following Duff (2008) and Richards' (2011) recommendations, I adopted multiple data collection methods, namely semi-structured interviews, playback interviews, where teachers had to explain their practices, field notes from observed lessons, as well as other documents so as to triangulate my research findings. These methods are discussed in the following section.

5.2. Data collection methods

This research is connected with language teacher cognition research, as its aim is to explore GAL teaching from the point of view of teachers. Borg (2006) discusses different categories of data collection methods that have contributed to the illustration of teacher cognition. These include self-report instruments for illustrating teacher cognition about aspects of language teaching; verbal commentaries for persuading teachers to talk about language teaching; observation for collecting descriptions of real teaching and context; and reflective writing for collecting teachers' writing tasks about aspects of language teaching. A number of studies that I reviewed have combined non-participant observations, qualitative interviews with a semi-structured guide and document analysis as suitable data collection methods for investigating different aspects of language teaching through teacher cognition (e.g. Farrell & Lim, 2005; Hird et al., 2000; Phipps & Borg, 2009). For example, Phipps and Borg (2009) combine non-participant observations and a semi-structured interview guide with stimulated recalls to examine the relationship between the beliefs

and practices of three English teachers in terms of grammar teaching. Shulman (1986) also maintains that teaching cannot be studied by reducing it solely to behaviours, observable phenomena or investigations of what people do in the classroom. Instead, to gain an understanding of classroom practice, it is important to examine how participants construe their worlds and their actions in addition to how they explain these to themselves and others.

On the other hand, teachers' practices and cognition cannot be penetrated by using only interview data. Andon (2009) points out that when conducting only interviews "it was difficult to distinguish between what teachers knew about TBLT [Task Based Language Teaching], what they thought about it, and how they drew on these aspects of cognition" (p. 88). In accordance with these perspectives, I chose to combine observations, interviews including introspective methods and document analysis to connect teachers' interpretations of events with the actual ones. Davis (1995) points out that in interpretive qualitative studies the majority of researchers tend to adopt interviews, observations and other forms of data for "... gaining an understanding of the actors' meanings regarding social actions (an emic perspective)" (p. 433). This combination also allowed for data triangulation, which can enhance the validity of the research findings (Allwright, 1983; Duff, 2008). In the following subsections, I discuss the data collection methods adopted in this particular study.

5.2.1. Qualitative observations

For this research, I adopted qualitative observation as a data source to acquire a holistic picture of GLTs' teaching practices occurring in a particular context. Such observation, which takes the form of a conscious and detailed watching of participants' actions in naturally occurring settings, can help researchers describe these actions while they are happening in a particular context without looking for predetermined aspects, and reveal the influence of the context on these actions (Heigham & Croker, 2009; Merriam, 1998; Richards, 2011). Seen in this light, qualitative observation enabled me to present in great detail the context where GAL teaching occurred so as to situate teachers' teaching

practices, and to record GLTs' teaching practices and decisions when they were endeavouring to teach the subject Greek in mainstream classrooms.

There are several kinds of observations in terms of researcher role and observation structure (for a description, see Heigham & Croker, 2009; Merriam, 1998; Spradley, 1980), but in this research I adopted non-participant observation with a semi-structured guide. I chose to conduct a non-participant observation, in which I observed the participants silently, trying not to be involved fully in the milieu and in any case, I was only granted limited access to the classroom. Nevertheless, I endeavoured to develop good relationships with the participants to make them feel more comfortable with my presence in their classroom, something that Dornyei (2007) recommends. This allowed me to acquire an 'emic' perspective of the observed phenomenon that involved the teachers discussing different aspects of their lessons.

Of course, I kept in mind that even though I did not participate actively in lessons, my presence might have affected the focal teachers' teaching decisions and practices. Labov (1972), naming this phenomenon "Observer's Paradox", maintains the stance that the people being observed may change their actions, either consciously or unconsciously, in an attempt to act in ways that they consider ideal for the situation or that are more acceptable to the researcher. To minimise any effects of my attendance on teachers' actions, before the initial observation I explained to them that I was there to learn from them and not to critique their teaching practices, as suggested by Hammersley and Atkinson (2007). At the beginning of each class, I was also introduced by the GLTs as a research student who was interested in how the subject Greek is taught in their classrooms. I hoped that this introduction would make pupils feel comfortable with my presence in their class and that they would understand that I was not there to judge their actions or performance.

I also used a semi-structured observation guide (see subsection 5.3.3). I went to the field having certain broad issues in mind that I wanted to explore emerging from both my theoretical and personal considerations and so, such a guide enabled me to gather data illustrating these issues. Nevertheless, I remained

open to unexpected events or activities and narrowed these broad themes down focusing on specific issues arising during the observation that required further exploration. So, the predefined broad themes did not prohibit me identifying further issues that would help me to explore multiple aspects of GAL teaching.

5.2.2. Qualitative interviews including playback interviews

In addition to qualitative observations, I adopted qualitative research interviews as an appropriate means of gaining insights into the teaching practices of GLTs from their point of view. Qualitative research interviews tend to help researchers to understand the lived world of participants from an 'emic' perspective (Charmaz, 2003; Kvale, 1996; Spradley, 1979). This view is also supported by Brenner (2006), who states that such interviews seek "to understand informants on their own terms and how they make meaning of their own lives, experiences and cognitive processes" (p. 357). As mentioned above, the inclusion of such interviews in the current research was deemed necessary because mere description of observed teaching practices of GLTs cannot provide insights into their practices. Such description is unlikely to reveal the pedagogical principles underlying their practices (see Borg, 2006; Breen et al., 2001; Woods, 1996).

These principles, however, are not always consciously accessible and if teachers are asked directly about their principles, they may answer "... according to what they would like to believe, or would like to show they believe in the interview context" (Woods, 1996: 27). Borg (2006) also comments that when teachers are asked about their practices in general, they speak about theories of language teaching, while when they are asked to explain specific situations, they discuss their empirical knowledge, experiences and understandings. I therefore asked them to comment on the observed lessons and narrate their experiences so as to elicit the principles underlying their actual teaching practices, rather than directly asking questions about their principles (see Borg, 1998; Breen et al., 2001; Woods, 1996). This made their practice from their own perspective the subject of the interview data collection.

I conducted two types of interviews with the GLTs. First, I carried out background interviews aimed at gaining understanding of their perceptions about GAL, GAL learning and teaching in general along with their background information. I then conducted playback interviews in which I described all the teaching activities happening in their lessons. Researchers adopting this technique usually show a video or audio-recorded lesson to teachers (Clark & Peterson, 1986), but I was not able to do this because the interviews were conducted in the staff room or in coffee shops, thus making it difficult for the teacher to listen to the recording. Nevertheless, my descriptions helped the teachers to remember specific aspects of their lessons and gave them the opportunity to describe what they had done as well as explain why they had taken certain actions. In order to minimise the limitation of this technique, which is with regards to the period of time between the lesson and the conduction of the playback interview (Dornyei, 2007), I undertook these interviews as soon as possible following the lesson observations so that the participants would be able to recall the underlying principles of their practices.

In all the interviews, I used a semi-structured interview guide (see subsection 5.3.3), in which I predefined a set of key themes that I wanted to discuss with the GLTs. When researchers want to discuss particular issues with participants about a phenomenon and also want to give them the opportunity to express their perspectives of their practices without interruption, they often use a semi-structured interview guide (Brenner, 2006; Kvale, 1996). From this perspective, I made this choice for a number of reasons. Firstly, the use of such an interview guide is considered a suitable means for revealing teacher pedagogical principles (Borg, 2006; Elbaz, 1991; Woods, 1996). The GLTs had the opportunity to express their thoughts about their practices freely without the constraints of a specific set of questions. As such, what had happened in a lesson was understood from their point of view rather than mine.

Secondly, this guide can contribute to the emergence of unique issues that researchers may not have previously considered (Campbell et al., 2004). GAL teaching is defined by teachers' principles, practices and contextual factors, and thus it was difficult for me to consider in advance all of the issues related to

GAL teaching. Thirdly, by bearing in mind the key issues prompted on a schedule rather than having a set of pre-determined questions, I was able to explore important issues for my research derived from either the classroom observations or theoretical considerations, whilst still allowing the GLTs to explain their practices in their terms (see Brenner, 2006; Dornyei, 2007; Heigham & Croker, 2009).

However, one limitation of using an interview guide is the risk that I could have directed the GLTs towards the discussion of issues that only interested me (see Borg, 2006). In order to avoid this, I was open-minded, accepted different aspects developed by the GLTs and used the kind of questions that allowed them to present their perspective regarding their practices (for the different kinds of questions see Spradley, 1979). For example, I used open-ended questions to encourage them to describe in detail their teaching strategies and explain why they had adopting them in the lessons that I observed as well as I used probes (e.g. 'uh-huh', 'yes') to extend or clarify the teachers' answers.

5.2.3. Other data collection methods

Following the recommendations of Heigham and Croker (2009) as well as Yin (2011), in order to triangulate my data and provide a 'thick' description of GAL teaching, I collected and analysed relevant documents, including the national curriculum, teaching materials, lesson plans and student writing samples. For instance, Freeman (1991) combined semi-structured open-ended interviews with document analysis of participant teachers' written work and lesson observations to investigate the development of the thinking of four teachers during an in-service programme. From this perspective, these types of documents can serve to shed light on different stances regarding the observed phenomenon.

The documents that I collected became a subject for discussion with the GLTs, who expressed their opinion about them and explained their decisions underlying their lesson plans. In addition, they illustrated the educational policies regarding GAL teaching. For example, curriculum documents and

teaching materials led me to identify the extent to which the policies of the Greek Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs are reflected in the teaching of GAL in mainstream classrooms (see section 2.3). I also asked the teachers for their opinions about teaching materials, something that helped me to unpack their beliefs about GAL teaching in mainstream classrooms. I had difficulty collecting lesson plans because, as Calderhead (1996) highlights, experienced teachers tend not to write formal lesson plans systematically. This might also have occurred because the design of a lesson plan is not compulsory for mainstream teachers in Greece. Only one teacher gave me her lesson plans, which enabled me to see the logic behind her lesson preparation and the extent to which she adapted her teaching to the needs of all pupils in her lessons. Finally, only two teachers gave me student writing samples that could shed light on how these teachers conceptualised GAL learning and on how they perceived GAL pupils' performance.

5.3. Research design

In this section, I discuss the way research was conducted during the fieldwork. In subsection 5.3.1, I justify the selection of the particular settings, describe the obstacles that I encountered during the fieldwork and the characteristics of the focal schools. I also explain how I chose the focal GLTs and the changes in the research design that I was obligated to make because of issues arising during the fieldwork (5.3.2). In subsection 5.3.3, I present the process that I followed while collecting my data and my key interests when carrying out the observations and interviews. In subsection 5.3.4, I describe the ethical principles that I followed.

5.3.1. Sites of data collection

For this research, as mentioned in Chapter 2, junior secondary schools were selected as the appropriate school type for two reasons. Firstly, such a school is the final compulsory level of the Greek education system, and more GAL pupils are placed there than in senior secondary schools. So, it made it easier to find a

suitable research cohort. For example, according to statistical data, in 2008-2009, 28,680 GAL pupils studied in junior secondary schools, while only 9,229 GAL attended senior ones (IPODE, 2009). Secondly, in this school type there has been a rapid increase in subject-specific literacy and academic language. This has led to a significant numbers of GAL learners facing difficulties in understanding subject-related concepts and in using academic language (Koiliari et al., 2001).

To explore the influence of school context and policy on the practices and interpretations of teachers, I selected two different schools through the method of snowball sampling, which enables researchers to "...get to know potential participants by means of others' referrals..." (Duff, 2008: 117). This method was very useful for my research due to the difficulties that I had in locating schools where a significant number of GAL learners were placed, where head teachers approved the conducting of the research and teachers were willing to participate.

Initially, I contacted the head teachers of three schools, which two acquaintances suggested, in Thessaloniki, the second largest city in Greece, and in the prefecture of Khalkidhiki, explaining the purpose of my research and the proposed data collection methods. The head teacher of the first school, which was located in a borough of Thessaloniki, told me that he would accept me in his school as long as the GLTs agreed to participate in my research. He did not ask for further information about my proposed study or show an interest in my research topic. I then approached three GLTs, but two of them did not consider it appropriate for me to attend their classes. One explained that she had not covered the syllabus and so was now rapidly trying to fill the gaps by focusing on grammar exclusively. The other told me that she only had second-generation GAL pupils who had writing difficulties and so this sample would not be useful for my research. The third GLT was willing to accept me in her class as she was interested in GAL teaching and had participated in related seminars (field notes, informal discussions, 26/3/12). However, due to the refusal of the majority of GLTs and the indifference of the head teacher, I decided not to include this school in my sample.

In the second school, which was located in Khalkidhiki, despite the head teacher giving his consent, only one out of two GLTs admitted that GAL pupils had difficulties in coping with the given national curriculum and was willing to participate in my research (field notes, informal discussions, 27/3/12). Also, only a handful of GAL pupils attended the classes, i.e. each class had one or two GAL pupils. This led to me coming to the conclusion that fruitful research in this school would not be possible and so I also chose to omit it from my investigation. In the third school, also in Khalkidhiki, both the head teacher and the GLTs appeared to be reluctant to admit that there was a problem with GAL pupils in their school. They reported that all GAL pupils were of second generation, and so did not have any language problems. The GLTs believed that GAL pupils had difficulties only because of their indifference to study and their parents' lack of Greek. They also stressed that the ministry had not provided them with guidelines on how to teach GAL in their classes, and so they conducted their lessons following the given national curriculum without making any adaptations (field notes, informal discussions, 28/3/12). From this discussion, I did not feel that the school would be a supportive environment for my proposed research and so I excluded it from my sample.

After these three unsuccessful attempts, I contacted one of the head researchers of the European-funded project 'Educating foreigner and repatriated pupils' (see subsection 2.2.3) and she provided me with the details of ten schools participating in this programme. In this way, two head teachers accepted me into their schools. The others were not willing for their school to participate in this research or reported that their GAL pupils did not have any language problems.

The two focal schools are representative of city centre schools which typically have large numbers of GAL pupils. Both schools are mainstream (ordinary) junior secondary in the centre of Thessaloniki and in an area where ethnically mixed neighbourhoods of working-class families live. The difficulty pupils had had in paying for their school trips, which were around 7 pounds per person, as the head teachers and teachers informed me (field notes, informal discussions, 29/3/12, 25/4/12), and the status of the district where the schools are located,

were indications of the pupils' low socioeconomic status. Both schools have Year 1, Year 2 and Year 3 like all mainstream junior secondary schools in Greece. They were housed in buildings in which other schools were located. The first school shared a three-storey building with another junior secondary school and a senior secondary one, each occupying one floor. The second school shared a three-floor building with a senior secondary school, and each school was housed in particular classrooms.

In the spring of 2012, the population of the first school was 230 pupils of whom 138 were GAL pupils, whilst the second had 188 pupils of whom 166 were GAL learners. In both schools, the GAL pupils' national backgrounds included Albanian, Russian, Georgian and Armenian, being first or second-generation immigrants. Despite the high proportion of GAL pupils in both schools, no educational policy related to GAL teaching had been established, and neither integration nor support classes, through which academic and language support can be given to GAL pupils in mainstream schools (see section 2.3), were on offer in either school.

Nevertheless, following a decision by both head teachers, the schools started to participate in European-funded projects. In the school years 2006-2008, the first school participated in the project 'Integration of Repatriated and Foreign Students in Secondary Education (Gymnasium)' (see subsection 2.2.3). . In the school years 2011-2012, both schools participated in the project 'Educating foreigner and repatriated pupils' (see subsection 2.2.3). In both schools, withdrawal classes were established (GAL learners were withdrawn from music, art and gymnastics classes for 15 hours per week) as part of this programme to help GAL pupils learn Greek and to support them in the learning of all curriculum subject areas. The participation of GAL learners in this class, which amounted to 50 in the first school, was optional and parents were required to give their permission for their children to attend.

This project also provided head teachers and teachers with the opportunity to participate in seminars related to GAL teaching (see subsection 2.2.3). However, in the first school the head teacher and most of the teachers did not

show any interest in participating in them (field notes, informal discussions, 29/3/12, 2/4/12). On the other hand, in the second school, the head teacher took part in different seminars organised by this programme, because of his interest in learning more about intercultural education (field notes, informal discussion with the head teacher, 30/3/12). However, only one teacher participated in the seminars and showed an interest in learning how to teach GAL, but unfortunately he was reluctant to participate in my research (field notes, informal discussion, 2/4/12).

5.3.2. Selection of the participant teachers

The research sample consisted of four GLTs who taught the subject Greek in the two junior secondary schools, with two of them teaching it in Year 2 and the others in Year 3. While designing this research, I sought to recruit teachers of Year 1, where students aged 12-13 study, for two reasons. First, this year represents the transition from upper primary to junior secondary school where pupils are expected to use academic language for the first time as part of the next stage of the national curriculum. So, I was interested in seeing how they coped with this shift as well as what strategies the teachers employed to support them in this change. Second, newly-arrived GAL learners are usually placed in these classrooms, even if they are older, due to their insufficient level of Greek. However, at the first school, only GLTs from Year 2 (pupils aged 13-14 study) and Year 3 (pupils aged 14-15 study) were willing to participate in my research. So, I decided to recruit GLTs from these years as well as in the second school so that my multiple case studies could be balanced as well as variable, as Stake (2005) recommends.

I initially hoped to include two experienced and two less experienced GLTs with the aim of determining if experience had any impact on the way in which they interpreted the concept of GAL and their teaching practices (for the relation between experience and teacher cognition, see Tsui, 2003). However, the majority of the GLTs in the selected schools were already experienced, and they were the only ones who expressed an interest in participating in the research.

In the first school, I was already acquainted with one of the two participant teachers as she had been involved in previous research of mine and had collaborated with my Master's degree supervisor. She was more than willing to participate in my research, helped me to gain access to the school and facilitated the recruitment of the second teacher. The rest of the GLTs did not express any interest and kept a distance during my presence at their school. In the second school, the head teacher was very supportive and introduced me to the school's GLTs. Only three out of five expressed an interest, and I selected two of them according the level that they were teaching (for teachers' profile, see Chapters 6 to 8).

5.3.3. Data collection process

The process for my case studies involved the following.

1. A background interview with the GLTs to find out about their background, their training, their interpretations of the concept of GAL and of GAL learning, their general views on GAL teaching as well as their perspectives regarding the national curriculum and teaching materials.

2. Non-participant observations with a semi-structured guide of two lessons, lasting a total of 90 minutes (the lessons lasted 45 minutes each), over a period of three weeks. In these observations, I became aware of the context of each classroom and made detailed reports of teaching activities, lesson aims, content, teaching materials, teachers' questions and pupils' participation.

3. A playback interview with a semi-structured guide, where I discussed with the GLTs their teaching practices in the two lessons that I had observed. Teachers had the opportunity to choose the teaching activities that they wanted to discuss. This gave them freedom of choice such that I became aware of the incidents they considered as being important.

4. Non-participant observations with a semi-structured guide of two lessons, lasting a total of 90 minutes (the lessons lasted 45 minutes each), over a period of two weeks. Although these observations took the

same form as the first round, I also paid attention to the issues that the teachers had highlighted in the previous interview as being important for them.

5. A second playback interview with a semi-structured guide, with the focal teachers. In this interview, I also focused on specific aspects of teaching activities and clarified important issues.

At this point, it is important to stress that the research focus was on describing the teaching practices of the four GLTs in detail and on how they interpreted these practices. I did not attempt to evaluate the effectiveness of their practices in terms of defining what constitutes 'good' teaching of GAL. In addition, two out of the four teachers requested two interviews to be conducted at the same time, even though initially they consented to participating in three interviews, claiming that they did not have sufficient time to do so (field notes, informal discussions, 23/4/12, 2/5/12). So, with the first teacher I conducted the background interview, followed immediately by the playback one while with the second teacher I conducted the first and the second playback interview at the same time. Table 5.1 summarises the types and the amounts of data collected.

Data types/ Teachers' pseudonym	A: audio recorded, N: field notes, M: teaching materials INT: interview, OBS: observation						
	INT 1	OBS1	OBS2	INT2	OBS3	OBS4	INT3
Anna	------	N,M 45:00	A,N,M 45:00	A 38:00	A,N, M 45:00	A,N, M 45:00	A 1:06:0 0
Elena	A 24:4 4	N,M 45:00	A,N,M 45:00	------	A,N, M 45:00	A,N, M 45:00	A 35:36
Maria	N 1:20: 00	N,M 45:00	A,N,M 45:00	N 1:00: 00	A,N, M 45:00	A,N, M 45:00	N 1:20:0 0
Andreas	A 23:3 6	N,M 45:00	A,N,M 45:00	A 37:14	A,N, M 45:00	A,N, M 45:00	A 23.51

Table 5.1: Types and the amount of data collected

For the observations, the Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs did not give me permission to video-record the lessons and so I used audio-recording and detailed field notes (for a sample, see Appendix 9). The first lesson was not audio recorded, as teachers did not want me to do so in their lessons until they felt comfortable with my presence in their classroom. I therefore used my field notes to describe the activities and interactions. In the following lessons, I audio-recorded the observations with the consent of the teachers and pupils and also kept detailed field notes on pupils' ways of participating in classroom activities. The teachers asked me to sit at the back of the class and when I used my audio-recorder, they requested me to keep it on my desk out of sight in order not to distract the pupils.

I drew up a plan identifying key themes before every observation, which was based on theoretical considerations as well as issues emerging out of earlier observations and interviews with teachers. Specifically, I focused on teachers' activities; the different stages of teaching activities; the way teachers set up the activities; lesson aims; lesson content and teaching materials. I also concentrated on teacher-pupil interactions, in particular, on teacher questions and pupil responses to identify the different types of each, as well as the extent of the pupils' answers. This enabled me to acknowledge the opportunities for language production that teachers gave to the GAL pupils. I also recorded pupils' participation and activity structure to identify the opportunities for participation that teachers gave to GAL pupils. I did not focus on pupil-pupil interactions as there were few opportunities to interact with classmates, and in any case the teachers did not allow me to have more than one microphone in their class or to go around the classroom.

I decided to conduct sequential interviews so as to be able to capture teachers' points of view, to have the opportunity to remedy omissions and in order to obtain a fuller picture of teachers' perspectives, following Charmaz's (2003) recommendations. All interviews, apart from the three with one teacher, were audio-recorded with the participants' consent and I had a prepared guide covering the main issues that I wanted to discuss with each particular participant. The background interview focused on the teachers' previous

teaching experience in general education and in mainstream classrooms with GAL pupils, including: how they entered the profession; their teacher education and development regarding GAL; their interpretation of the national curriculum, of GAL as well as of GAL learning and teaching in general (see Appendix 6). As mentioned above, I did not ask direct questions about their beliefs, but rather, their opinions about a range of pedagogic issues. The interview plan of the playback interviews was based on theoretical considerations, issues emerging out of classroom observations and earlier interview data (see Appendix 7). Specifically, during these interviews, I gave the focal teachers the opportunity to comment on particular teaching activities, express their thoughts, to explain the reasoning behind their decisions and encouraged them to clarify issues that had arisen from both the background and the other playback interviews.

In the research design, I had also aimed to focus on the way GAL learners interpreted the actions of teachers. Hird et al. (2000) mention that the exploration of the same teacher's actions from both teacher and pupil points of view would be interesting. It was important, therefore, that the pupils' voices did not remain silent and that their points of view about teaching could be revealed. However, in the fieldwork, I was able to conduct only one focus group interview in the three of the four classrooms after having gained the parents' permission. Unfortunately, this single interview was insufficient for making the learners feel comfortable enough to discuss their learning experiences with a person who they did not know very well. The majority commented that they understood everything in the class and only few shared their language difficulties (see field notes in the electronic appendices). In addition, the GLTs selected the GAL learners who could participate in the interview, and so they could have chosen their favourite learners. As a result, I decided not to include these data but I hope to explore GAL teaching from the GAL pupils' perspective in future work.

5.3.4. Ethical considerations

A qualitative researcher should always bear in mind the risks that participants may take when participating in research, even though, as Davis (1995) states, it is impossible to predict all ethical dilemmas that may emerge. A researcher should always protect their participants from these risks and should follow some basic ethical principles. In order to protect my research participants, I informed the teachers and the parents of the purpose and activities of the research, providing them with an information sheet in Greek. Specifically, following Brenner's (2006) suggestions, I specified the nature of the research, the process in which they were being asked to participate, the themes that they were expected to respond to, how their confidentiality would be protected, the people who they could contact in case they had queries or complaints, and I explained the risks and benefits pertaining to their agreeing to participate in the research. Thus, all were conscious of the research process and whilst the teachers could decide voluntarily if they wanted to participate, the pupils' parents could choose whether to allow their child to be observed. I ensured confidentiality and anonymity by using pseudonyms for the name of the schools in which the research was conducted, and for the names of all the research participants. I also guaranteed that information obtained during the study would not be available to others and that the participants had the opportunity to check the transcriptions of the observed lessons and interviews for their authenticity. In addition, I asked for the permission of teachers and parents before audio-recording classroom lessons. All the teachers gave me permission to audio-record three out of four lessons, as explained in the previous subsection. I also requested the teachers' consent before audio-recording the interviews. One refused, so I took detailed field notes when interviewing her. Finally, all participants willingly signed the consent form.

My fieldwork was conducted with the permission of the Greek Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs. I explained the research aims, methodology and the contribution of this research to the understanding of GAL teaching in mainstream classrooms. The ministry permitted me to conduct this research in

the two particular schools. I also gained the approval of the King's College Research Ethics Panel before conducting the research.

5.4. Data analysis

In order to understand classroom events, a number of researchers argue that participants' characteristics, activities, interactions, artefacts, espoused statements and activity goals as well as the physical, cultural, and social contexts need to be described in detail (Bloome et al., 2005; LeCompte & Preissle, 1993; Spradley, 1980; Watson-Gegeo, 1988). Such description tends to enable researchers to provide a detailed picture of events as they actually happen in particular settings, not by giving an evaluation of what has happened, but rather, leaving the participants to speak through their actions (verbal and nonverbal) (Foster, 1996; Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007; Spradley, 1980; Woods, 1986). This can lead to the presentation of the events from participants' point of view and, as Foster (1996) argued, serves "to minimise the influence of researchers' preconceptions and to avoid imposing existing preconceived categories" (p. 6). Seen in this light, in order to present the meanings that the GLTs gave to their teaching activities, I decided to describe the teachers and pupils, what the teachers did and said, how they used objects, what goals they set as well as when and where the activities happened, without providing an evaluation of these matters. I also decided to detail the classroom contexts, pupils' characteristics and teaching materials that the focal teachers used in their lessons based on my field notes and documents collected so as to convey the contexts in which the teachers worked.

In this section, I first describe how I transcribed and translated my observation and interview data (5.4.1) and then I discuss how I analysed my interview and classroom observation data. Specifically, I explain how the observation data were analysed so as to describe classroom context and what the focal GLTs actually did when they taught the subject Greek in regular classes (5.4.2). In the following subsection, I present the process of the analysis of interview data, which covers teachers' background information, their understanding of GAL

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teaching in general and their reasons for using different teaching activities in their lessons.

5.4.1. Transcription and translation of the observation and interview data

Transcription has been considered to be a form of representation and interpretation of speech and interactions that tends to be influenced by political, ideological, methodological or theoretical assumptions (Bucholtz, 2000; Green et al., 1997; Roberts, 1997). Kvale (1996) points out that researchers appear to choose what to transcribe and how to transform oral to written language in terms of how they intend to use the transcripts. This may also occur due to the lack of common-acceptable criteria for how transcription should be conducted and the difficulty to reproduce exactly the spoken word in the written language (Brenner, 2006). In this research, I transcribed all audio-recorded interview data with the four teachers verbatim, because such transcription could enhance clarity in what the interlocutors were trying to say (see Kvale, 1996). I initially recorded paralinguistic features, such as pauses, intonations and emotions in detail but, after the first transcriptions, I decided to note only the prominent features (see Appendix 8). I realised that this was sufficient since I decided to analyse my data thematically for my purpose of identifying the participants' views, rather than conducting discourse analysis, for which a more detailed transcription would have been needed (see Bloome et al., 2005; Heritage, 1997a; Jarvis & Robinson, 1997). Regarding observation data, I initially wrote a summary of the lessons and then of the teaching activities owing to the amount of data (see outlines of teachers' teaching activities in the electronic appendices). I transcribed verbatim only the data that were representative of the key teaching practices of the teachers and that were to be included in Chapters 6 to 9. I also recorded prominent paralinguistic features and non-verbal communication so as to identify question-and-answer exchanges, teachers' participation strategies and pupils' participation in classroom talk. All the transcription was undertaken during or immediately after the fieldwork.

All the observation and interview data were in Greek. The fieldwork was conducted in a Greek school context, all the classroom observations were in

Greek, and the participant teachers were Greek native speakers. I also considered that it would be more appropriate for teachers to use their mother tongue to express their thoughts during the interviews rather than English. However, I translated some data into English in order to report them to audiences that are not familiar with Greek, including my supervisors. Regarding the interview data, I translated whole interviews, whereas for the observation data I translated only the parts that are presented in this thesis to illustrate teachers' teaching practices.

The limitations of both literal and meaning-oriented translation, the difficulty of filling cultural and language gaps between two different languages and the issues regarding transparency of translation (see Shah, 2004; Temple & Young, 2004; Twinn, 1997) led me to decide how to translate my interview and observation data. I attempted to maintain the English translation as close to the original as possible in order to indicate the language that the participants used to express themselves (see Jaffe, 2007; Johnstone, 2002). However, on those occasions where the equivalent English word could not represent the meaning of the original language or the translation was incomprehensible, I chose words that, according to my interpretation, could clearly represent the meaning of the participants' utterances (see Huiping, 2008; Regmi et al., 2010). In these cases, I shared the translation with bilingual Greek-English speaking colleagues, as Ercikan (1998) recommends, or native English speakers so as to ensure that the word choice was conveying the meaning of the Greek words and/or that translation was comprehensible to English speakers. I rarely include original data in the thesis manuscript as I was determined to protect the participants' anonymity. Appendix 10 contains the interview transcripts and translation from one of the case studies in this research. All transcripts from the other case studies are in the electronic appendices.

5.4.2. Analysis of the classroom observation data

To analyse my observation data, I adopted an ethnographically informed approach that is proposed by Bloome et al. (2009). Their aim was to elicit a detailed description of classroom events relating to the research questions so as

to perceive the meanings that participants gave to their teaching activities in particular settings. A detailed description enabled me to present the key teaching practices adopted by the GLTs when they taught the subject Greek in their classroom from their perspective.

By going through my audio-recordings and field notes in a systematic way and asking the question 'what is going on here?' with regards to GAL teaching, I identified the phases of the observed lessons. Each phase is characterised by a particular topic and aim which was accomplished by an activity and was marked by differences in teacher and pupils' interactional patterns (Bloome et al., 2009). During each lesson, there were two kinds of phases: organisational phases in which the teacher and pupils were involved in activities related to the organisation of the class, like calling the register or organising the classroom layout; and instructional phases (Mehan, 1979) in which they engaged in activities related to subject content teaching. Because of the huge amount of data, it was impossible to take into account everything that was going on in a classroom (see Duff, 1995; LeCompte & Preissle, 1993). For this reason, I targeted instructional phases in which teachers and pupils were engaged in activities related to subject content teaching, as I was interested in the teaching strategies adopted by GLTs when they teach the subject Greek in their classes.

Then, I identified the teaching activities of the instructional phases of each lesson to achieve an understanding of the participant teachers' teaching practices (see Richards & Lockhart, 1996). Specifically, I focused on activity types, on how they were set up and how they were carried out. This shed light on the purpose of the activities, the knowledge and skills that teachers aimed pupils to develop, the content of the activities, the materials that the teachers used to carry them out, the role of the teachers in setting them up and the participant organisation of the activities. The detailed description of teaching activities was abbreviated considerably for inclusion in the thesis, but did it contribute to the development of categories to describe teachers' teaching practices.

Through an extensive and repeated examination of the lesson observation data I identified the strategies that the participant teachers adopted to teach the subject

Greek in their lessons and each was given a code (see Appendix 11). However, the identification of codes is not usually enough to understand the underlying meanings and the connections between data (Green, 2008). Hence, I constructed broad categories by classifying the codes according to their similarities, with a view to detecting the underlying meaning of the data. The categories that have been connected with the interview data (see subsection 5.4.3) are the following: a) instructional strategies for focusing on carrier content, b) instructional strategies for language point teaching, c) use of linguistic and contextual cues for language comprehension and d) use of linguistic and contextual cues for language use and participation (see Table 5.2).

Categories	Description
a) Instructional strategies for focusing carrier content	What are the GLTs' aims when turning pupils' attention to carrier content? What type of activities and strategies do the GLTs organise to achieve this? This category enables me to categorise the teaching activities and strategies that teachers employed so that pupils could focus on carrier content.
b) Instructional strategies for language point teaching	What types of activities do the GLTs conduct to teach language points? Do they teach language points through meaningful content, incidentally or out of context? This category helps with the categorisation of the teachers' teaching activities aimed at the teaching of language points.

c) Use of linguistic and contextual cues for language comprehension	What means do the GLTs embrace to make pupils comprehend classroom language and content materials? This category helps me identify the linguistic and contextual cues that the GLTs adopted to help pupils comprehend new information and skills.
d) Use of linguistic and contextual cues for language use and participation	What forms of exchange do the GLTs use in their classes? What question types do they ask? How do they engage pupils' participation in classroom talk and activities? Do they modify their speech? This category helps me to identify the strategies that the teachers used to promote pupils' participation in classroom talk, to make their language comprehensible as well and encouraged language production.

Table 5.2: Framework for analysing the teachers' teaching activities

These categories were not set a priori but instead were influenced by what was found in the data. This enabled me to be open to my data rather than forcing them to fit into predetermined categories (see Borg, 2006; Patton, 2002). Of course, my theoretical orientations, ideas and personal perceptions influenced the development of my categories. Categories have not been considered purely inductive as researchers' theoretical ideas, perceptions and stereotypes have an influence on them (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007; Patton, 2002). In the description of the data in Chapters 6 to 9, I present extracts of classroom observations to show the teachers' teaching activities for each category as well as espoused statements by teachers giving the reasons why they adopted these activities.

5.4.3. Analysis of the interview data

To analyse interview data, I adopted a qualitative content analysis approach suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994), which aims to identify the main themes arising from these data. This enabled me to describe the espoused statements of the focal teachers about GAL teaching and their teaching activities. By going through my audio-recordings and interview transcriptions in a systematic way and asking the question 'What is being talked about here', I identified different codes for each case study (see Appendix 12). I created, reviewed and revised the codes constantly during the data collection and analysis because, as Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest, it is important to connect data with their context. This process enabled me to reduce my data and hence, recognise data segments related to my research aims. I also kept detailed notes, termed 'memos', of all my thoughts, impressions, reflections and ideas for every code to keep track of their definitions and the reasons why I developed each of them, as Dornyei (2007) and Yin (2011) recommend.

After coding, I constructed broad categories by classifying each code according to their similarities, with a view to detecting the underlying meaning of data (see Green, 2008). I moved backwards and forwards between data collection, data analysis and data interpretation and I continually added, changed, removed or developed new categories. So, the categories were not set a priori, but rather were influenced by what was found in the data.

Categories	Description
a) Teachers' understandings of language	What do the focal GLTs consider that language is, what does it consist of and how does it work?
b) Teachers' understandings of language learning	What should GAL pupils learn in order to master Greek, according to the focal GLTs?
c) Teachers' understandings of language teaching	How do the focal GLTs consider that they should teach the subject Greek in their

	classrooms?
d) Teachers' interpretations of the national curriculum and textbook	What is the focal GLTs' opinion on the curriculum and textbook provided by the Greek Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs?

Table 5.3: Framework for analysing teachers' espoused statements about GAL teaching

The categories that emerged from the parts of the interviews in which teachers expressed their beliefs regarding GAL teaching at a theoretical level are the following: a) teachers' understandings of language, b) teachers' understandings of language learning, c) teachers' understandings of Greek language teaching, and d) teachers' interpretations of the national curriculum and textbook (see table 5.3). These categories contributed to the identification of the different interacting sources driving their cognition as well as the knowledge and beliefs that might have had an impact on their teaching decisions and practices, prior to the classroom observations. The categories that emerged from the playback interviews in which the teachers explained the activities of their lessons that I observed were merged with those that I used for analysing the observation data (see Table 5.2). This gave insights regarding the connection between actual teaching activities and the reasons underlying these.

5.4.4. Concluding comments

After categorising the codes, I constructed broad themes by unifying the developed categories of both the observation and interview data analysis based on their similarities and dissimilarities (see Chenail, 2008). These themes, which I then considered in light of the theoretical concepts discussed in Chapter 4, at the same time contributed to the development of the analytic framework presented in the same chapter. This framework was used to analyse the teachers' principles and practices in Chapters 6 to 9 and to guide the discussion on the research findings in Chapter 9. The observation and interview codes that

emerged from the data were also used as part of the input for teacher education and curriculum development in Chapter 11.

In Chapters 6 to 9, I detail the focal teachers' background information, their espoused statements regarding GAL teaching, the classroom background and the teaching materials. I also provide detailed description of the teaching activities that occurred in non-contrived settings as well as the teachers' understandings of these. Taken together, this description allows for a holistic perspective regarding how GAL was being addressed in the focal mainstream classrooms from the teachers' perspective.

Chapter 6

Case Study: Anna

6.0. Introduction to the data chapters

This chapter presents the first of four case studies chapters that describe the pedagogic principles underlying the teaching strategies of four GLTs in subject Greek classes with both GMT and GAL pupils. The findings from each case study are organised according to the main categories that emerged from analysing both the interview and observation data of the four case studies (see section 5.4). Each category is presented with evidence from the data in the form of extracts from lesson transcripts and teachers' interviews. The structure for each of the four case study chapters is the same. In the first section, I present the GLTs' teaching and professional background with the aim of recognising the factors that had an influence on their teaching. Then I outline their espoused beliefs about language, language learning and teaching and about the prescribed national curriculum and textbook. In the following section, I describe the teaching strategies that the teachers used for the subject Greek in terms of the type of teaching activities and the reasons underlying these activities. In the final section, I summarise the teachers' pedagogic principles and their related teaching strategies. I also explain the extent to which these principles and practices match the principles of additional language teaching discussed in Chapter 4. Following the description of all four case studies, I discuss the salient issues rising from the data in Chapter 10.

6.1. Background information and influences: Anna

Anna (pseudonym) is a Greek native speaker and an experienced GLT, being in her 32nd year of teaching and in her 25th year in the present school at the time of the fieldwork. She was enthusiastic about working with GAL pupils and was willing to adapt her lessons to support their learning. Her first degree was in History. As she mentioned in our first interview, she was aware that her initial

teacher education did not include the pedagogical training and teaching practicum needed to teach in secondary education (CS1_int1: 8). She reported that, as a result, in her early teaching career she adopted the teaching styles and strategies of her old schoolteachers as she knew only these ways of teaching (CS1_int2: 10). When she came to realise that these styles and strategies were outdated and ineffective, she made an effort to update her approach through drawing on her experience, in-service education and having discussions with more experienced colleagues (CS1_int2: 18).

Her first experience in a mainstream classroom with both GAL pupils and GMT learners was ten to 12 years previously. She was aware that her teaching changed from the moment that GAL pupils were placed in the mainstream classroom (CS1_int2: 20). Before this situation, she claimed that she adopted a traditional teacher-led teaching approach as her GMT pupils had excellent academic performance and were able to work individually without her support (CS1_int2: 22). However, when GAL pupils were placed in the mainstream classroom, she understood that her approach was ineffective and unsuitable for such classrooms. She realised the difficulty GAL pupils had in coping with the current curriculum because of their failure in classroom tests and of their non-involvement in classroom activities (CS1_int2: 22). She stressed that before gaining knowledge about how to cope with these circumstances, she had just simplified lesson content and had had to explain many unknown words so that GAL pupils could understand what was happening (CS1_int2: 24). However, she had been disappointed with these strategies as she felt that pupils were not learning anything (CS1_int2: 24). For this reason, when the organisers of the project 'Integration of repatriated and foreign pupils in secondary education (Gymnasium)' (see subsection 2.2.3) had proposed that her school participated in it, she had decided to get involved. She had thought that it would be a very interesting and helpful experience to understand how to teach in such classrooms (CS1_int2: 26).

She highlighted that her participation in this project had an effect on how she approached GAL teaching in the mainstream classroom. During this programme, Anna attended in-service seminars, in which she became aware of

the strategies that she could use to teach GAL through subject areas (CS1_int2: 26). Besides participating in in-service programmes, she had been given the opportunity to cooperate with GAL teachers. In particular, these teachers had attended her classes, had explained to her how to deal with GAL teaching and helped her to organise group work in her lessons. According to her, through co-teaching she was provided the opportunity to learn how to apply group work in practice and to understand the advantages of using group work in such lessons (CS1_int2: 28).

In 2009, she started a Masters Degree in Education at the Greek Open University with a focus on the topic of intercultural education because of her personal interests in this subject (CS1_int1: 32). This degree, according to Anna, made her aware of theoretical knowledge about second language acquisition, intercultural education and bilingualism (CS1_int2: 36). Such knowledge helped her realise the importance for GAL pupils developing their mother tongue and facilitated her better understanding of the method of group work (CS1_int2: 36). She also stated that she recognised the importance of respecting pupils' cultural and language diversity, and of relating lesson topics to GAL pupils' cultural experiences (CS1_int1: 112, int2: 50).

She also felt that her learning experiences and her personal preferences had an impact on her teaching decisions. She used teaching strategies that she considered helpful for her. For example, at the beginning of her lessons, she stated the goals of each lesson to prepare pupils for what would follow, because she felt it was useful for her when she was a student to know lesson aims (CS1_int2: 86). She also asked pupils to express their personal experiences because she liked listening to their talking about their experiences (CS1_int2: 118). She said that pupils' interests also formed her teaching practices. For instance, in our second interview, she stressed that she used music and pictures because pupils like these means of learning more than reading texts (CS1_int2: 112).

Anna pointed out that she decided the teaching strategies that she adopted in her lessons considering contextual factors. In the first interview, I asked her if all

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pupils participated in group work activities. She replied mentioning that she applied such activities whenever she had enough time, and when her classroom was not between other classrooms because the noise would make other teachers to complain (CS1_int1: 74).

Overall, Anna was an experienced teacher who felt that she knew the appropriate teaching strategies for teaching GAL in mainstream classrooms and with experience in working with GAL pupils in mainstream classrooms. She gave emphasis on cultural diversity and the importance of giving equal opportunities to GAL pupils. According to her, her teaching experience in mainstream classrooms, her learning experience, contextual factors and in-service education had a strong influence on how she approached GAL teaching in her lessons.

6.2. Teachers' espoused beliefs about GAL teaching: Anna

As discussed in Chapter 3, teachers tend to hold different beliefs about all aspects of their work that they have developed during their teaching career and that these have an impact on their teaching decisions (Borg, 2006; Woods, 1996). In this section, for all four case studies, I present the focal teachers' espoused beliefs about language, language learning and teaching, as well as their interpretations of the prescribed textbook and the national curriculum as given by them throughout the interview process (see Chapter 5). These beliefs shed a light on how these GLTs thought about GAL teaching in the mainstream classroom at a theoretical level. During the research process, I did not have the intention of making connections between their espoused beliefs and their actual teaching strategies and did not ask teachers to link these beliefs with their teaching. This was left to the analysis when such connections brought out what their teaching principles actually were.

6.2.1. Anna's understandings of language

Anna conceptualised language as a system of different elements and as knowledge that learners have to accumulate so that they can become proficient in Greek. When listing the language problems of GAL pupils, she stressed that pupils' difficulties in grammar, syntax and in vocabulary prevented them from both comprehending and producing academic texts (CS1_int1: 44, 46). She also reported that learners need to be aware of distinct language points to become proficient in Greek. This belief could explain why she focused on language points in her lessons (see subsection 6.4.2).

In the first interview, when I asked her if the textbook was difficult for GAL pupils, she explained the different kinds of language skills and how these skills influence GAL pupils' language development. She argued that:

> *these children need more help in the production of speech. They do not have problems in speaking because they speak in the classroom and during breaks. Of course there is a difference between the language that they use when they speak amongst themselves in the classroom or during the breaks and the language of the school which they cannot use* (CS1_int1: 44)

She believed that GAL pupils were required to develop academic language skills, which, for her, included writing and reading comprehension of academic discourse, to cope with curriculum demands and to pass school exams. According to her, communicative fluency would not assist GAL pupils to engage in classroom activities and accomplish curriculum aims. This indicates that Anna considered that language consists of interactive informal and academic formal language skills, and that GAL learners need to develop the second aspect to achieve in school.

6.2.2. Anna's understandings of language learning

According to Anna, language learning occurs through acquiring explicit knowledge of language points and applying this knowledge in practice. She stated the belief that the explicit presentation of language points would make

pupils aware of grammar rules which would help them absorb the forms and functions of language points (CS1_int1: 46, int2: 44, 150). This belief can be related to her previously mentioned opinion about language.

In the second interview, when she argued that GAL pupils needed more hours for the subject Greek, I pressed her for an explanation as what the focus of these lessons would be. In the following extract, she explained how teachers could enhance language learning in such classes. She explained that the focus should be:

> *on good knowledge of the Greek language, that is, to read more texts, to become more familiar with Greek texts, to practise more. (...) Teachers should tell them to write, meaning that, they should tell them to write down their opinion, so they can practise. In this way, they can understand from their errors and they will not repeat them* (CS1_int2: 48).

Anna thought that providing extended opportunities to comprehend meaning by the extensive exposure to academic texts would support GAL pupils in improving their comprehension skills. She also repeatedly pointed out that teachers should encourage them to write academic texts expressing their opinion to achieve language accuracy while using the academic formal language. As mentioned above, she believed that teachers do not need to give an emphasis on the enhancement of their speaking skills. In the first interview, when I asked her what she would change in her teaching, Anna mentioned another strategy that she believed was important for language development.

> *(...) I would spend more time on the subject Greek, and we would discuss different issues that concern them, for instance to discuss their personal problems, their concerns for the future. I really like making comparisons between here and their country (...) I would really like to focus on cultural issues which I don't have the luxury to discuss due to lack of time* (CS1_int1: 112).

Anna felt that engaging pupils in discussions about different topics would expose them to new ideas, foster their acceptance of diversity and at the same time lead to their learning of Greek without focusing exclusively on language points. Seen in this light, Anna believed that, on the one hand, exclusive focus

on meaning and on the other hand, exclusive focus on language points, could contribute to language proficiency development.

6.2.3. Anna's understandings of language teaching

Anna pointed out that teachers should adopt the same approaches for both GMT and GAL pupils in mainstream classroom so that the latter do not feel different from the former (CS1_int2: 64). With such a perspective, Anna was stressing that the aim of subject Greek lessons should be to aid GAL learners to become proficient in Greek as a mother tongue. However, she contended that teaching the subject Greek to both GMT and GAL pupils requires different strategies than teaching this subject only to the former. According to her, the most effective strategy is group work, which, as mentioned above, she learned during in-service training. When I questioned her about how she taught the subject Greek in mainstream classrooms, she identified the benefits of group work:

> *through this method through the group-work. When they work in groups, they share the responsibilities and they decide who is going to do what. The ones who have more skills they help the others. For example, pupils who may know some words, they will help the others* (CS1_int2: 66).

Anna perceived group work not as a way of organising classroom activities but as a teaching strategy. According to her, in groups, pupils could work collaboratively and support each other in accomplishing classroom activities and aims which she considered that should be the same for both GAL and GMT pupils. Anna chose this strategy for both educational and interpersonal reasons. She argued that this would help pupils become responsible for their learning, concentrate during lessons, engage actively in different activities and accept diversity (CS1_int1: 68, 70, 74/ int2: 70, 72, 178). During the four lessons that I observed, Anna asked the whole class to work in groups when engaging pupils in reading comprehension activities and during grammar practice activities (see subsection 6.4.1). She also stressed that this strategy is also helpful for GMT pupils.

She also mentioned that when GAL pupils attend the primary school in Greece is more likely for them to have a good knowledge of Greek and so they do not need extra language support (CS1_int1: 20, 22/ int2: 28). On the other hand, she claimed that it is essential for GAL pupils who either have limited knowledge of Greek or have difficulties in grasping academic language to either attend language support classes outside the mainstream classroom or have extra support by GAL teachers within it. This would enable them to attain the language skills needed to attend mainstream classrooms and to follow the national curriculum. However, this type of extra language support class does not exist, nor do GAL teachers enter mainstream classrooms as there is no such educational policy. She explained that owing to the lack of such provision, she organised group-work activities as the best alternative way to help GAL pupils follow the curriculum aims and content irrespective of their language proficiency (CS1_int2: 66). Seen in this light, Anna conceptualised GAL teaching as a matter of applying teaching strategies different from those used in monolingual classrooms and as a matter that should be mainly addressed outside the mainstream classroom.

6.2.4. Anna's interpretations of the national curriculum and textbook

As mentioned above, Anna acknowledged the importance of using different teaching strategies to teach the subject Greek in mainstream classrooms than those she used in monolingual classrooms. However, when I enquired how the subject Greek should be taught in mainstream classrooms, she affirmed the importance for GLTs to follow the national curriculum. She reasoned her opinion, saying that:

> *I should teach the subject Greek normally, that is, the same way I would teach it in a different school because they need to learn Greek well, even if children remain in Greece or leave, especially if they stay. (…) they need to learn Greek well otherwise they are doomed; they will not be able to do anything* (CS1_int1: 120).

Anna expressed the view that the lesson content and curriculum aims suggested in the national curriculum, which, as she acknowledged, mainly targets the

needs of GMT pupils, were appropriate for applying them in mainstream classrooms with both GAL and GMT pupils. This, according to her, can give GAL pupils the same learning opportunities as GMT pupils and can foster their integration and acceptance in Greek society.

Despite the above belief, Anna highlighted the inappropriateness for GAL pupils of the curriculum content. She felt that it does not respect cultural diversity (CS1_int1: 40), does not include topics about cultural diversity and different cultures (CS1_int2: 52) as well as not meeting the language needs of GAL pupils (CS1_int2: 78). For example, she explained that the curriculum obligates GAL pupils to attend foreign language classes like GMT pupils. In her opinion, instead of these classes, it should provide GAL pupils extra Greek language support classes to attain their academic formal language skills (CS1_int1: 40, int2: 46). She also believed that the curriculum should not obligate GLTs who have knowledge about GAL teaching to follow a syllabus that has been designed for GMT pupils, but rather, it should allow them to design their own lessons taking into account pupils' needs (CS1_int1: 116).

She also stressed the difficulty that GAL pupils have in grasping textbook content. In the background interview when I asked her to express her opinion about the textbook, she first mentioned that texts are difficult to understand. Anna felt that they contain difficult vocabulary that GAL pupils are not familiar with, their discourse is hard to comprehend, their topics are not interesting for pupils and the contents do not relate to their experiences (CS1_int1: 42, int2: 74). She also considered that the language points presented in the textbook are difficult for GAL pupils. When I questioned whether the textbook was difficult, she said that:

> *it is hard enough. I teach in year three that the focus is on subordinate clauses that are a difficult part of syntax. They are even more difficult when you do not know the language you will find them hard* (CS1_int1: 44)

Although Anna felt that the curriculum content is inappropriate for supporting GAL pupils' language learning, she used it in her four lessons (see section 6.3). In the next section, turning the attention to what really happened in her

classroom, I describe the learners' characteristics, Anna's lesson aims, lesson content as well as the classroom layout.

6.3. Background description of the Year 3 subject Greek class

Anna's class was a secondary Year 3 mainstream class (pupils aged 14-15) where there were 25 pupils in the classroom: 9 GMT learners and 16 GAL pupils from Georgia (12 pupils) and Albania (4 pupils). Most of the GAL pupils came to Greece when they were 4 years old and had been there almost 10 years, one had been there for 5 years, and two had been in the country for only 2 years. The language proficiency of pupils varied. Based on Anna' judgments, my examination of the written work of GAL pupils and on my own notes, since there had not been any official GAL assessment (see subsection 2.3.3), most of these pupils had attained conversational fluency in Greek. They engaged in peer-appropriate conversations, they had mastered pronunciation, and they used basic vocabulary and language structures. However, they had difficulties in comprehending and producing academic texts. They had limited vocabulary and they found it difficult to understand complex grammatical structures. They also used simple vocabulary and grammatical structures in their academic texts as well as producing many spelling and grammatical errors.

As mentioned in Chapter 5, I observed four subject-Greek lessons in Anna's classroom in April 2012. The aims of these lessons, as stated by the teacher at the beginning of each, are presented in Table 6.1. Overall, Anna aimed to get the pupils to attain reading comprehension and speaking skills, develop grammar knowledge and to develop ideas about different topics that they could exploit in their written essays. There is a link between these aims and those of the prescribed national curriculum. The curriculum aims to involve pupils in reading comprehension activities in order for them to comprehend the meaning of different texts, discuss ideas expressed in them, to use them in their written essays as well as to consolidate language points (Katsarou et al., 2006, see also subsection 2.3.2).

Lessons	Aims
Lesson 1	Getting pupils to develop reading comprehension skills, become familiar with art as well as to both recognise and use clauses of effect and contrast
Lesson 2	Getting pupils to develop speaking skills and become aware of various forms of art and its impact on people
Lesson 3	Getting pupils to understand what metonymy is and to develop speaking skills by discussing their future plans
Lesson 4	Getting pupils to develop reading comprehension skills by reading texts related to the future of young people and become aware of social issues mentioned in textbook texts

Table 6.1: Aims of Anna's four lessons

Anna used the textbook proposed by the national curriculum in the four lessons observed. Especially she focused on Unit 7, '*Τέχνη: Μια γλώσσα για όλους, σε όλες τις εποχές της*' [Art: An Expression for Everyone at all Times], which discusses the influence of art on peoples' lives, and Unit 8 '*Μπροστά στο Μέλλον*' [Facing the Future], which discusses what young people will face in the future. In the first interview, she pointed out that Unit 7 was very challenging for pupils and the topic was not attractive, but she had to use it because of the language points presented in it (CS1_int1: 96). On the other hand, she considered that the topic of Unit 8 was more interesting as it was related to the interests and concerns of young people (CS1_int2: 84), which could be the reason why she focused exclusively on the texts of this unit.

She mainly used some texts from the units (see Table 6.2) because of their main ideas (CS1_int2: 174) without using the given comprehension questions following each text, the related activities or the textbook sequence. She also taught a language point (subordinate clauses of effect and contrast) presented in the second part of Unit 7 and a figure of speech (metonymy) presented in the third part of the same unit without using the activities and exercises provided, while she did not refer to the language points presented in Unit 8.

Unit	Text title	Text description
7	**Text 1:** '*Για το τραγούδι'* (For the song)	Extract from a literary book about the power of songs and the feelings that songs evoke
	Text 2: '*Οι τέχνες*' (Art)	Extract adapted from a book about aesthetics and art, which enumerates the different forms of art
	Text 3: '*Τέχνες και τεχνάσματα*' (Art and tricks)	Extract from a book referring to the theories of aesthetics, which discusses the need to develop technical expertise to produce amazing works of art
	Text 4: '*Συζητώντας για ... την τέχνη*' (Discussing for …. Art)	A sketch taken from a newspaper representing the way that business people are interested in art
	Text 5: '*Σειρήνες – Οδυσσέας*' (Sirens – Ulysses)	A painting by a Greek artist representing the story of the Sirens and Ulysses in a modern version
	Text 6: '*Ποιητής και Μούσα*' (Poet and Muse)	A painting by a Greek artist representing the way that the Muse inspires the Poet
	Text 7: '*Ελληνικό Θέατρο Σκιών: Φιγούρες από φως και ιστορία*' (Greek Shadow Theatre: Puppets of light and history)	Extract adapted from a magazine describing the character of Karagiozis, how he was created and his appeal to audiences
	Text 8: '*Λαός και Κολωνάκι*' (People and Kolonaki)	A sketch from a newspaper contending that even if people have different socioeconomic status, they are equal
	Workbook text: '*Troy με χρυσά κουτάλια*' (Troy with golden spoons)	A newspaper article satirising the movie Troy
8	**Text 1:** '*Η εργασία στο μέλλον'* (Future work)	Extract adapted from a magazine about career advice, which discusses the development of new professions owing to the development of technology and sciences
	Text 3: '*Η μάντισσα*' (Fortune teller)	Extract from a literacy book which describes how people believed in fortune tellers in previous years
	Text 4: '*Η νέα γενιά*' (The new generation)	Extract adapted from a newspaper which explains the reasons why young people seem indifferent to what happens and defends them for being that way
	Text 9: '*Το μέλλον θα είναι άλλο*' (The future will be different)	A newspaper article which discusses the difference between how people think about their future and how the future will be

Workbook text: '*Γυρίζω τις πλάτες μου στο μέλλον*' (Turning my back on the future)	A very famous song which discusses the refusal of young people to follow a future that others impose on them	

Table 6.2: Texts from Units 7 and 8 in the textbook used by Anna in the four observed lessons

In the four lessons observed, the pupils worked in six groups of four except for one group that consisted of five. At the beginning of the school year, Anna informed me that when she formed the groups she aimed to combine pupils from different minority communities and with different learning abilities within each (CS1_int1: 70). At the beginning of each lesson, the pupils moved their desks, which were in rows, so that they could sit in the assigned groups and at the end, they put them back as they were. They could sit either in twos or by themselves at a desk and most GAL pupils were sitting with other GAL pupils. The teacher's desk was in front of the pupils' desks, on a raised platform and beside the whiteboard, but she did not sit at her desk. She went around to each group discussing with them, explaining and answering their queries. The classroom atmosphere was friendly and relaxed. The pupils had the opportunity to discuss in groups, and despite the high level of noise, the teacher did not enforce strict classroom discipline. They also appeared to be comfortable in expressing their opinions or in responding to the teacher's elicitations without waiting for permission.

Picture 6.1: Anna's classroom layout

6.4. Teaching the subject Greek in a mainstream classroom

In this section, I use the categories instructional strategies for focusing on carrier content, instructional strategies for language points teaching, use of linguistic and contextual cues for language comprehension, use of linguistic and contextual cues for language use and participation that emerged from the analysis of the observation and interview data to describe the teachers' teaching strategies (see section 5.4). For each category, these strategies are presented with evidence from the data in the form of extracts from lesson transcripts along with the reasoning that the focal teachers gave while describing and explaining them. These extracts have been chosen as they exemplify the strategies that each teacher relied upon for their classroom practices.

6.4.1. Instructional strategies for focusing on carrier content

In her four lessons, in the majority of the teaching activities, Anna drew the attention of all pupils to carrier content without referring to language points by engaging the whole class in reading comprehension and speaking activities. To achieve this, she repeatedly embraced a range of teaching strategies, including: group silent reading, collaborative writing of summaries, engaging pupils in question-answer sequences and lecturing. In the four lessons, she generally followed the same format and this cycle would be usually completed in two lessons. In the first lesson, she asked pupils to work in groups to complete two tasks, i.e. to read texts silently and to write summaries collaboratively. She explained that she embraced silent reading due to the difficulty of GAL pupils to read academic texts fluently (CS1_int2: 106, 108). According to her, this strategy would lead them to focus on the meaning of the text and not on the pronunciation. She also involved the pupils in writing summaries to get them to improve their reading comprehension skills, to give them opportunity to discuss the main ideas of texts in groups and to prepare them for the end of year exams (CS1_int2: 100, 110).

In the second lesson, she instructed them to present their work, and then she either engaged them in question-answer sequences or gave mini-lectures.

Extract 1, which occurred near the middle of lesson 3 and lasted around 2 minutes, is taken from a reading comprehension activity, for which the pupils were asked to answer the teacher's comprehension questions. Initially, Anna told them to work in groups in order to read the text 'Γυρίζω τις πλάτες μου στο μέλλον' [Turning my back on the future] (see Appendix 13A) and to discuss its main ideas without specifying how to read it. After the pupils had completed this activity, she addressed comprehension questions about the meaning of the text, which were not given in the workbook, to the whole class. The following extract occurred after the meaning of the first phrase was discussed in class and the teacher turned the pupils' attention to the second phrase.

Extract 1

01	T:	it says *((she read aloud from the workbook))* since the history is yours destroy it/ meaning the future/ if you insist/
02		but I will not be on your side//
03		I will turn my back on you//
04		what is it?
05		to whom does the history belong?
06		it says it nicely//
07	P1:	to us//
08	T:	to us?
09		who are we?
10	P2:	(…)
11	T:	to all of us?
12	P2:	no//
13	P3:	to young people//
14	P4:	(…)
15	T:	louder//
16	P5:	to old people//
17	T:	do you think old people are the ones who determine the history?
18	P5:	(…)
19	T:	does history belong to old people?
20	P6:	no//
21	T:	to <u>whom</u> does history belong?
22	P7:	to young people//
23	T:	it should do/
24	Ps:	(…)
25	T:	it should belong to young people/
26		but does it belong to them?
27		what does history mean?
28		who does decide the history of the whole world?
29		who do decide the history of the whole world?
30		Andreas?

31	Andreas:	people with power//
32	T:	people with power//

After reading the phrase from the text aloud, Anna asked the whole class deductive questions[16], which the pupils could not answer from the text alone, but rather needed to draw inferences from information in the text. Both GAL and GMT pupils responded to her questions without waiting for Anna to nominate someone to answer apart from line 30 when she nominated a GMT pupil, and different pupils answered her questions. Anna believed that asking questions is a means of helping pupils to think about a text, comprehend its meaning and to participate in discussions (CS1_int2: 170). For her, it would have been easier to explain the meaning of the texts without pupil contributions, but she preferred to let them express their opinions and understandings (CS1_int2: 170). So she felt that this strategy would enable the pupils to expand their reading comprehension and speaking skills. This strategy would appear to be related to her expressed belief regarding the exposure to written texts and to discussions (see subsection 6.2.2).

Lecturing was another strategy that she used during reading comprehension activities without involving the pupils in classroom talk. An example of this strategy is presented in extract 2, which occurred around the middle of lesson 4 and lasted around three minutes. Anna set up the activity following the process mentioned above. In this extract, the teacher instructed one group, which consisted of both GAL and GMT pupils, to present their summary of text 9 ' *'To μέλλον θα είναι άλλο'* [The future will be different] (see Appendix 13B).

Extract 2

01	P1:	*((he reads aloud from their summary))* television is the reason for the non development of cinema/
02	T:	I did not understand this// tell it again//
03		television (.)
04	P1:	television is the reason for the non development of cinema//
05	T:	good//

---

[16] Grant (1987) divides reading comprehension questions into three categories: plain sense questions, deductive questions and projective questions. The first type of question checks if pupils comprehend information stated explicitly in texts, whilst the second ascertains whether pupils draw inferences from text information. The last is used to assess whether the pupils can be relating text information to their own life.

06		he said/ that a factor that prohibited the development of an art/ i.e. cinema/ is television//
07		do we understand why?
08	Ps:	yes//
09	T:	because we watch television the whole day/ and we do not want to pay 8 euro to go to the cinema/
10		because television is free// while cinema is expensive//
11		however/
12	Ps:	(…)
13	T:	you cannot compare them//
14	Ps:	(…)
15	T:	move on *((to the pupil who is reading the summary))*//

While a member of the group, who was a GMT pupil, was presenting his summary, the teacher interrupted him to explain the meaning of some phrases which she believed that the pupils might not understand. To do this, she connected these phrases with the real world and with experience that she thought that the pupils might have had. She also used this strategy to introduce a topic to the whole class. For example, at about the middle of lesson 3, she discussed the disadvantages of technological development without asking for the pupils' contribution. When I requested her to explain her decision to do so, she said that she wanted to ensure that all the pupils had comprehended the main ideas of texts. She was not sure if all the pupils had been paying attention to the summary presentations of groups, because each group analysed different texts (CS1_int2: 168). Overall, Anna embraced teaching strategies to engage pupils in meaning-focused activities where they could become knowledgeable about different topics, to which they could refer in their writing, whilst at the same time attaining comprehension and speaking skills.

6.4.2. Instructional strategies for language point teaching

During the four lessons observed, Anna embraced both deductive and inductive presentation of language points and occasionally vocabulary teaching. In particular, she presented two language points (see section 6.3) because they were proposed in the textbook, organised one controlled practice activity and gave the meaning of different words. In lesson 1, where she taught the subordinate clauses of effect and contrast (see section 6.3) she did not use the information provided in the textbook because of her opinion about the textbook

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difficulty (see subsection 6.2.4). After drawing a diagram on the board (see figure 6.1), she presented orally the types of clauses (adverbial clauses), their name and their subordinating conjunctions. She, then, explained the function of these clauses and their forms without engaging pupils in classroom talk. After this presentation, she set up a controlled practice activity asking learners to work in groups to identify these clauses in the texts from Unit 7. This strategy is also proposed in the prescribed curriculum, which considers the texts an introduction for teaching language points (Katsarou et al., 2006, see also Appendix 4). The groups had the same structure and acted as described in subsection 6.4.1.

Επιρρηματικές προτάσεις
(Adverbial clauses)

Αποτελεσματικές
[clauses of effect]

ώστε, ώστε να, που
[*so, so that, so*]

Εναντιωματικές
[clauses of contrast]

ενώ, αν και, παρόλο που
[*while, although, even though*]
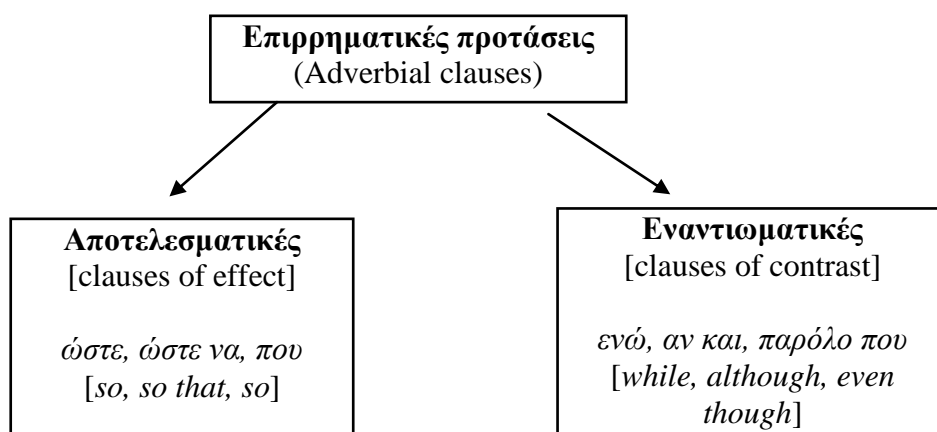
Figure 6.1: Clauses of effect and contrast

During the group presentations, the teacher asked each to read the clauses that they had found in their texts aloud and instructed the rest of the class to note these clauses in their textbooks. An example of this strategy is presented in extract 3 which lasted approximately two minutes. It occurred around the middle of lesson 3 and after one group had presented their summary of the text '*Τέχνες και τεχνάσματα*' [Arts and tricks] (see Appendix 13C).

Extract 3

01	T:	what type of clauses do we have here?
02	P1:	in the second line/ the *((he read from the text))* in order to overcome the problems of material//
03	T:	good//
04		what is this clause?
05	P1:	it is a clause of effect//
06	T:	a clause of effect//

07   everyone/ note it down//

As can be seen, first the teacher encouraged the pupil to read the clause aloud detaching it from the text (line 01) and then to identify the clause type (line 04). Anna did not discuss further this language point, but rather, just affirming that the type of identified clauses were correct (line 06) showing that she was interested only on the grammatical aspect of this language point. As she told me in the second interview, most of the time, she combined explicit knowledge with practice to get pupils both to consolidate and produce subordinate clauses (CS1_int2: 152, 154). This would also appear to be related to her expressed view about the importance of explicit language knowledge (see subsection 6.2.2). She also presented these language points deductively since she considered that the pupils would have difficulty in comprehending more complex language points if she did not give basic information about these clauses first. On the other hand, she argued that she tended to choose inductive presentation when she considered that the pupils would not have difficulty in understanding language points (CS1_int2: 166).

She also gave the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary so that pupils could comprehend the meanings of the texts, as explained in the second interview (CS1_int2: 100). An example of how she explained vocabulary is presented in extract 4, which occurred towards the middle of lesson 2 and is taken from a reading comprehension activity lasting for around one minute. After a group had presented their summary of the text *Ελληνικό Θέατρο Σκιών: Φιγούρες από φως και ιστορία*' [Greek Shadow Theatre: Puppets of light and history], the teacher enquired of the whole class the meaning of some words in the text that in the previous lesson, a group, the majority of which was GMT pupils, asked the teacher about their meaning.

Extract 4

01   T: what does nihilist mean?
02   Ps: we do not know//
03   T: we have discussed this word before//
04   it is a bad thing for someone to be nihilist//
05   P: so/ what does nihilist mean?
06   T: A nihilist is one who does not have any moral values//

Anna thought that the pupils would not comprehend the word 'nihilist', and so she pressed the whole class for its definition. When the pupils declared that they did not know the meaning, she gave the definition of the word 'nihilist' with substituted simple words without referring to any other functions of this word.

6.4.3. Use of linguistic and contextual cues for language comprehension

Although exposing pupils in a number of texts and classroom talk, Anna seemed to assume that by relying on linguistic cues pupils would be able to comprehend new information which, as seen in subsection 6.4.1, she thought would lead to language development. The most frequent strategy that she used was asking comprehension questions to check pupils' understanding of the texts (see subsection 6.4.1). However, as can be seen in extract 1, few pupils were able to reply and the majority of replies came from GMT pupils. She sometimes paraphrased her or pupils' utterances and used comprehension checks to aid comprehension. For example, in extract 2, she appeared to have the aim of explaining the first utterance of a GMT pupil who had presented the summary for his group on the text '*The future will be different*'. In line 01, the GMT pupil read the first line of the summary aloud and the teacher requested him to repeat the sentence (line 02). In line 06, she paraphrased his answer and in line 07, she asked the whole class if they understood the previous utterance of their classmate. Anna explained to me during the second interview that her purpose in using this modification was to check the extent to which the pupils comprehended the meaning of that utterance explicitly (CS1_int2: 168).

She often used music as she believed that through it they would comprehend the meanings of texts, remember them and at the same time attain language comprehension skills (CS1_int2: 94, 96, 98). An example of this strategy emerged before the episode described in extract 1. At the beginning, the teacher told the pupils to work collaboratively by reading and discussing the text *Γυρίζω τις πλάτες μου στο μέλλον*' [Turning my back on the future] (see Appendix 13A). After that, she told them to listen carefully to a song that had the same lyrics as the text. The majority of the pupils seemed to enjoy the song

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and to pay attention to the lyrics. After this, the teacher checked whether they understood the meaning of the text by adopting the same strategy described in subsection 6.4.1. As can be seen in extract 1, a number of GAL and GMT pupils engaged in the question-answer sequences regarding this text showing that music might have facilitated their understanding.

Extract 5, which happened near the beginning of lesson 3, is taken from a grammar presentation activity and lasted around three minutes, shows an example of another strategy of Anna. After giving some examples and the definition of metonymy orally, the teacher directed the whole class to look at the picture *Λαός και Κολωνάκι*' [People and Kolonaki] from Unit 7 (see Appendix 13D) in their textbooks. This picture shows some people with both expensive and cheap cars stuck in traffic, with a man uttering the phrase '*We are all the same; people and Kolonaki*'. She first explained what Kolonaki is – it is the most expensive area in Athens – and then attempted to show the metonymy presented in the picture.

Extract 5

```
01   T:   when we say Kolonaki/ we mean wealthy people/
02        so the aristocracy//
03        you can understand now/ that Kolonaki is the area//
04        here it means the people who stay in Kolonaki//
05        we have metonymy/ don't we?
```

Here, Anna gave the meaning of the word 'Kolonaki' in the particular phrase and why this phrase is metonymy. Pupils did not participate in the talk but only affirmed that they understood what the teacher explained to them. When I asked her why she used pictures to explain different concepts, she argued that:

> *isn't it helpful for us to connect a concept with an image in our mind? I believe when we connect an image with a meaning, it is easier to understand something because we need something more applicable. You could learn something derived from your experience better and remember it* (CS1_int2: 162).

Anna contended that the connection of meaning with pictures would result in the pupils having better retention of the information and hence, being able to understanding the concepts better (CS1_int2: 128).

As mentioned in subsection 6.4.2, in lesson 1, she used a diagram (see figure 5.1) to present the types, the name and the subordinating conjunctions of the clauses of effect and contrast. According to her, this would guide the learners towards consolidation of the structure of the clauses (CS1_int2: 152). The majority of pupils were looking at this diagram while engaging in the controlled practice grammar activity mentioned in the previous subsection. She also connected concepts with real-life experiences. For instance, in the second lesson, when was trying to explain a text referring to the play 'Karagkiozis', which is a classic Greek play, she asked the whole class whenever they have watched it. When I asked her to explain the reasons of doing this, she stressed that if pupils have experience on something, they should be definitely going to gain a better understanding of and consolidate the new knowledge (CS1_int1: 92, int2: 164).

6.4.4. Use of linguistic and contextual cues for language use and participation

As mentioned above, Anna organised whole-class and group-work activities and mostly encouraged pupils' participation in classroom talk by adopting two main forms of exchange. Most of the time, she used the IRE pattern of teacher-pupil interaction (see section 4.5) to engage pupils in classroom talk during comprehension and controlled grammar practice activities. An example of this pattern is presented in extract 6, which occurred near the middle of lesson 2, after the groups had presented their summaries in class, and it lasted approximately two minutes. The teacher referred the whole class to page 124 and sought from them a description of the first picture (see Appendix 13E).

Extract 6

01   T: what does this picture depict?
02   Ps   *((no one answers))*

03	T:	*((she refers to Odyssey and Sirens))*
04		do you see something strange?
05	Ps	*((no one answers))*
06	T:	did the partners of Ulysses wear a coat and hat?
07	Ps	*((no one answers))*
08	T:	do you see the uniformity?
09	Ps:	*((no one answers))*
10	T:	do you remember something?
11	P1:	all the people are identical//
12	T:	yes/ they are identical/
13		like copies//

As no one responded to her request (line 02), she set many factual questions to help the pupils to describe the picture, but still got no response (lines 01-09). In line 11, a GMT pupil made an observation responding to her elicitation with a short and simple sentence. She accepted his answer by confirming its correctness and by repeating it (line 12) showing that her response to pupil's answer is an evaluation. After this extract, the teacher continued asking the whole class questions about the underlying meaning of the picture. According to her, evaluation would help her check the pupils' knowledge and comprehension (see subsection 6.4.1).

Another form of exchange that Anna sometimes used was the IRF pattern of teacher-pupil interaction (see section 4.5). Extract 1 (cited on page 168) shows how this pattern is realised in Anna's lessons. The teacher began the discussion by encouraging the pupils to think who the person that the writer refers to was (line 05). A pupil responded to her initial questions by giving his own opinion with an elliptical sentence (line 07). In contrast to how she responded to the pupils' answers in extract 6, she did not evaluate his answer, but rather, she incorporated it into her following question (lines 08-09). She used the same pattern in the subsequent lines, bringing the pupils' answers into her questions and statements and providing them with several opportunities to respond. She, then, attempted to lead the pupils to the correct answer, rather than giving it herself. Although she seemed to give pupils more opportunities to participate in the classroom talk, their responses consisted of short and simple sentences.

In our first interview, she explained that she asked GAL pupils with low language proficiency to employ different pictures and paintings so that they could be involved in speaking and writing activities (CS1_int1: 76). In her opinion, if she had given them academic texts, they would not have been able to produce written language. In the first lesson, she first asked these pupils to work collaboratively writing a summary of what some pictures or paintings depict. She then asked comprehension questions about the images to assist them in engaging in question-answer sequences. She also modified her speech by using everyday vocabulary and less complex sentences in question-answer sequences to get pupils to answer to her questions. For example, as can be seen from extract 1, she mainly used short simple sentences (line 26: '*it should belong to young people*') and everyday vocabulary (words '*think', 'old people*').

In groups, Anna did not assign particular roles to the pupils, but they were expected to collaborate in any way to complete the tasks. Most of the time, GMT learners or GAL learners who had been in Greece for many years would express their opinions, control the discussion and would write down the summaries. Most of the GAL learners usually were following their instructions and sometimes did not participate in the discussion at all. Anna was going around giving input to the groups when they had problems in comprehending the texts. Generally, Anna mostly used linguistic cues to support the pupils' participation in classroom interactions during both whole-class and group-work activities.

6.5. GAL teaching and Anna

In this section, for all four case studies, I discuss the extent to which the main pedagogic principles underpinning the teaching strategies that teachers embraced to teach the subject Greek in the lessons observed match the general principles of additional language teaching presented in section 4.6. Teachers' principles emerged through the data analysis, which involved the combining of teachers' espoused beliefs and the reasons that they gave to explain their

teaching strategies. In our interviews, Anna highlighted that her training regarding GAL teaching and her interest in this subject have led her to adopt teaching practices that help GAL pupils with the participation in classroom activities and their learning in the mainstream classroom.

Pedagogic principles	Observed teaching strategies
1. The exposure to carrier content can lead to the development of language comprehension and production skills	Group silent reading, collaborative writing of summaries, engaging pupils in question-answer sequences and lecturing (see subsection 6.4.1)
2. The use of contextual means can facilitate GAL pupils' understanding in relation to the meanings of texts, different concepts and language points	Scant use of pictures, music and diagrams (see subsection 6.4.3)
3. The use of linguistic cues can help GAL pupils understand the meanings of texts and different concepts	Extensive use of comprehension questions and mini-lectures (see subsections 6.4.1)
4. The explicit teaching of language points can lead to the production of accurate academic language	Deductive and inductive language teaching (see subsection 6.4.2)
5. The participation of GAL learners in grammar practice activities can help them consolidate grammar rules	Identification of language points in written texts during a controlled practice activity (see subsection 6.4.2)
6. Active language use can assist learners in developing language production skills	Group activities, discussions about the ideas contained in texts (see subsection 6.4.4)
7. Confirming and checking pupils' understanding can prepare them for their exams	Mini-lectures and IRE sequences (see subsections 6.4.1 and 6.4.4)
8. Following the national curriculum	Adopting the national curriculum aims

can lead to Greek as mother tongue development	and using the prescribed textbook (section 6.3)
9. Group activities is the best strategy of differentiation	A number of group-work activities (see subsection 6.4.1)

Table 6.3: Anna's key pedagogic principles and observed teaching strategies

Integrating language and content objectives

Anna's main aim was to get pupils to meet subject Greek aims by using subject-based materials and engaging them in subject-based activities (see section 6.3). However, sometimes she attempted to facilitate GAL pupils' subject Greek comprehension by using a range of teaching strategies (see subsections 6.4.1 and 6.4.3). So, she appears to have been delivering 'language-conscious content teaching' (see Davison & Williams, 2001, and also section 4.1), i.e. even though she did not integrate GAL aims into her lessons, she worked in support of GAL pupils' learning. This practice can be related to her principles regarding the importance of following the national curriculum and of organising group activities to support GAL pupils in mainstream classrooms (see subsections 6.2.3 and 6.2.4).

Communicative competence in both everyday and academic language

She solely promoted the development of grammatical and lexical aspects of academic formal language, while never referring to the sociolinguistic aspects of academic language (see subsection 6.4.2). This can be supported by her belief regarding the attainment of language accuracy (see subsection 6.4.2). Despite her expecting pupils to comprehend the meaning of and produce a range of texts, she did not explain the characteristics of these or how linguistic features can be used to represent different ideas. Only once did she ask pupils to recognise the type of one particular text, but did not discuss it any further. This indicates that she may not consider the explicit teaching of genre as being important for language production and pupils' language development. So, this shows that she does not promote the development of communicative competence (see section 4.3); but only grammatical competence. She also never focused on any aspects of interactive informal language. This would appear to

be consistent with her belief regarding GAL pupils' proficiency in interactive informal and academic formal language (see subsection 6.2.1).

Form-focused language teaching

Anna organised three language-focused activities during the lessons that I observed. She presented language points out of context by giving the grammar rules and expecting pupils to participate in controlled grammar practice activities (see subsection 6.4.2). However, she never drew pupils' attention to language points during meaning-focused activities. She also did not plan to teach vocabulary but gave the definitions of words as they arose during her lessons (see subsection 6.4.2). So, it would appear that she followed a traditional focus-on-forms instruction (see section 4.3) which, as she explained, would help learners attain language accuracy.

Focus on carrier content meaning

Anna lavished attention on carrier content meaning on the grounds that she mostly organised meaning-focused activities. For these activities, the pupils were expected to comprehend carrier content of 'authentic' texts and to produce spoken or written language related to these texts (see subsection 6.4.1). The teacher did not refer to language use and as mentioned above, did not introduce language points during these activities. Despite the focus on meaning, the pupils also appeared not to be able to communicate meaning using unpredictable language that they could use in real-world situations or to respond to each other. This shows that she used carrier content only as a way of enhancing reading comprehension and language production skills, rather than as a means to promote communicative efficiency and accuracy.

Promoting comprehension of classroom language and content materials

She exposed the learners to extensive spoken and written language, both of which tended to have the characteristics of academic formal language. Only occasionally did she use interactive informal language in order to explain subject concepts and the meaning of texts. Despite the extensive exposure to input, she mainly expected the pupils to rely on linguistic cues to comprehend input and hardly ever provided contextual support or modified her speech so as

to facilitate pupils' input comprehension (see subsections 6.4.1 and 6.4.3). This practice appears not to fit with the literature highlighting the importance of embracing contextual support strategies or speech modifications to promote input comprehension (see section 4.2).

Creating opportunities for extended language production

She afforded few opportunities for active language use during either whole-class or group-work activities, despite her expressed view about the importance of organising such opportunities (see subsection 6.2.2). During whole-class activities, in lessons 2 and 3, she used 65% of the class time to discuss and explain different concepts and controlled classroom talk. She was also the one who asked the questions and decided the topics of discussions. Most of the time, she asked 'display requests' (see section 4.4) that led to restricted, predictable and simple answers from the pupils (see subsection 6.4.4). Sometimes she put forward 'information requests' (see section 4.4), whereby she asked for the pupils' opinions on different topics, so they had the chance to produce extensive and unrestricted language (see subsection 6.4.4). She provided her pupils with limited opportunities for producing extensive written language. Only during group-work activities did she instruct pupils to write down a summary of the texts and even then, just one pupil from each group was engaged in this written exercise. In collaborative activities the majority of the GAL pupils produced limited spoken language as GMT or GAL pupils with high language proficiency dominated the talk (see subsection 6.4.4).

Promoting participation in classroom interactions

It was also noticed that whole-class and group-work participation comprised the main formats of her lessons in which the majority of GAL pupils rarely participated. Anna initiated classroom interaction, asked questions and nominated only those pupils who raised their hand to reply to these questions or those who did so without waiting for Anna's permission (e.g. extract 1). In this type of participation, the majority of GAL pupils rarely raised their hands so as to engage in classroom interaction. She nearly always evaluated pupils' answers, which acted as an obstacle to their further participation (see subsection 6.4.4). On a few occasions she did give feedback that allowed for pupil

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participation in classroom talk. During group participation, as in whole class participation, the majority of the GAL pupils seldom contributed to the interactions or in the accomplishment of group tasks, even though for the teacher this structure can facilitate GAL pupils' learning. This may be due to the domination of GMT or more high performing GAL pupils, as mentioned above, and perhaps down to the fact that the teacher did not assign particular roles to group members, as recommended in the literature (see section 4.5). The classroom layout seemed to encourage wider participation as the pupils were facing each other (see section 6.3).

Seen in this light, Anna's key pedagogic principles partially match the general principles of additional language teaching. She clearly adopted some teaching practices that could have supported GAL pupils' language development, but she mainly focused on the teaching of the subject Greek.

Chapter 7
Case Study: Elena

7.1. Background information and influences: Elena

Elena (pseudonym) is a Greek native speaker, being an experienced GLT in her 26th year of teaching and in her third year at the current school at the time of the fieldwork. She expressed her interest in the subject Greek and was willing to learn more about how she could handle GAL pupils in her classes. In contrast to Anna, Elena had never had any training related to GAL teaching. Her first degree was in Modern, Medieval and Ancient Greek language and literature. She was aware that her initial teacher education did not provide the theoretical knowledge needed to teach in the secondary school. For this reason, in her early teaching career, she had attempted to fill this gap by both studying on her own and discussing teaching practice with other experienced teachers (CS2_int1: 22, 76). She had only attended in-service seminars organised by the Pedagogical Institute related to the use of technology in teaching, child psychology and to the ways of using the new prescribed national curriculum and teaching materials[17] in classrooms (CS2_int1: 30, 36). She also had not been involved in the European-funded project conducted in her school (see subsection 5.3.1).

Her first experience in a mainstream classroom with both GAL and GMT learners had been in her previous school. She stressed that, in that school, she did not need to change her teaching because the small number of GAL pupils who were in her class attended language support classes outside the mainstream classroom and were highly motivated in her lessons (CS2_int1: 56). She explained that she had recast her teaching when she started teaching in the present school as she had a high number of GAL pupils in her classes.

She believed that her teaching experience has had a significant impact on the teaching decisions and strategies that she uses in mainstream classrooms. In

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[17] In 2003, the national curriculum and teaching materials changed so the Pedagogical Institute organised in-service programmes to inform teachers about the new national curriculum and teaching materials as well as to show them how to use them in their teaching.

the initial interview, replying to my question about how she chose her teaching strategies, she stressed that: '*I believe that no matter how much training and preparation someone has, years of experience are the best consultant*' (CS2_int1: 76). She also argued that participation in in-service seminars related to GAL teaching was not necessary for her. In the initial interview, when I encouraged her to explain why she considered the in-service seminars regarding GAL teaching that her colleagues attended unhelpful, she claimed that these seminars did not propose different teaching strategies from those she was already employing in her lessons (CS2_int1: 86). These beliefs indicate that she thought that her teaching experience was sufficient for coping with GAL teaching.

She also pointed out that it was important to take into account pupils' learning needs in order to decide how to plan her lessons aims and strategies. When I asked her how she decided to simplify her teaching (see subsection 7.2.3), she stated that:

> *Because I considered some topics well known, I was introducing new topics. By the end of the lesson, children did not understand, and they were asking me something extremely simple. For example, we were talking about adverbials. I was saying that this is prepositional, this is another thing and by the end of the lesson they asked me 'madam could I ask something? What is an adverb?'. Then I started understanding that I should start teaching simpler things* (CS2_int1: 80).

She embraced this strategy considering it to be an effective means for helping GAL pupils overcome their difficulties in comprehending lesson content. When I enquired whether she was aware that the national curriculum prescribes the lesson aims for each unit, she confirmed this and also added:

> *I need to cover the syllabus by the end of the school year, but there is no point in moving on and saying that I have covered the syllabus when my pupils would not have understood anything* (CS2_int2: 52).

She chose not to accomplish all the curriculum aims and not to cover the entire syllabus, because of pupils' difficulty in coping with curriculum demands.

Elena reported that she followed the guidelines of the national curriculum and the teaching materials prepared by the Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs when delivering her teaching. In the first interview, I asked her for more information about the in-service seminars that were organised by the Pedagogical Institute. She replied that these seminars had facilitated her understanding in terms of how to teach the subject Greek (CS2_int1: 38). She also informed me that she implemented specific teaching strategies, i.e. inductive language presentation (CS2_int2: 46), because they are suggested in the national curriculum (CS2_int1: 8) and engaged pupils in certain exercises as they were given in the textbook (CS2_int2: 102).

When I wondered why in lesson 4 she had divided the classroom into two groups to engage them in a reading comprehension activity, she referred to another determinant affecting her teaching.

> *I told them that half of the class would be one team and would answer the first part of an exercise while the rest of them would answer the second part. I did this because of lack of time. I was pressured by the time as it is a very serious part of teaching. If we had more time, we could do more things* (CS2_int2: 106).

When I also asked her to discuss further her comment that she would design her lessons differently, she listed the strategies that she would have used. When I queried how often she adopted these strategies, she said that she rarely did so as she does not have sufficient time (CS2_int2: 130). Seen in this light, according to Elena, time played an important role in her choices regarding which curriculum aims to accomplish and which teaching strategies to use.

Overall, Elena was an experienced GLT who has neither had training related to GAL teaching nor extended teaching experience in working in a mainstream classroom. As she claimed, her teaching experience, which she had mainly developed in monolingual classrooms, the curriculum guidelines for teaching the subject Greek and contextual factors, i.e. learners' needs and time constraints, tend to have an impact on her teaching decisions.

7.2. Teachers' espoused beliefs about GAL teaching: Elena

7.2.1. Elena's understandings of language

Elena stressed the importance for GAL pupils to learn different parts of language separately to attain language skills. She replied to my query as to whether it was necessary to teach language elements, that by learning these, GAL pupils would produce academic texts and would use the language to communicate with others without making grammar errors and mistakes in expression (CS2_int2: 56, 78). This shows that Elena conceived language as a structural system, a similar belief about language to Anna (see subsection 6.2.1).

Elena also recognised the difference between interactive informal and academic formal language skills, which, for her, include mainly writing skills. When we discussed the language problems of GAL pupils, she pointed out that even though GAL pupils develop interactive informal language skills that could enable them to engage in communication outside school, they had difficulties in producing academic texts, which makes it difficult for them to meet curriculum demands (CS2_int1: 48). So, according to Elena, language consists of two kinds of language skills that GAL pupils need to attain to be able to exploit their language resources in a range of communicative contexts.

7.2.2. Elena's understandings of language learning

As mentioned above, Elena argued that by gaining explicit knowledge of separate language points, GAL pupils would attain the language skills required to become proficient in spoken and written language. This is reflected in her claim that it was more important for her to accomplish the curriculum aims referring to language points than covering all the curriculum aims by the end of the school year (CS2_int1: 44). When I queried whether in her opinion pupils should learn grammar and syntax, she stated:

yes I think so because as much as I learn a language empirically by using it I believe that rules can help. Perhaps we shouldn't insist so much on details at the junior secondary school, sometimes I think this is just too much, but I do not believe in not teaching the rules at all (CS2_int2: 72).

Even though she thought that language use could lead to language development, she felt that explicit knowledge about language points could help GAL pupils achieve communicative fluency (CS2_int2: 74) and become aware of how to use language points accurately in their own language (CS2_int2: 78).

Elena also believed that extensive exposure to texts with a focus on meaning would contribute to language attainment. When she listed the teaching strategies that she employed to cope with the learning difficulties of GAL pupils, she explained to me that she asked the whole class to read a literacy book at home and to present their impressions in class (CS2_int1: 66). According to her, this would give GAL pupils opportunities to improve their comprehension skills and to use the language actively by transmitting the main ideas of a text without focusing on language points. So, she thought that during the exclusive exposure to meaning pupils would attain different language skills from those that they would develop during exclusive focus on language points. This belief may explain her decision to expose the learners to four different texts in her first lesson observed (see subsection 7.4.1).

When I wondered what other activities she would have engaged pupils in if she had more time, she listed a range of controlled practice activities with the focus being on language points, vocabulary and writing (CS2_int2: 120, 122, 124). According to Elena, the reason why she would have organised these activities is because:

> *All these will help them to learn the language very well. Constant practice clearly helps them to understand more things as it helps them to memorise them {grammar rules} easily. In addition, when they need to use them {language points}, they will* (CS2_int2: 126).

She felt that by applying in practice the explicit knowledge about language points and vocabulary that they had memorised, GAL pupils would become

aware of how to use them in real communications. She also argued that controlled practice activities would facilitate the improvement of their language skills, whereby this would lead to the consolidation and accurate use of language points. This belief is reflected in her lessons where she engaged the whole class in controlled practice activities (see subsection 7.4.2). She also highlighted that she insisted on organising written production activities, requiring pupils to produce academic written texts on a range of topics (CS2_int1: 64). According to her, such a practice would lead to the enhancement of their writing skills and also help them to produce accurate written language on their own (CS2_int2: 110). In her first and fourth lessons, she asked the whole class to produce written texts related to the topics under discussion for homework.

Elena stated that error correction would also enhance learners' language skills and would have an effect on how they use spoken and written language. When I questioned her about how she dealt with the problems of GAL learners in her classes, she claimed that she attempted to correct their speaking errors orally and that she put great emphasis on the correction of errors in their written texts (CS2_int1: 64). In her opinion, this would enable GAL pupils not to repeat their errors, to improve their writing skills and to produce written texts without any mistakes (CS2_int1: 38, 64). Despite this belief, in her lessons, she did not embrace this strategy, but only picking up on those regarding meaning.

7.2.3. Elena's understandings of language teaching

Elena believed that the teaching strategies and means that she adopted in her lessons were appropriate and effective for mainstream classrooms. Replying to my question regarding how she would have taught the subject Greek in a mainstream classroom in an ideal world where she had all the appropriate means, she claimed that she would not have changed anything. She would have employed the same teaching strategies and means. She said that she did not consider that using different teaching means would improve her teaching (CS2_int1: 84). This shows that Elena thought that there is no difference

between teaching the subject Greek to GMT pupils only and teaching it to both GAL and GMT pupils.

However, in the initial interview, when I enquired if she felt that she had changed her teaching because of the presence of GAL pupils in her classes, she explained to me the difference between her teaching in monolingual classrooms and in mainstream ones.

> *Yes, yes I changed it, that is, now I have started to insist on things that in previous years I considered were well known, and I did not insist on them. For example, you might also notice this, I taught the adverbials and even though it is known that the children of the Year 2 of the gymnasium should know what an adverb is, the children did not know it. I had to make special exercises to help them understand first what an adverb is. This would not have happened in a class seven, eight or ten years ago. Yes, on some occasions, I have simplified my teaching* (CS2_int1: 68).

In mainstream classrooms, Elena decided to explain simple information that pupils should have been absorbed in previous years so as to engender GAL pupils' comprehension of the lesson content. She also reported that she engaged pupils initially in less challenging activities and gradually in more challenging ones to motivate them to participate in classroom activities (CS2_int1: 68). For instance, she told me that she first instructs the pupils to write simple sentences using particular words and then to write complex ones as well as essays about a range of topics (CS2_int1: 64, int2: 124). From this perspective, it would appear that Elena saw the simplification of lesson content and of classroom activities as a strategy that would lead to GAL pupils being able to meet subject Greek demands.

As mentioned in section 7.1, she emphasised that the seminars held by the Pedagogical Institute had had an influence on her teaching strategies. When I encouraged her to describe these seminars, she told me that:

> *In the most {subject-Greek} lessons, we should adopt a text-based teaching approach. That is, we will always have to base [the lesson] on a text. In the new textbook for the subject Greek, first, we have to approach a text*

conceptually, then we have to teach the language points of this text, then again the syntax. At the beginning, this was difficult, but over the years, I came to understand that, yes, I can teach in such a way (CS2_int1: 40).

She considered that a text-based approach, which she followed in her lessons that I observed (see subsection 7.4.1), is appropriate for teaching the subject Greek in mainstream classrooms as this is recommended in the curriculum. She also claimed that if she had extra time, she would engage pupils in controlled practice activities based on texts. For example, she would give pupils a text to find its main ideas, identify language points and to assimilate new vocabulary (CS2_int2: 124). This approach, according to Elena, would enable pupils to acquire reading comprehension skills and to acknowledge the uses of language points in texts.

She also said that she adopted an explicit approach to the teaching of writing. In the second interview, when I commented on her strategy of explaining to the whole class what they had to do for an exercise, she argued that she always did this, especially when they were expected to write an essay. She described her strategy saying that:

> *before they start writing an essay, we do a draft together to hear different opinions and views as what interests me at this level is not if they have nice ideas; the children will develop nice ideas by reading, by growing up. At this level, what interests me is that the ideas they have they able to express correctly. So this year I insist a lot on this. I give them my own ideas, I give them my own advice and what remains is how they will link everything, how they will organise their own text* (CS2_int2: 110).

Elena placed emphasis on the ideas that would be developed in the essays showing that she expected pupils to link the ideas, find the structure and use written language accurately to produce a written text. This perspective may imply that pupils are considered to be responsible for producing accurate and concrete written texts without explicit teaching of writing. This belief may explain her decision to discuss the ideas expressed in the textbook in the first and the fourth lesson without referring to how to write an essay in any of her lessons that I observed (see subsection 7.4.1).

7.2.4. Elena's interpretations of the national curriculum and textbook

Elena considered the prescribed curriculum and teaching materials prepared by the ministry appropriate for teaching the subject Greek in Year 2 of mainstream classrooms. In the first interview, after I asked her opinion regarding the national curriculum, she stressed that overall she was satisfied with the curriculum even though many times she had a difficulty to accomplish all curriculum aims (see section 7.1). However, she claimed that this happened because of GAL pupils' language problems and not because of the inappropriateness of the curriculum (CS2_int1: 44, 46). She also emphasised that she was pleased with the teaching materials even though '*at some points they become very analytic or there are some exercises that according to my opinion – a few - they do not help very much the process of the lesson*' (CS2_int1: 52). Nevertheless, she did not consider this a problem on the grounds that the curriculum gives teachers the freedom of choice regarding the lesson exercises (CS2_int1: 52). Answering my question regarding to the changes that she would have made in her teaching in an ideal world, she also confirmed that she would not have changed the teaching materials to teach the subject Greek in mainstream classrooms in an ideal situation (CS2_int1: 84). Seen in this light, it would appear that Elena considered that the national curriculum and teaching materials mainly addressing GMT pupils' learning needs are also suitable for GAL pupils. This belief and her beliefs presented in section 7.1 could explain her decision to adopt the curriculum aims and use the prescribed teaching materials in her lessons that I observed (see section 7.3).

7.3. Background description of the Year 2 subject Greek class

Elena's class was a secondary Year 2 mainstream class (pupils aged 13-14) where there were 20 pupils in the room: 7 GMT learners and 13 GAL pupils from Albania (6 pupils), Russia (4 pupils), Ukraine (1 pupil), Armenia (1 pupil) and Georgia (1 pupil). Most of the GAL pupils came to Greece when they were four years old and they had been there almost 10 years, one had been in the

country for five years, one for three, and one was born there[18]. Based on my discussions with Elena and my examination of the written word of GAL pupils, their language proficiency was similar to that of GAL pupils in Anna's classroom (see subsection 6.3).

Here, I present the four subject-Greek lessons that I observed in Elena's mainstream classroom in April 2012. The aims of these lessons, as stated by the teacher who read them aloud from the textbook at the beginning of each lesson, are presented in Table 7.1. Overall, Elena aimed at getting pupils to gain explicit knowledge about language points and to acquire reading comprehension skills. Nevertheless, she gave emphasis to the development of grammar knowledge as the focus of three out of four lessons was on the presentation of language points.

Lessons	Aims
Lesson 1	Getting pupils to develop reading comprehension skills, to discuss and to write about problems of daily life that affect all people
Lesson 2	Getting pupils to develop explicit knowledge about the form and functions of adverbials
Lesson 3	Getting pupils to understand how adverbs are derived from other parts of speech
Lesson 4	Getting pupils to understand both the forms and functions of linking words

Table 7.1: Aims of Elena's four lessons

The unit that Elena used in the four lessons was Unit 7 with the title '*Βιώνοντας προβλήματα της καθημερινής ζωής*' (Experiencing problems of daily life), which refers to problems that people may confront in Greek society. She followed the prescribed structure and textbook activities, using the four first texts provided in this unit (see Table 7.2) and asking some of the comprehension questions that come after these texts. She chose these texts because she found them interesting and she believed that they would be so for pupils as well since they refer to current social problems (CS2_int2: 32). She

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[18] Pupils whose parents were immigrants in a country belong to the second generation of immigrants. In Greece, as mentioned in Chapter 2, these children are still considered GAL pupils.

also considered that they are understandable texts and that pupils would be able to express their opinions (CS2_int2: 32). She also made use of a text with the title '*Μεταλλαγμένα: Τι μπορείς να κάνεις εσύ;*' (Genetically modified products: What can you do?) from the workbook for grammar practice and not for comprehension.

Text title	Text description
1. '*Ρινοκερίτις*' (Living like a rhino)	Part of a literary book about the way that Greek people have become individualists who do not care about anything except for their personal needs
2. '*Πρωταθλητές στα τροχαία ατυχήματα*' (Champions of car accidents)	Adapted from a newspaper article, this describes the problem of car accidents in Greece and the factors causing them
3. '*Η ντροπή των πλαστικών*' (The shame of having plastics)	An unadapted newspaper article discussing the problem of leaving rubbish on the beach and the negative consequences for the environment
4. '*Ας αποβάλουμε το άγχος από τη ζωή μας*' (Let's reduce the stress in our life) '*Σέβομαι τους κανόνες οδικής κυκλοφορίας*' (I respect the traffic rules)	A revised text from a website, describes signs of stress, explains what it is and suggests ways of reducing it. A poster from a website presents ten traffic rules
Workbook text: '*Μεταλλαγμένα: Τι μπορείς να κάνεις εσύ;*' (Genetically modified products: What can you do?)	A revised text from a website about the rise of genetically modified products in our nutrition and how to cope with this problem

Table 7.2: Texts from Unit 7 in the textbook used by Elena during the four lessons

She focused on the three language points proposed in the unit, i.e., adverbials, the derivation of adverbs and the use of linking works. She used some of the unit activities, which aim at getting pupils to practise language points (e.g. identifying language points in given sentences, transforming one part of speech to another), and she covered the grammar rules given in the textbook.

In Elena' classroom, all the pupils' chairs were facing forward and their desks, which were not moved during the lessons, were in rows. They could sit either in twos or by themselves at a desk and most of the GAL pupils were sitting either with other GAL pupils or alone, with only one sitting with a GMT pupil. Pupils

were facing the teacher's desk and the whiteboard. The teacher's desk was in front of the pupils' desks, on a raised platform and beside the whiteboard. The classroom atmosphere was formal. There were clear boundaries as the teacher always controlled the classroom discussions and did not allow pupils to speak without giving them permission. Pupils did not make any noise, and when there was low-level noise, the teacher called for silence.

Picture 7.1: Elena's classroom layout

7.4. Teaching the subject Greek in a mainstream classroom

7.4.1. Instructional strategies for focusing on carrier content

In her first lesson, Elena engaged all the pupils in reading comprehension and speaking activities in which she focused exclusively on carrier content without referring to language points. During these activities, she followed the same format and adopted the same teaching strategies for each text. She initially asked the pupils to listen to academic texts carefully, which a nominated pupil or the teacher herself read aloud. The majority of pupils were listening to the texts and at the same time looked at them in their textbook. She then rephrased the texts using interactive informal language, engaged them in question-answer sequences and sometimes asked them to describe their personal experience in relation to the discussed topic. In these whole-class activities, the pupils were expected to reply to teacher's questions and describe their experience if they were asked by the teacher.

Extract 7, which occurred near the beginning of lesson 1, is taken from a reading comprehension activity and lasting two approximately minutes, shows how Elena engaged the whole class in question-answer sequences. Initially, the teacher instructed them to listen to the text entitled '*Ρινοκερίτις*' [Living like a rhino] (see Appendix 14A), which she read out loud, carefully, without informing them in advance about the reading comprehension activity that would follow. After having read it, she started asking the comprehension questions provided in the textbook, and she expected the whole class to participate in this activity without giving them time to think about the answers. During the whole time, the pupils and the teacher had their textbooks open in front of them at the right page. In the extract below, after a wrong answer from a GAL pupil about the main idea of the text, the teacher sought the opinion of other pupils regarding what it was.

Extract 7

01	T:	what do the rest of you understand?
02	Ps:	*((no one raises their hand))*
03	T:	what does becoming a rhino mean/ according to the text?
04	Ps:	*((no one raises their hand))*
05	T:	*((she reads the first comprehension question of the text aloud))* which problems of Greek society does the narrator consider/ transform people into rhinos?
06		*((she reads the second part of the first comprehension question of the text aloud))* who does spread the disease of becoming a rhino/ and in which ways?
07		(…) *((she rephrases the texts in order for pupils to find the answer to her question))*
08	Ps:	*((four pupils raise their hands))*
09	T:	(…) *((she nominates a pupil to respond))*
10	P:	maybe is it (…)?
11	T:	no//
12		(…) *((she answers the question))*

Elena prompted the pupils to find the main idea by directing to the whole class a plain sense reading comprehension question (see Grant, 1987 and also chapter 6) given in the textbook. They were expected to look at the text and to use textual evidence to answer her question. As can be seen, it was only in line 08 in which she rephrased the part of the text so that pupils could find the answer, four pupils (3 GMT pupils and 1 GAL pupil) raised their hands to reply to her

question, while previously no one was able to give an answer. In the second interview, when I described her strategy to her, she commented only on the reasons of simplifying the questions of the textbook arguing that she followed this strategy because of pupils' difficulty in understanding the academic language of textbook questions (CS2_int2: 38). However, taking into account the curriculum guidelines, which she stated that she followed (see section 7.1), and the content of these questions could be assumed that she employed this strategy to check pupils' comprehension. She also stressed that she chose these texts to ensure pupils' development of ideas for their essays (see subsection 7.2.3).

After the reading comprehension activities, she sometimes asked for the pupils' personal experience regarding the topics discussed in texts. For example, in lesson 1, after asking plain sense reading questions about the meaning of the text '*Πρωταθλητές στα τροχαία ατυχήματα*' [Champions of car accidents], she encouraged the pupils to describe their personal experience of car accidents. When compared to the participation of the GAL pupils in the reading comprehension activities, in this speaking activity, more GAL pupils were willing to express their personal experience. The teacher did not comment on what the pupils said, but instead, when one pupil had finished describing their own personal experience, she simply moved on to the next. According to her, this would make the GAL pupils feel more confident to speak in class, because they would have the opportunity to talk about non-academic information using interactive informal language and because they liked to talk about their personal experience (CS2_int2: 34). Generally, she explained that the main purpose of meaning-focused activities was to get the pupils to develop reading comprehension skills, to understand how to produce written texts using the main ideas expressed in texts as well as to give them opportunities to participate in discussions regarding different topics (CS2_int2: 32, 34, 38, 112).

7.4.2. Instructional strategies for language point teaching

Elena mainly organised grammar presentation and practice activities and adopted three teaching strategies, i.e. presenting language points through

analysing examples syntactically, engaging pupils in grammar practice, and presenting grammar rules. She connected this practice with her belief about the benefits for GAL pupils in gaining explicit of knowledge of language points (see subsection 7.2.2).

Presenting language points through analysing the structure of sentences was the only teaching strategy that she employed to explain language points to the whole class. An example of this strategy is presented in extract 8, which is from lesson 2, being taken from a grammar presentation activity and lasted around three minutes. This episode happened around the middle of the lesson and after a controlled grammar practice activity, in which the pupils were expected to identify as well as classify the adverbials in four sentences taken from the unit texts and given in the first exercise of the section *Ακούω και μιλώ* [Listen and speak]. Here, the teacher introduced a new aspect of adverbials, their forms.

Extract 8

01	T:	however/ children/ in a sentence/ we could also have words that (.) <u>even</u> if they are not adverbs/ they have adverbial meaning//
02		for example/ *((she stands up))*
03		I am writing a version of the previous example here// *((she erases the word 'later' from the first example written on the board and writes 'the evening'))*
04		*((she reads aloud from the board))* the teacher came back/
05		write it down// *((some pupils start writing it in their notebooks))*
06		*((she reads aloud from the board))* in the evening//
07		write it down// *((the pupils write it in their notebook))*
08	P1:	(…)
09	T:	yes//
10		came back/ as we said/ is the verb// *((in the whiteboard the word 'came back' already has a note showing that is a verb))*
11		who did come back?
12		the teacher//
13		when did he come back?
14		the evening//
15		what part of speech is 'the evening'/ children?
16	Ps:	*((no one raises his/her hand))*
17	T:	is it an adverb?
18	Ps:	*((no one raise his/ her hand))*
19	George	no// *((without raising his hand))*

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20	T:	no//
21		it is a (.) *((none raises his/ her hand))*
22	George	adverb//
23	T:	noun//

After informing the whole class about the aim of this activity, she analysed a simple sentence syntactically to make clear to the whole class that not only adverbs, but also other parts of speech can be adverbials. To do this, she directed display questions (see Chapter 4) to the whole class aiming at getting them to identify the grammatical terms in the sentences. She was of the opinion that they were not able to identify them without her assistance and to find the correct answer to her questions (CS2_int2: 62). Replying to my query of why she used examples to present new language points, she argued:

> *According to the structure of the textbook and the guidelines of the national curriculum, we have to present textbook examples and the children themselves have to discover the rule through these examples. We always see the rule at the end, as a conclusion. The children have to find the rule through certain steps. Sometimes, when I know that children will have difficulty in understanding a language point, I write some simple examples on the board to help them understand it. We will then go through the examples of the textbook that usually are more complex and demanding and through this process discover the rule in this lesson (CS2_int2: 46).*

Elena preferred to present language points inductively giving pupils the opportunity to find out grammar rules through examples, rather than presenting them deductively. She believed that this strategy would aid the learners towards understanding the new language points better and using them accurately (CS2_int2: 78) as well as answering grammar exercises in school exams (CS2_int2: 60). She mainly chose it because it is proposed in the national curriculum (see section 7.1). However, as can be seen, almost all the pupils were struggling to reply to her questions as no one raised their hands and the only response, as shown in line 19, was from a GAL pupil who gave the wrong answer.

Engaging pupils in practice activities, in which the whole class was encouraged to identify language points, was the strategy that Elena employed most often as she intended to get them to practise orally language points that she had

previously presented. The following extract, which is from lesson 3 and lasted approximately one minute, illustrates how Elena set up a grammar practice activity. It occurred near the middle of the lesson after she had explained how adverbs can be derived from different parts of speech. Elena instructed the whole class to open their workbook at the text '*Μεταλλαγμένα: Τι μπορείς να κάνεις εσύ*;' [Genetically modified products: What can you do?] (see Appendix 14B).

She gave instructions to them all to identify and underline adjectives that could be transformed into adverbs while she read the text aloud. She told them not to pay attention to the meaning of the text but to just find adjectives from which such adverbs could be derived. During this activity, the majority of pupils were working individually, looking at the text and trying to underline the adjectives. After this, the teacher asked the whole class to present the adjectives that they had underlined and to transform them into adverbs following the grammar rule that she previously taught. However, she did not give them any time to make this transformation as she expected them to be able to do so immediately. In the following extract, she challenged the whole class to tell her of another adjective (some of the pupils had already presented two other adjectives).

Extract 9

01	T:	*((to the whole class))* tell me another one//
02		George?
03	George:	[e] in the penultimate line/ *((he reads from the workbook))* basic part//
04	T:	great//
05		in the penultimate line/ *((she looks at the workbook))* it has a basic part//
06		so/ from the adjective "basic"/ which adverb can we produce/ George?
07	George:	basically//
08	T:	basically//

The practice activities in Elena's work shared certain characteristics that are illustrated in this extract. First, these activities occurred after the presentation and explanation of a language point. Second, the practice was oral, not written, and the pupils were expected to respond immediately. Third, the teacher led the

whole process as she chose the examples and asked display questions to lead pupils to identify language points. Fourth, most times the pupils only had to recognise the language point in the given examples. Fifth, the examples were directly taken from the textbook or workbook, being complex and compound sentences from the unit texts. When I enquired of Elena why she applied a range of practice activities in her lessons, she explained that these activities would assist them in consolidating the language points that she had previously presented and as a consequence, be able to use them in their speech (CS2_int2: 84).

Presenting grammar rules was a teaching strategy that Elena always used after the above mentioned strategies. Extract 10, which is from lesson 4 and lasted approximately three minutes, is characteristic of how she introduced grammar rules as given in the textbook. It happened near the end of the lesson, after a grammar practice activity where the pupils had to detect the linking words of the first text in Unit 7. The grammar rule presented here is for linking words, and the teacher asked a pupil to read it aloud as presented in the section *'Μαθαίνω ότι'* [I learn that] in the textbook (see Appendix 14C).

Extract 10

01	T:	let's go now to 'I learn that'// *((pupils turn to the particular page))*
02		we will underline all of these//
03		Satin will read it slowly/ loud/ and clear// *((Satin had not raised her hand))*
04	Satin	*((she reads aloud from the textbook))* text/ paragraphs/ and sentences are connected/
05		alpha/
06		with linking words/ that indicate contrast// for example, but
07		{that indicate} reason/ for example/ why and so on//
08		beta/
09		with connecting phrases such as/ the major factors/ one of the most important reasons/ and so on//
10		gamma/
11		with indirect reference in the previous paragraph or sentence/ which can occur with/
12		repetition of the last idea of the paragraph or sentence/
13		repetition of the main idea of the previous paragraph/ or sentence/
14		repetition of a word/ or phrase of the previous paragraph/ or

		sentence//
15		delta/
16		with a question//
17	T:	OK//

After the pupil's reading of the rule, Elena did not comment on it. She only told the pupils which information to underline, and as she mentioned in the previous lessons and during the second interview (CS2_int2: 88), they had to memorise them for the next lesson. When I described this strategy, she stressed that it is important for pupils to listen to the grammar rule as a conclusion to the grammar presentation process and that this would also facilitate their completion of different grammar exercises (CS2_int2: 88).

Elena also explained to the whole class the meaning of different words by giving their definitions. She mentioned that GAL pupils do not know academic words and so sometimes she did not wait for them to query unknown ones, but preferring to offer the meaning of those she considered they would not comprehend (CS2_int2: 104). According to her, this would help them comprehend the meaning of texts because, as she told me, '*if they [children] do not understand five to six words from a text, they might not get [the meaning of] the whole text*' (CS2_int2: 104). She also argued that vocabulary teaching could result in GAL pupils both enriching their vocabulary and incorporating new academic words in their writing (CS2_int2: 124).

7.4.3. Use of linguistic and contextual cues for language comprehension

Elena used a few strategies to facilitate all the pupils' text and classroom language comprehension. In reading comprehension activities, as can be seen in extract 7, pupils were mainly expected to interpret the meaning of texts by relying on linguistic cues to answer teacher's plain sense reading questions. Most of the time, the GAL pupils struggled to comprehend the text in this way as witnessed by the fact that they did not participate in question-answer sequences. Elena sometimes paraphrased or simplified the language of the text and the textbook comprehension questions to support text comprehension. According to her, this would enhance the pupils' comprehension and help them

to answer to her questions (CS2_int2: 38). However, only a few GAL pupils raised their hands when she adopted this strategy, mainly those who had been in Greece for many years (e.g. extract 7).

During grammar activities, Elena wrote some simple examples on the whiteboard to expound language points to the pupils because she expressed the view that pupils were not capable of grasping the structure of complex or compound sentences (CS2_int2: 46). Nevertheless, it can be seen in extract 8 that GAL pupils were still struggling in participating in such activity. She also read grammar rules aloud, and she pointed out that sometimes she explained these rules using interactive informal language so as to assist pupils in comprehending the grammar rules better (CS2_int2: 88). In other words, she shared that she rephrased these rules by simplifying the academic language, but this was something that I did not observe in any of her four lessons. Seen in this light, she either expected them to comprehend lesson content by relying only on linguistic cues or attempted to simplify it.

7.4.4. Use of linguistic and contextual cues for language use and participation

As mentioned in the above extracts, Elena mainly organised whole-class activities and the main form of interaction that was noticed was the IRE pattern, which she implemented in both reading comprehension and grammar activities. An example of this pattern is presented in extract 11, which occurred towards the middle of lesson 3 and is part of the grammar practice activity described in extract 9. In this extract, the teacher instructed the whole class to present adjectives from which adverbs could be derived and to transform them into adverbs.

Extract 11

01	T:	*((to the whole class))* find another adjective//
02		Anita//
03	Anita	main//
04	T:	good//
05		in the second line/ main/ main sources//

06		which adverb can we have from this/ Anita?
07	Anita	mainly//
08	T:	mainly//

In the above extract, the teacher nominated a GAL pupil to present an adjective (line 02). Anita gave a one-word answer (line 03), which the teacher evaluated by giving positive feedback (line 04) and re-telling the pupil's answer (line 05). She continued by encouraging Anita to transform the adjective into an adverb (line 06) indicating that the pupil needed to use the derivation rules that she had previously presented. The teacher again evaluated Anita's response by repeating it (line 08). After this extract, Elena asked all the pupils to make a sentence using the derived adverbs and to provide other adjectives.

In extract 7 and extract 8, Elena also used the IRE pattern. In the former, where she aimed to check pupils' text comprehension, she asked the whole class a plain sense reading comprehension question and then nominated a GMT pupil to answer. This was followed by evaluation of the pupil's answer by providing negative feedback with the correct answer. In extract 8, where she aimed to present a language point, she also asked the whole class display questions and evaluated the response of the pupil who answered by giving feedback and the correct answer. She explained that she always gave her own questions, as she wanted the pupils to note the correct answers from her point of view (CS2_int2: 28). In these sequences, the pupils gave answers that were mainly one-word or one-sentence while few GAL pupils were participating in the classroom interaction, and those who did were mainly those who had been in Greece for many years. In sum, Elena used the IRE pattern to check pupils' comprehension and knowledge, present language points and to help them to apply grammar rules in practice.

Elena also paraphrased her initial questions and pupils' answers to her questions as well as expanding upon pupils' answers by adding semantic information to explain further the meaning of pupils' utterances. At the beginning of lesson 2, while she was checking the homework, she asked the whole class to compare the four social problems that four pupils had referred to in their essay.

Extract 12

01	T:	what is the difference between the problems?
02		the problem to which Georgy and Anton referred/ and the problem to which Anna and Aneta referred//
03	Ps:	*((no answer))*
04	T:	both contemporary problems/ without doubt//
05		however/ they have one difference/
06		which one?
07		Ervin?
08	Ervin:	probably that smoking is a habit//
09	T:	yes// beside that?
10		Georgy?
11	Georgy:	that we are causing alcoholism/ and smoking//
12	T:	and we hurt ourselves/ don't we?
13		I do something that hurts only myself//
14		on the other hand/ Georgy/ the problem to which you referred?
15		the delinquent behaviour?
16	Georgy	again/ (…) we do it//
17	T:	it has an impact on the society/ and we provoke it//
18		Uta?
19	Uta:	maybe/ it's that smoking and alcohol can lead to a delinquent behaviour?
20	T:	nice// this is a very nice thought that Uta expressed//
21		probably not smoking/ but alcohol can lead to a delinquent behaviour//

In line 01, the teacher directed an open-ended question about the difference between social problems to which some pupils had referred. In lines 02-05, she paraphrased her question to encourage them to respond. In line 11, a GAL pupil attempted to explain the difference between alcoholism and smoking in relation to delinquent behaviour. In the following lines, 12-13, Elena appeared to expand the explanation of the pupil by giving extra information. She adopted the same strategy in the following lines (lines 14-19) while concluding the interaction by giving feedback to the pupil's answer (lines 20-21). In this extract, only three pupils' participated in the interaction with the rest remaining silent showing that few pupils felt able to participate.

7.5. GAL teaching and Elena

In our interviews, Elena argued that even though she has not had any training regarding GAL teaching, she has adopted teaching practices that can support GAL pupils' learning in mainstream classrooms. Table 7.3 presents the main pedagogic principles that underlie the teaching strategies of Elena in the lessons that I observed. Following this, I review the extent to which Elena's principles and practices fit with the general principles of additional language teaching.

Pedagogic principles	Observed teaching strategies
1. An exclusive focus on meaning can contribute to language accuracy, to the production of comprehensible output, and to the development of reading comprehension skills	Question-answer sequences, reading (see subsection 7.4.1)
2. Providing extended opportunities to use spoken language actively in less stressful contexts can promote GAL pupils' development of speaking skills	Rarely asking about pupils' personal experience on the topics discussed in texts (see subsection 7.4.1)
3. The use of paraphrasing and simplification can lead to comprehension	Rephrasing texts by using interactive-informal language, use of simple sentences to present and to explain language points. (see subsection 7.4.3)
4. The explicit teaching of language points can assist GAL pupils not only to understand language points, but also to produce written and spoken language accurately	Inductive language presentation (see subsection 7.4.2)
5. The curriculum and textbook are appropriate for all pupils	Adopting the textbook and curriculum aims, using most of the activities proposed in it (see section 7.3)

| 6. The evaluation of the meaning of pupils' responses can lead them to obtain the correct answer, which they will need for their exams and for other exercises | Extensive use of IRE (see subsection 7.4.4) |

Table 7.3: Elena's key pedagogic principles and observed teaching strategies

Integrating language and content objectives

In her lessons, Elena intended to support pupils' development of subject content knowledge by using subject-based teaching materials and activities. Even though she did not integrate GAL aims into her lesson plans, she did argue that the simplification of classroom activities and the content of materials, practice noticed in her lessons observed, would encourage GAL pupils to participate in classroom activities and would enable them to meet the lesson aims. So, she seemed to be closer to the content-end of Davison and Williams' framework (2001, see also section 4.1). This practice would appear to be influenced by her belief regarding the appropriateness of the national curriculum for both GMT and GAL pupils (see subsection 7.2.4), but also her recognition that she needs to adopt some practices to facilitate their learning (see subsection 7.2.3).

Communicative competence in both everyday and academic language

Like Anna, she mainly promoted the development of the grammatical and lexical components of academic formal language. She never introduced the teaching of the sociolinguistic components of this type of language, thus indicating that she assumed that learning how to use language in different contexts is not salient for language use. Despite the fact that she exposed pupils to a range of texts and expected them to produce texts for the purpose of the lessons, she never taught explicitly the characteristics of the texts and never referred to the types of texts. This shows that she seemed not to believe that this is important for all pupils to produce written language. This also indicates that she mainly encouraged the development of grammatical accuracy rather than communicative competence (see section 4.3). Despite the fact that she included a few language points of interactive informal language, she did not specify the

contexts that they can be used in and did not refer to any elements of interactive informal language. This can be linked with her belief regarding GAL pupils' language proficiency (see subsection 7.2.1).

Form-focused language teaching

In three out of four lessons Elena placed exclusive emphasis on language-focused activities. It can be seen that she taught language points explicitly and involved the pupils in controlled practice activities (see subsection 7.4.2). She did not present these points during meaning-focused activities in which the pupils could have comprehended how to use them in their spoken or written language (see section 4.3), but rather, presented them out of context. She also gave the meaning of words that she considered that pupils might not know in order to facilitate their comprehension. So, Elena appears to adopt a traditional focus-on-forms instruction seemingly having the belief that this practice could enable all pupils to develop language accuracy.

Focus on carrier content meaning

She appears not to place much emphasis on carrier content meaning because only in lesson 1, did she engage the pupils in meaning-focused activities. During these, pupils were expected to comprehend the meaning of 'authentic' texts taken from newspapers and magazines and reply to the teacher's questions regarding text topics. However, the pupils were not free to choose the language to communicate meaning with their classmates or to use real-world language. This practice is consistent with her belief in focusing on carrier content meaning for the development of language skills (see subsections 7.2.2 and 7.4.1) rather than communicative skills.

Promoting comprehension of classroom language and content materials

It is apparent that she exposed the pupils to extensive spoken and written language that largely had the characteristics of academic formal language and rarely used interactive informal language. Despite such exposure, she mainly expected pupils to rely on linguistic cues to comprehend input and put comprehension questions to the pupils in order to facilitate their understanding (see subsection 7.4.3). She seldom attempted to simplify or paraphrase her

speech to enable learners to comprehend spoken or written language. This shows that she did not consider contextual support or speech modifications critical to the promotion of input comprehension.

Creating opportunities for extended language production

Elena provided the pupils with few opportunities to use language actively during whole-class activities. She took up 80 per cent of class talking time to introduce and explain language points as well as the meaning of texts, thus leaving insufficient time for them to produce extensive spoken language. She encouraged the pupils to produce spoken language by asking 'display requests', which led to predictable, restricted and minimal answers (see subsection 7.4.4). Even though she considered that extended language production could facilitate the development of their speaking skills, only twice did she ask 'information requests', through which the pupils produced extensive and unpredictable language (see subsections 7.4.1 and 7.4.4). She also did not get pupils to produce extended written language; only asking them to complete a few grammar fill-the-gap exercises.

Promoting participation in classroom interactions

It can be seen that whole-class participation was the main participation structure of her lessons. She always initiated classroom interaction by asking questions regarding language points or the meaning of texts and nominated those pupils who raised their hands to give their answer. From my observation, it seems that the majority of the GAL pupils rarely raised their hands to answer the teacher's questions and since she only requested answers from those who did, few of GAL pupils participated in classroom interactions. She also terminated these interactions by evaluating pupils' answers, appearing to believe that this would help them identify the correct ones (see subsection 7.4.4). She also did not involve them in group-work activities and thus, she did not give them the chance to participate in real-life interactions. According to her, lack of time and the inappropriate behaviour of pupils have led her not to organise this participation structure for her lessons (see section 7.1). These practices indicate that Elena gave her pupils few opportunities to participate in classroom talk. As

mentioned in section 7.3, the classroom layout was traditional, and so it seemed not to encourage pupil participation in classroom interactions.

From this perspective, it is apparent that Elena rarely incorporates the general principles of additional language teaching presented in section 4.6 into her teaching practices. She seems to teach the subject Greek without incorporating a GAL dimension, but instead, has opted to adopt a few teaching strategies that she considers helpful for GAL pupils' subject content learning.

Chapter 8

Case Study: Maria

8.1. Background information and influences on Maria

Maria (pseudonym) is a Greek native speaker, being an experienced GLT in her 18th year of teaching and her first year at the present school at the time of the data collection. She was excited about teaching the subject Greek and transmitting her knowledge to pupils, but was disappointed with her GAL pupils' performance as to her they appeared not to be interested in learning (CS3_int1: 32, int2: 8). She had not had training related to GAL teaching. Her first degree was in history, and it did not include pedagogic training (CS3_int1: 10, int2: 33-34). She was aware that her initial education had not provided the subject matter knowledge needed to teach in secondary education (CS3_int3: 22). For this reason, she had attended seminars on child psychology and linguistics as well as read books to develop the subject matter knowledge required to cope with the teaching demands in secondary classrooms (CS3_int1: 14, int3:22). In contrast to Elena, she had attended two seminars on GAL teaching as she wanted to become familiar with this issue. However, she characterised these seminars as unhelpful, of which one was on how GAL pupils use the language and the other was on the textbooks prepared for intercultural primary schools. She believed that they had not met the needs of secondary school teachers (CS3_int1: 16, 18, int3: 25, 26). She also had not been involved in the European-funded project organised in her school (see subsection 5.3.1).

Her first teaching experience in a mainstream classroom with both GAL pupils and GMT learners had been two years previously. As she mentioned, the high amount of GAL pupils in her classes had made her modify her teaching (CS3_int2: 36). She argued that she had become interested in trying different kinds of teaching strategies, such as role-play and group activities, to approach the subject Greek in such classrooms. For her, these strategies could help GAL pupils both engage in classroom activities and develop their language skills

(CS3_int2: 24, CS3_int3: 46). She accepted that initially she had taken for granted that the pupils would understand a variety of topics which they turned out not to (CS3_int3: 46). She also was putting on extra support classes outside the regular classes to assist her GAL pupils to catch up with the language points that they should have absorbed in previous school years and to consolidate new language points (CS3_int2: 8, 10).

In all the interviews, she insisted that she took into account the pupils' language level and learning deficiencies when organising classroom activities and designing exercises (CS3_int1: 30, int3: 60). For example, she explained to me when I asked her the reason for using multiple-choice exercises that she did it for the GAL pupils' convenience (CS3_int2: 54). In our discussion about the reasons why she changed her teaching strategies, she also made clear that she used different strategies because:

> *(…) so in order to have their attention, you have to try constantly not to make them get bored. You must not use one method for many times, because they find it boring, even though it is innovative. Of course, I believe that this is happening because they are teenagers. So I experiment with different teaching methods, that is, I adopt direct teaching, I use audiovisual means, I use dialogue, I adopt group work, games, everything* (CS3_int3: 48).

Maria based her teaching decisions on the pupils' reactions about teaching strategies as she wanted to keep them alert, interested and involved. She added that she took into account what interested them when planning classroom activities, like role-plays (CS3_int2: 24). She also claimed that not only the pupils' needs but also their learning abilities influenced her teaching decisions (CS3_int3: 50, 52). From this evidence, it would appear that contextual factors affected her on-going teaching decisions and strategies.

In our first and third interview, she mentioned that the teaching strategies of her old schoolteachers played a crucial role in the development of her own teaching strategies. In our discussion about her choice of becoming a GLT, she told me that:

Our discussions {with her schoolteachers} were about the subject matter and about everything. We discussed social issues, and this helped us to think about different issues and somehow to philosophise. I liked it very much; I liked very much the interaction, the discussion. I would like to discuss with pupils mainly with teenagers (CS3_int3: 8).

Maria intended to use the same teaching strategies as her schoolteachers because these were effective for her when she was a pupil. She also argued that her interest in history, which she developed during her initial teacher education, made her always connect topics with that subject (CS3_int3: 94), something that was noticeable in her lessons. So, according to Maria, her prior learning experiences had an important impact on how she designed and delivered her lessons.

In our second interview, she replied to my question about her decision to use role-plays in the following way:

Yes, how did I end up using these strategies? If I tell you that these strategies have come to me naturally, meaning that I think that teaching requires imagination, just like cooking. You have the ingredients, and you experiment with them, haven't you? (CS3_int2: 32).

She believed that her own preferences, interests and personality supported her teaching decisions. This perspective also became apparent when I questioned her about how she would teach the subject Greek in an ideal world, she replied that she would not change her teaching because it was based on her personality (CS3_int2: 86).

In the second interview, when I asked her how often she used role-plays, she mentioned another factor that assisted in her choice of lesson content and teaching activities. She informed me that she took the textbook exercises as a starting point to organise such activities (CS3_int2: 30) and used the themes in them to provide extra information to pupils (CS3_int2: 74), an observed practice in her lessons. By way of illustration, she did not just draw on the textbook activities, but also gave the pupils extra materials about Greek artists and art movements to stimulate their interest further (see section 8.3).

Overall, Maria was an experienced GLT who had had neither training in GAL teaching nor extended teaching experience in mainstream classrooms. She was mainly interested in getting GAL pupils to develop subject knowledge and to this end she was providing language support classes. She also felt that her teaching decisions were based on her own learning experiences and personality, pupils' needs as well as on the prescribed teaching materials.

8.2. Teachers' espoused beliefs about GAL teaching: Maria

8.2.1. Maria's understandings of language

Maria expressed similar understandings of language to Anna and Elena. This could be evidence that educational policy and teacher education tend to have an impact on their beliefs. When I queried what problems GAL pupils have in her opinion, she responded that they struggled to express their thinking and produce language owing to their ignorance of grammar rules (CS3_int2: 58). This belief shows that she had a structural view of language, whereby she considered it as system of related elements which pupils need to master separately in order to both code and produce meaning.

In our second interview, when she was commenting on quality of GAL pupils' writings, she showed her awareness of the difference between two kinds of language skills:

> *Their speech is simple and communicative. They write as they speak. They do not understand that written language is different from how they speak every day* (CS3_int2: 56).

Maria emphasised that even though GAL pupils had developed interactive informal skills, they had not acquired academic formal language skills, which she considered essential if they were to be able to cope with curriculum demands (CS3_int3: 74). She also mentioned that GAL pupils sometimes had difficulty in understanding her speech (CS3_int1: 32). So, she was aware of the

distinction between interactive informal and academic formal language skills, which, for her, include the writing of academic texts.

8.2.2. Maria's understandings of language learning

As mentioned above, Maria contended that language learning occurs when pupils gain explicit knowledge of language points. This belief can be identified in her following claim which she shared when I encouraged her to explain what she meant by the phrase, '*I help GAL pupils to consolidate important information*' (CS3_int2: 50).

> *The fact that they are able to find the verb of a clause and understand that the verb shows an action. As I told you, they did not know the parts of speech. Even the high-performance pupils have been telling me that the infinitive was a verb, they have been telling me that the past participle was a verb. They did not even recognise verb forms. At least now they understood that the verb shows an action, and they can easily write their own sentences* (CS3_int2: 52).

She declared that the learning of grammar rules would enable GAL pupils to produce written language and express themselves without grammar or spelling errors. It would seem that this belief can explain her decision of conducting language supply lessons for these pupils outside of the mainstream class (see section 8.1). In addition, in her first lesson, she concentrated exclusively on the revision of the grammar rules underlying subordinate clauses (see subsection 8.4.2).

When she listed the language problems of GAL pupils, she claimed that they were not capable of producing language as they were not exposed to Greek at home because of their parents' linguistic deficiency (CS3_int1: 28). She added that when such pupils are exposed to spoken language, they can pick up vocabulary and grammar rules. For instance, she thought that when they have listened to a word many times, they can remember it (CS3_int3: 80). She also asserted that when GAL pupils read their own writings aloud, they can detect their grammar errors and learn from them (CS3_int2: 58). In light of this, it would be apparent that Maria believed that GAL pupils would develop

academic language skills and produce language by being exposed to spoken or written language produced by native speakers. This practice was observed in her lessons (see subsection 8.4.1).

In the third interview, when she was discussing how the curriculum should change in order for GLTs to make it easier for GAL pupils to learn the language, she put forward another view of how language learning can be achieved.

> *For example, now, the subject Greek lasts two teaching hours. However, it would be more effective if it lasted four hours and it would have both a theoretical part and a practical part. In this way, pupils would have more time to try to cover the gaps by engaging in different activities* (CS3_int3: 32).

She considered that the participation in practice activities, during which pupils would apply the theoretical knowledge that they had been taught, would enhance pupils' consolidation of this knowledge. When I requested that she specified what kind of activities she would have organised, she suggested setting writing and vocabulary activities. For instance, she stressed that one of her aims was to engage GAL pupils in the production of academic texts so that they can reach the same standards as native speakers (CS3_int2: 56). She also pointed out that she gave extra grammar practice exercises to GAL pupils to support their language learning both inside the mainstream classroom (CS3_int2: 8, CS3_int3: 32) and in her support class (CS3_int2: 58).

8.2.3. Maria's understandings of language teaching

Maria stated that her teaching approaches had not changed because of the attendance of GAL pupils in her lessons (CS3_int3: 46). She retained teacher-led and elicitation approaches considering that these are appropriate for transmitting new information to all pupils (CS3_int3: 46). At the same time, in all the interviews, she stated that she experimented by using different teaching strategies to make her lessons more interesting for the pupils and to facilitate their understanding of the subject content (see section 8.1), although these

strategies were rarely observed in her lessons. She also emphasised that she spent more time explaining different topics and repeated several times the same information because of the difficulties GAL pupils had with immediately understanding a topic (CS3_int3: 46). Maria, then, considered that GAL teaching is a matter of using a range of teaching strategies that will support GAL pupils' involvement in classroom activities and comprehension of the subject Greek.

Recognising the language difficulties of GAL pupils in mainstream classrooms, Maria believed that the establishment of language support classes outside regular class would make it easier for them to overcome their language difficulties. When I enquired of her how teachers could support GAL pupils in mainstream classrooms, she argued that the European-funded project is effective for this (CS3_int3: 30) and that GAL pupils should attend reception classes to develop language skills before entering mainstream classrooms (CS3_int2: 60). When I pressed her further regarding how she supported GAL pupils inside the classroom, she argued that she had provided GAL pupils with extra grammar exercises, but she had stopped after a while because pupils' indifference (CS3_int2: 8, int3: 32). She also stated that the curriculum does not suggest teachers how to cope with GAL teaching inside the mainstream classroom (CS3_int3: 32, 34). Maria, then, thought that GAL teaching can be mainly addressed outside the regular classroom, if the curriculum was not modified so as to cater for their needs.

8.2.4. Maria's interpretations of the national curriculum and textbook

When I questioned her about her opinion on the appropriateness of the curriculum for mainstream classrooms, she started by commenting on the positive and negative elements of the textbook. This as well as our informal conversations about the curriculum (field notes, informal discussions, 10/5/12) reveal that she considered the textbook representative of the curriculum, as also expressed in the subject Greek syllabus (see subsection 2.3.2). According to Maria, the textbook proposes effective language production activities (CS3_int2: 74) and includes some units and topics that are interesting for pupils

(CS3_int2: 76, 78). For her, one problem with the textbook is that, in some of its parts, the discourse is very complicated. For example, according to her, the terminology used to describe relative clauses and some academic texts are confusing for all pupils not only GAL ones (CS3_int2: 74, 78, 80, int3: 82, 84). Nevertheless, she thought that GAL pupils were able to understand the content of the textbook, despite its difficulties, as they were already in their third year at the junior secondary school (CS3_int2: 74). The only thing that she would have changed in the textbook was the unit order suggesting that it should have started with topics that are more familiar to the pupils (CS3_int2: 72). So, Maria accepted the textbook aims, content and activities as being appropriate for mainstream classrooms, a belief that could well explain why she used the textbook as the main teaching material in her lessons (see section 8.3).

8.3. Background description of the Year 3 subject Greek class

Maria's class was a secondary Year 3 mainstream class (pupils aged 14-15) where there were 18 pupils in the classroom: 4 GMT learners, 3 repatriated (see Chapter 1, section 1.2) and 11 GAL pupils from Albania (6 pupils), Armenia (2 pupils), Georgia (1 pupil) and Russia (1 pupil). Most of the GAL pupils had come to Greece when they were four years old and had been there for almost 10 years, two had been there for five years, and two had just come in Greece. Based on discussions with Maria (CS3_int2: 56) and my examination of the written work of the GAL pupils, their language proficiency was similar to that of those in Anna and Elena's classes (see sections 6.3 and 7.3).

Here, I present the four subject Greek lessons that I observed in Maria's class at the beginning of April 2012 until early May 2012. Based on the lesson plans that she gave me, the aims of the four lessons are presented in Table 8.1. Overall, Maria endeavoured to engage pupils in discussions about different topics rather than in grammar or reading comprehension activities as the other teachers did. It would appear that she mainly intended to get pupils to enhance carrier content knowledge as well as speaking and comprehension skills. These goals indicate that she partially followed the curriculum aims that do not refer

to the necessity for all pupils to gain carrier content knowledge, but rather, just become aware of ideas that they could exploit in their essays (Katsarou et al., 2006).

Lessons	Aims
Lesson 1	Developing explicit knowledge about subordinate clauses, homonyms and paronyms
Lesson 2	Getting pupils to develop carrier content knowledge about art
Lesson 3	Getting pupils to develop carrier content knowledge about the art of advertisements and about different painters as well as listening comprehension skills
Lesson 4	Getting pupils to develop speaking skills discussing the aesthetics of the environment surrounding the school

Table 8.1: Aims of Maria's four lessons

The unit that Maria used in the four lessons was Unit 7 with the title '*Τέχνη: Μια γλώσσα για όλους, σε όλες τις εποχές της*' [Art: An expression for everyone at all times] (see section 6.3). Maria used some textbook activities and content to organise classroom activities. She used the text for Van Gogh, two activities about graffiti and a language production activity, the aim of which was to get the pupils to discuss the aesthetics of the environment in the school's vicinity. She also distributed extra materials, including a multiple-choice exercise (see subsection 8.4.2); a list of the modern art movements with their key representatives; and a booklet which included photos of Greek artists' paintings with a short biography for each artist.

In these lessons, all pupils' chairs were facing forward, and their desks, which were not moved during the lessons, were in rows. They could sit either in pairs or alone at their desks. Most of the GAL pupils were sitting either with other GAL pupils or alone at a desk. The pupils were facing the teacher's desk and the whiteboard. The teacher's desk was in front of the pupils' desks, on a raised platform next to the whiteboard. Maria did not sit at her desk but rather, would stand in front of the pupils. In the fourth lesson, Maria asked pupils to work in four groups. In contrast to Anna, her groups' composition was not fixed. As she informed me, she divided the classroom based on the clustering of the pupils' desks because of a lack of time and of pupils' behaviour problems (CS3_int3:

132). The groups consisted of only GAL pupils, only GMT pupils or GMT pupils and GAL pupils who had high academic performance, according to Maria.

The classroom was a noisy environment. Even though the teacher set some boundaries, the pupils and especially some GAL ones, spoke to each other about issues not relating to the lesson, for example, football matches, and they used their mobile phones in class. The teacher adopted a stern voice to enforce discipline, but it was not very effective. For this reason, many times, she sent GAL pupils to the head teacher so as to have them put into detention. She also adopted an authoritative voice, presumably because she thought this would make it more likely that the pupils would listen to her.
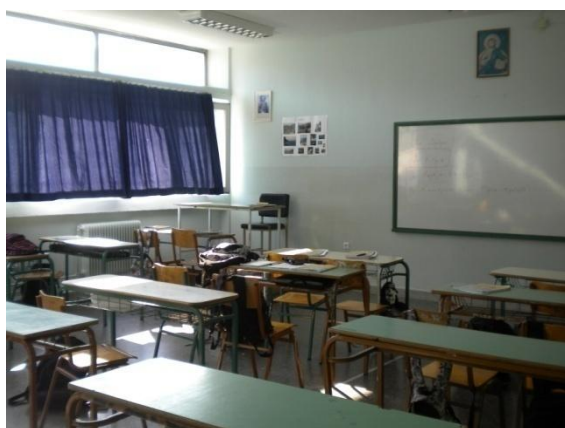
Picture 8.1: Maria's classroom layout

8.4. Teaching the subject Greek in a mainstream classroom

8.4.1. Instructional strategies for focusing on carrier content

In the three out of the four lessons, Maria sought to engage the whole class in discussions around a range of topics without referring to language points so that they would obtain language skills and carrier content knowledge. To achieve this, she employed elicitation strategies or mini-lectures. For example, in lesson 2, she used elicitation strategies in all four speaking activities, while in lesson 3 gave a mini-lecture about impressionism.

Extract 13, which occurred near the beginning of lesson 2 and lasted approximately one minute, is characteristic of her elicitation strategy. The teacher asked the whole class to open their textbook at page 129 and to describe the two pictures that they saw. The pictures represented two people from different eras to paint on walls (see Appendix 15A). Most of the pupils opened their textbook, some of them took a look at the pictures and a few raised their hands to describe them. Here, after a GAL pupil had given a general description of the pictures, the teacher urged the whole class to provide a more accurate one.

Extract 13

01	T:	*((to the whole class))* describe the picture precisely//
02		come on Georges//
03	Georges:	he is a child who -
04	T:	you said/ he is a child//
05		does he remind you someone/ like yourself?
06	Georges:	no//
07		he is a child who (…)//
08	P1:	an artist//
09	T:	Georges says/ that he is in a different situation//
10		good//
11		what does this situation remind you of?
12		maybe another era?
13	Ps:	no//
14	Ps:	yes//
15	T:	therefore/ I go out/ and I do this (…)//
16	Ps	(...)
17	T:	(…)
18	Georges:	it is a monkey//
19	T:	it is a monkey/ Georges says//
20		do you agree?
21	Ps	no//
22	P2:	he is an ancient man//
23	T:	an ancient man//
24		what kind of ancient man?
25	Ps	caveman//
26	P3:	cavemen who lived in caves//
27	T:	who lived in caves//
28		yes/ who lived in caves//
29		who lived in caves?
30	P4:	the ancient Greeks//
31	T:	the ancient Greeks//
32	Anna:	the prehistoric people//
33	T:	the prehistoric people//
34		bravo Anna//

In this extract, Maria involved the whole class in question-answer sequences to make them produce spoken language regarding the first picture. She began the talk by asking the whole class a general question about what the pictures represented, but then she started putting display questions to them. A few pupils, both GAL pupils who have been in Greece for years and GMT, replied to her questions, without waiting for the teacher's permission to speak, by giving short answers while sometimes many pupils in unison answered them. After this extract, she continued putting questions that would result in the pupils describing the pictures. As can be seen, the pupils' responses were limited and only five different pupils took part in this discussion. When I questioned Maria why she used elicitation strategies, she stated that:

> *It is the easiest way to produce speech otherwise, they cannot speak. That is, I try to elicit speech from them like the method that Socrates adopted. I try to get what they are thinking, but they are not able to express it* (CS3_int3: 100).

She took the view that by only adopting these strategies, the pupils would be able to produce spoken language. She also added that these strategies allowed her to lead discussions on topics that she had planned (CS3_int3: 106).

Maria also used elicitation strategies to engage pupils in discussions about different topics relating to what the pictures or videos depict. An example of this strategy is presented in extract 14, which occurred near the beginning of lesson 3 and lasted approximately one minute. Before this activity, the teacher engaged the whole class in question-answer sequences to describe three pictures on page 129, which represent three different steamboats (see Appendix 15B), and she pointed out that these represent advertisements of the 19th century. For this activity, the teacher aimed to engage them in a discussion about the different types and sectors of today's advertisements. They were expected to respond to the teacher's questions, but only a minority of GAL pupils paid attention to this part of the lesson.

Extract 14

01   T: is there something else advertised through an advertisement/ apart

		from the advertised product?
02		is there something else advertised through an advertisement/ apart from the advertised product?
03		since we spoke about marketing/
04		what else?
05	Ps	(…)
06	T:	what else do advertisements represent?
07	Ps	(…)
08	T:	yes//
09		apart from representing a product?
10		is there any other purpose?
11		do they represent something else?
12	P1:	to buy products//
13	T:	don't advertisements also represent a way of life/ children/ based on the era?
14		a model of life?
15		*((no one reply))*

Maria addressed to the whole class display questions to elicit the correct answer to her questions about the real purpose of advertisements. One GAL pupil participated in the talk while many others answered together, but none provided the correct answer. So, the teacher gave the answer to her own question. When I asked her about this episode, she told me that her aim was to get them not only to produce spoken language, but also to gain carrier content knowledge about art and the purpose of advertisements (CS3_int3: 100).

Another occasion when Maria used these strategies was to get pupils to improve their listening comprehension skills. An example of this is given in extract 15, which occurred around the middle of lesson 4 and lasted about one minute. Maria asked two GAL pupils, who had medium-level language proficiency as they had been in Greece for years, to read the biography of Van Gogh aloud, which the teacher had given to them in the last lesson, and instructed the whole class to pay attention to what they were listening to. After the GAL pupils had completed the reading, the teacher encouraged all the class to say what they remembered from the text and more GAL pupils were willing to participate in this activity than for the previously described activities.

Extract 15

01	T:	did you grasp something/ from what the girls had read aloud?
02	P1:	he was shot in his chest//

03	T:	that he was shot in his chest//
04		what else?
05	P2:	he is Dutch..
06	T:	that he is a Dutch painter//
07		he shot himself in the chest//
08		did anything else make an impression?
09	P3:	(…)
10	T:	he was hospitalised in a psychiatric clinic//
11		good//
12	P4:	that he was not famous when he was alive/ but after//
13	T:	exactly//
14		after his death//

After the teacher's question in line 01, four pupils (two GMT and two GAL) replied by producing short phrases or one-sentence answers. The teacher either repeated the pupils' answers or confirmed the correctness of their answers. When I described this activity to her, she stressed that:

I will repeat what I have already told you. I believe that it is very useful for someone to hear something. I believe that they have to hear everything and to remember some words (...). I believe that pupils will learn something if they hear specific things (...) (CS3_int3: 114).

Maria considered that by listening to spoken texts, pupils would not only improve their listening comprehension skills, but also enrich their vocabulary.

In three out of four lessons, Maria used lecturing to transmit information about art, graffiti and advertisements without requesting the pupils' participation in classroom talk. Extract 16, which occurred near the middle of lesson 3 and lasted approximately one minute, is a good illustration of this strategy. After the pupils had listened to a biography of Van Gogh, the teacher started reading the text about the painter from the textbook (see Appendix 15C) aloud to the whole class. When she read the first sentence, which refers to what kind of painter Van Gogh was, she paused and explained what the art movement impressionism refers to as she considered that pupils would not know what this movement was.

Extract 16

01	T:	the impressionists painters/
02		the art movement of impressionism developed in the 19th century/ at the end of the 19th century//

03		the aim of the impressionists was to present forms under the light//
04		how are the forms presented under the light?
05	Ps:	*((none answered))*
06	T:	Van Gogh was influenced by them/ but he developed his own style/ as he used colours that impressionist painters did not use//

Although she attempted to engage pupils in discourse by asking them a question (line 04), they did not respond to her elicitation, and so she continued soliloquising about this movement. Only a few pupils were paying attention to the teacher's lecturing, while the rest were discussing with each other issues unrelated to the lesson content. When Maria completed her mini-lectures, she immediately turned the pupils' attention to another activity. She considered that lecturing would support the pupils in developing carrier content knowledge as well as in adopting a point of view about the different topics (CS3_int3: 102, 108). Overall, Maria used elicitation strategies and lecturing to engage all the pupils in meaning-focused activities so that they can develop listening comprehension skills, speaking skills and carrier content knowledge.

8.4.2. Instructional strategies for language point teaching

In the observed lessons, Maria did not introduce new language points. Only in lesson 1, did she remind pupils of the types of subordinate clauses that were the language points proposed in the curriculum, and that she had taught from the beginning of the school year up until that day. Deductive presentation of language points and engaging pupils in grammar practice activities were the strategies that she employed to get all of them to revise these language points. In lesson 1, before engaging the whole class in a grammar practice activity, she enquired of the pupils whether they remembered what subordinate clauses are, their different types, their uses and their subordinating conjunctions. No one responded to her questions, and so she transmitted all the information about subordinate clauses within 10 minutes without getting any pupil to participate in classroom talk. At the same time, she asked a GAL pupil who, according to Maria, had developed high-level language proficiency, to write this information on the whiteboard while she was lecturing (see figure 7.1). The majority of

GAL pupils paid little attention to the teacher's lecture and no one participated in classroom talk.
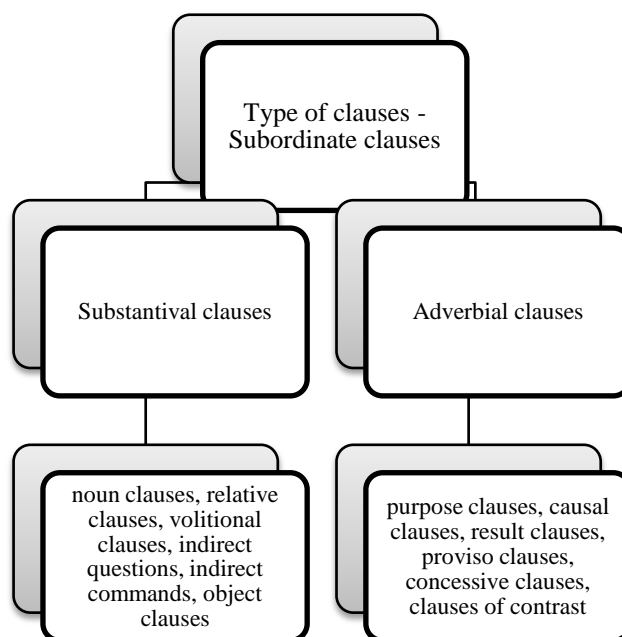
Figure 8.1: Subordinate clauses

After presenting all types of subordinate clauses orally, the teacher passed around a sheet with a multiple-choice exercise, on which pupils, working individually, were expected to identify the types of subordinate clauses (see Appendix 15D). They were then tasked with applying the explicit knowledge about subordinate clauses that they had been taught to complete this exercise. The teacher gave only five minutes to the whole class to complete it and an example of this exercise is the following:

I am afraid that he may not come to the show in the evening
a) noun clause
b) clause that shows willingness
c) clause that shows doubt

The majority of the GAL pupils complained that they were not able to complete it, but the teacher urged them to try harder. After five minutes, Maria started checking the exercise orally and either affirmed pupils' correct answers or gave the correct one herself when they made a mistake without explaining further

why their answers were wrong. As mentioned in section 8.1, she adopted this type of exercise because of the low degree of difficulty in compared to language production activities (CS3_int2: 54). She added that her aim in giving this exercise was to check pupils' consolidation of explicit knowledge about subordinate clauses (CS3_int2: 50). However, as she admitted, she realised that the majority of the pupils had not absorbed these language points (CS3_int2: 50). In all her lessons, she also adopted mini-lectures to explain the meaning of unfamiliar words orally.

8.4.3. Use of linguistic and contextual cues for language comprehension

Besides asking comprehension questions expecting pupils to understand classroom language by relying on linguistic cues (see subsection 8.4.1), Maria applied a few other strategies. In lesson 3, she showed a video in which a range of paintings by Van Gogh were presented and afterwards explained his art style by referring back to the paintings using academic formal language. During this process, she asked the pupils to look at the colours that Van Gogh used in his paintings stressing his uniqueness and his dissimilarity from the art movement of impressionism. This, according to her, would help learners make sense of her monologue about the art style of Van Gogh (CS3_int3: 108).

She attempted to connect new information with pupils' previously taught knowledge so as to enable them to understand new information better (CS3_int3: 126). For instance, in lesson 3, she brought up Picasso by referring to his painting that she discussed in a previous lesson, as a starting point for analysing Van Gogh's work. She also explained different topics orally in mini-lectures, as mentioned above, while the pupils were expected to decode the linguistic cues to comprehend new information (for example, see extract 16). However, few pupils seemed to pay attention to her mini-lectures (see extract 16). She also wrote information on the whiteboard because for her this would help them comprehend new information easily and motivate them to participate in the lesson (CS3_int3: 96). For example, in lesson 2, Maria asked a GAL pupil to write on the whiteboard the etymology of different words with aim of getting the whole class to perceive the meaning of these words.

Maria adopted another strategy so that pupils could grasp the classroom language. This can be observed in extract 17 which happened in the middle of lesson 2 and after a GAL pupil read a text out loud about the evolution of graffiti that the others did not have in front of them, for approximately one minute. However, few pupils paid attention to what the GAL pupil was reading.

Extract 17

01	T:	OK//
02		did you listen/ Andreas?
03	T:	he said that a Greek American -
04	P:	Takis// ((laugh))
05	T:	Takis//
06		what did he do?
07		(…) he wrote a part of his name/ and his address on the wall//
08		in this way/ he became pioneer/ he paved the way for the modern style of graffiti/ this way of expression//

In line 01, the teacher signalled the end of the oral text and enquired of a pupil whether he had listened to the text (line 02). The pupil did not reply to the teacher's elicitation and then the teacher started giving information from the text (line 03). After an interruption by a GMT pupil who gave the name of the Greek American pioneer of graffiti (line 04), and her question about what this person did (line 06), she restated the meaning of the oral text briefly using her own words (lines 07-08). So, Maria paraphrased the text with the aim of illustrating its main idea and as can be seen, the pupils did not react to this paraphrasing, but remaining silent.

8.4.4. Use of linguistic and contextual cues for language use and participation

Only once, in lesson 4, did Maria organise a group-work activity in which pupils were assigned the task of discussing the positives and negatives of the area around the school. However, few GAL pupils, in contrast to GMT ones, took part into this discussion and the majority talked about unrelated topics. She, as with Elena, mainly used the IRE pattern to engage pupils in classroom talk and especially during whole-class comprehension, speaking and grammar practice activities (see extracts 13, 14 and 15). Extract 18 illustrates how she

used this pattern to get pupils to interpret the underlying meaning of three pictures (see subsection 8.4.1 and Appendix 15B). This extract happened before the activity described in extract 14 and lasted for about one minute. Maria asked the whole class to have a look at the pictures and then posed questions about what they represented. The pupils were expected to respond to her questions, but very few pupils chose to participate in this activity. Her aim, as mentioned above, was to get pupils to produce spoken language.

Extract 18

01	T:	they depict printed advertisements//
02		can you tell me/ Mario?
03		Andreas?
04		can you tell me/ what do these three old advertisements depict?
05	Marios:	ships//
06		[e]?
07	Marios:	ships//
08	T:	ships//
09		what {kind of} ships?
10	Kostas:	steamboats//
11	T:	steamboats//

After Maria explained that the pictures were used in advertisements, she addressed a display question to a GAL pupil about what the pictures depicted (line 04). The pupil responded to her question (lines 05, 07) giving a one-word reply. The teacher confirmed his answer by repeating it (line 08) showing that her aim was to evaluate the pupil's answer. She used the same pattern in the following turns, where she also asked a display question and another GMT pupil replied giving a one-word answer without waiting for the teacher to nominate him. The teacher then evaluated his answer by repeating it. After this extract, she continued putting questions to the class about what the pictures signified. It is apparent that although she used pictures to encourage pupils to produce spoken language and to participate in classroom discussions, she still used the IRE pattern asking the whole class display questions and providing positive or negative evaluation, a practice that seemed not to promote GAL pupils' participation in classroom talk.

8.5. GAL teaching and Maria

Maria, like the other teachers, pointed out that she mainly adopted teaching practices that she would not have used in a monolingual classroom to encourage GAL pupils' engagement in classroom activities and to enable them to meet the lesson aims. Table 8.2 presents the key pedagogic principles that underlie the teaching strategies of Maria in the lessons that I observed. Following this, the extent to which her principles and practices match with the general principles of additional language teaching is presented.

Pedagogic principles	Observed teaching strategies
1. The use of visual means will enable GAL pupils to participate in discussions about a range of topics	Use of pictures and videos as a starting point to discussions about graffiti and advertisements (see subsection 8.4.1)
2. Extended exposure to input will facilitate GAL pupils in attaining language skills	Question-answer sequences (see subsection 8.4.1)
3. The use of elicitation strategies will assist GAL pupils to produce spoken output	Extensive use of elicitation strategies (see subsections 8.4.1 and 8.4.4)
4. The explicit teaching of language points and grammar rules will help GAL pupils not only understand language points, but also produce academic language in the same way as mother tongue learners.	Deductive presentation of language points (see subsection 8.4.2)
5. Engaging learners in practice activities will lead to them consolidating language points and developing their language skills	Controlled practice (see subsection87.4.2)
6. The textbook is appropriate for	Extensive use of the textbook (see

both GAL and GMT pupils	section 8.3)
7. Pupils can understand the meaning of spoken and written language by relying on linguistic cues	Extended use of comprehension questions and mini-lectures (see subsection 8.3.3).
8. The evaluation of pupils' answers can results in them learning the correct ideas	IRE sequence of interaction (see subsection 8.4.4)

Table 8.2: Maria's key pedagogic principles and observed teaching strategies

Integrating language and content objectives

Maria's main aim was to promote the development of the subject Greek since she set up subject-content aims, exploited subject-based materials and organised subject-content activities. She only endeavoured to implement generic teaching strategies to engage pupils in classroom activities. So, like the other teachers, she seems to deliver a 'language-conscious content teaching' (Davison & Williams, 2001, see also section 4.1). This practice appears to have been underpinned by her view on the suitability of the national curriculum and the textbook for all the pupils (see subsection 8.2.4) and her opinion of the importance of embracing a range of teaching practices in mainstream classrooms (see subsection 8.2.3).

Communicative competence in both everyday and academic language

Like the other teachers, she focused exclusively on the development of the grammatical and lexical aspects of academic formal language while she never explained how language can be used in different context for different purposes. This practice may be related to her belief that GAL pupils need to learn grammar points to develop accuracy (see subsection 8.2.2) without mentioning the sociolinguistic aspects of language. It is apparent that Maria's practices, like the other teachers, does not fit with the literature stressing the importance of explicit teaching of text types. She did not refer to the characteristics of text types in any of her lessons, even though in our informal discussions she highlighted the inability of GAL pupils to produce accurate written texts. This implies that her lesson aim was not to foster the development of communicative

competence. She also did not incorporate any components of interactive informal language in her lessons. This could have been due to her assumption about GAL pupils' language proficiency and needs (see subsection 8.2.1).

Form-focused language teaching

On the only occasion she did introduce language points, she presented them explicitly and engaging pupils in a controlled practice activity (see subsection 8.4.2). She did not draw pupils' attention to them during meaning-focused activities and presented them out of context. It was also noticed that she gave the meaning of few words to facilitate pupils' comprehension rather than teaching vocabulary systematically. So, she seems to have adopted a traditional focus-on-forms instruction, which she considered appropriate for GAL pupils to attain language accuracy.

Focus on carrier content meaning

She mainly delivered meaning-focused activities in her lessons (see subsection 8.4.1). Despite this, she did not give pupils the chance to communicate meaning in real-life communication, i.e. to exchange opinions and ideas, to make judgments, or draw their attention to language form. Pupils were not free to respond to each other or to use unpredictable language. As she argued, she only sought to get pupils to develop listening comprehension and speaking skills and to become aware of how to use language to produce their own texts. This indicates that her aim was to get pupils to develop language skills rather than communicative efficiency or accuracy.

Promoting comprehension of classroom language and content materials

The spoken language use to which she exposed the pupils was extensive in contrast to written language that was minimal. Her spoken language use had mainly the characteristics of academic formal language, but she did sometimes use interactive informal language to explain the meaning of texts or to rephrase her questions. Despite this exposure, she mostly supposed that pupils could rely on linguistic cues to comprehend classroom language and content materials. On a few occasions she did modify her speech, which involved simplifying or paraphrasing her questions so as to foster comprehension (see subsection 8.4.3).

This suggests that she did not deem contextual support or speech modifications salient for input comprehension.

Creating opportunities for extended language production

Regardless of her efforts to encourage all the pupils to produce extensive spoken language and her belief regarding the necessity of language production activities, the pupils had limited opportunities to do so during whole-class and group-work activities. The teacher took up 80 per cent of class time to explain different topics and so pupils did not have sufficient time to produce spoken language. She solely asked 'display requests' to the whole class, which received predictable, restricted, minimal and simple pupil responses, despite her opinion that elicitation strategies have a positive effect (see subsection 8.4.1). She also did not organise written activities apart from a grammar multiple-choice exercise organised in lesson 1 (see subsection 8.4.2). During the group-work activity, the majority of GAL pupils rarely engaged in the conversation since GMT learners or those few GAL pupils with high language proficiency dominated the discussion.

Promoting participation in classroom interactions

It was apparent that the GAL pupils rarely participated in classroom interactions during whole class and group participation. Maria initiated the talk to the whole class and nominated pupils who raised their hands to reply to her questions, whilst some gave their answers without waiting for her permission. This left few opportunities for all pupils to initiate and participate in the talk and even less for the majority of the GAL pupils who seldom raised their hands to reply to her initiations (see subsection 8.4.4). After receiving the pupils' answers, the teacher evaluated them terminating the interaction, because in her view, this would help them to consolidate the correct interpretations. However, this practice stymied any participation in classroom interaction. In the group-work participation, the majority of the GAL pupils did not participate because GMT pupils or more language-proficient GAL pupils initiated the discussions and took the turns as well, probably because the teacher did not distribute the roles to group members. Her classroom layout was similar to that of Elena and so was not helpful for encouraging pupils' participation in classroom talk. These

practices could explain the lack of comments about the importance of pupil participation in classroom interactions during the interviews.

Seen in this light, Maria hardly embraced the general principles of additional language teaching. She has not changed her teaching practices to accommodate the needs of GAL pupils, but rather, continued emphasising subject Greek teaching incorporating some practices that, for her, would help these pupils with their subject content learning.

Chapter 9
Case Study: Andreas

9.1. Background information and influences: Andreas

Andreas (pseudonym) is a Greek native speaker and an experienced GLT, being in his 29th year of teaching and in his first year in the current school at the time of the fieldwork. He felt disappointed in teaching the subject Greek in mainstream classrooms. As he argued throughout the three interviews, nowadays, both GMT and GAL pupils are not interested in learning and are unable to consolidate the transmitted knowledge. His first degree was in Modern, Medieval and Ancient Greek Language and Literature. He considered that his initial education provided him the subject matter knowledge needed for teaching in secondary education (CS4_int2: 2). Nevertheless, he pointed out that when he had to teach a topic regarding which he did not have good knowledge, he would update it by reading books about language, literature, poetry and history (CS4_int2: 2, 4). He also emphasised that for his teaching plans and strategies he drew on his subject matter knowledge (CS4_int2: 62). He had attended many in-service seminars about poetry and language, which were organised by the Pedagogical Institute for secondary school teachers and by universities. He stated that these seminars contributed to the enrichment of his subject matter knowledge (CS4_int2: 8).

One year before this research was conducted, he attended for the first time a seminar about the language difficulties that GAL pupils tend to have in mainstream classrooms and how teachers should deal with these pupils (CS4_int2: 10). However, he insisted that the majority of his GAL pupils were born and brought up in Greece, and so they had already developed Greek like GMT speakers (see subsection 9.2.3). In his opinion, this situation meant it was not necessary for him to attend such seminars, even though he said that he had found this particular one interesting (CS4_int2: 14, 16). He also had not been involved in the European-funded projects (see subsection 5.3.1).

According to Andreas, his first experience in a mainstream classroom with both GAL and GMT learners was the year that this research was conducted. In previous years, he mentioned that he had only had one or two GAL pupils in his lessons, and so did not consider these classrooms multicultural (CS4_int1: 30, int2: 20). Although acknowledging the multilingual character of his current classroom, he argued that this situation had not had an impact on his teaching decisions and strategies (CS4_int1: 36).

In the second interview, when I asked him whether the attendance of GAL pupils in his classes had made him change his teaching, he mentioned a determining factor that influenced his teaching decisions and delivery.

> *No. I do not think so because I consider it as a class of a Greek school and the way of teaching the subject Greek is prescribed by the guidelines and textbooks. Teaching is not completely a personal choice. I can give something additional something that I would have also done in any other school, for instance, to give an extra exercise for homework. However, the basis of the teaching is what the textbooks propose (CS4_int2: 22).*

Andreas believed that the national curriculum guidelines and the textbook illustrate what and how he should teach the subject Greek in his lessons. So, it would appear that he assumed that since the curriculum did not specifically refer to GAL teaching, he should continue teaching the subject Greek the same way as before. In the first interview, he also argued that the textbook activities are appropriate for supporting all pupils without exception to cope with their language difficulties. According to him, this is the reason why he decided not to organise extra activities in his lessons (CS4_int1: 38). There is evidence of these considerations in his lessons that I observed (see section 9.3).

He was also aware that his learning experiences as a pupil and as a student teacher had an effect on his teaching delivery. He argued that his teaching was a mix of various teaching strategies that his teachers and educators embraced and were useful for him when he was a learner for consolidating new information (CS4_int2: 56, 58). For example, he mentioned that the phrase '*η επανάληψη μητέρα μαθήσεως*' (repetition contributes to learning), which an old

schoolteacher used to tell him and he found it very effective for his learning, led him to organise revision exercises in his lessons (CS4_int2: 60).

In the third interview, he mentioned few contextual factors that tended to affect his teaching choices. When I described to him how he had taught adverbials in his third lesson, he expounded that:

> *usually the best method for me is to start by presenting them examples that are specific and then to state the concept or the generalisation that is, it is good not to start by presenting the concept or the generalisation, however, you can do this when you have time* (CS4_int3: 24).

He stressed that lack of time made him choose the teaching strategies that he would follow in his lessons. He also explained to me that he could not adopt strategies different from those proposed in the curriculum since he would have not had enough time to complete the syllabus (CS4_int1: 44). When I queried how often he adopted inductive teaching in his lessons, he referred to another factor that influenced his teaching decisions:

> *in this class, pupils are not helpful for teaching like this {inductively}. What I understand and I feel sad is that you are obligated to tell everything as the pupils do not participate, do not pay attention at all. You do not even see a nod to get a clue that they understand and if you see their faces, you are wondering if they understand what you are saying. They are looking at you with a blank countenance* (CS4_int3: 34).

He claimed that pupils' low academic performance and their non-participation in classroom activities forced him to adopt teaching strategies that were not those he preferred, but those he considered salient for promoting pupils' understanding.

Overall, Andreas was an experienced teacher who had not had any training related to GAL teaching and showed little interest in GAL teaching despite his experience in mainstream classrooms. His main concern was to transmit subject knowledge to pupils, and he believed that no pupils had the ability to follow his lessons. In his opinion, his teaching delivery was based on his subject content

knowledge, the guidelines given in the national curriculum and the textbook, his own learning experiences as well as on a few contextual factors.

9.2. Teachers' espoused beliefs about GAL teaching

9.2.1. Andreas' understandings of language

In the first and second interviews, questioned about what language difficulties GAL pupils tend to have, he argued that pupils' spelling and grammar problems prevent them from expressing themselves clearly and producing written texts without errors (CS4_int1: 32). When encouraged him to express his opinion about whether pupils learn the language better when the teaching is focused on language points, he also explained how he conceptualised language.

> *For example, when you tell them that this is a subordinate clause of cause, {they should} be able to realise that it starts with 'because' and so on. This is necessary because the language consists of words, of sentences, meaning that in order to be able to write or speak you must produce structured speech. This structure of speech depends on grammar and syntax, otherwise your speech will be inaccurate and disconnected* (CS4_int2: 28).

This illustrates that he had a structural view of language, as the other teachers of this study. He believed that language consists of different language elements that all pupils needed to develop one at a time to become proficient. This belief was reflected in his lessons in which he mainly focused on the explicit teaching of different language points (see subsection 9.4.2).

9.2.2. Andreas' understandings of language learning

In the second interview, when I prompted him to explain why he thought it was necessary to teach grammar rules, he expressed his view about what effective language learning entails.

> *when they first learn about a part of speech, let's say the pronouns, you have to explain that we call them pronouns for this reason or we call them nouns*

or adjectives for this reason, because it is important to give them full information to be able to learn them correctly. They are taught many things but when they learn something well, they can use it without thinking. For example, if you want to use a pronoun or a conjunction in your written speech, you will not think what a pronoun is or what a conjunction is, you will write it spontaneously. Of course you will write spontaneously if you have learnt the parts of speech well (CS4_int2: 50).

He believed that only comprehensive knowledge of grammar rules, which provide the definitions of language points, would automatically make pupils use these points in their spoken or written language and hence, express their ideas accurately. When I enquired of him the strategies that he employed so that pupils would be in a position to overcome their language problems, he explained to me that he recommended that those who have spelling difficulties should copy various texts and learn by heart the spelling of each word (CS4_int1: 40).

He also said that, in an ideal world, he would have taught the exceptions to grammar rules so that the pupils would reach high language proficiency (CS4_int1: 50). This desire could explain why he requested for pupils to learn by heart grammar rules as given in the grammar book in all of his lessons observed (see subsection 9.4.2). He also acknowledged that the organisation of practice activities can support pupils' language learning. When he described how he addressed the language problems of pupils, he claimed that they would learn to write without grammar and spelling errors when they participated in grammar practice activities (CS4_int1: 44). So, it would seem that he believed that participation in practice activities would enable pupils to consolidate language points and use language accurately. Despite this stance, only in his fourth observed lesson did he organise two such activities.

When I mentioned that in his lessons he appeared to focus mainly on language points, he expressed another view regarding language learning.

first of all, you have to have the appropriate comprehension questions because the texts are referring let's say to some of the problems of our era, they discuss different stories, and so their content is interesting. In this way,

you can say that the judgment of pupils can be developed and they will be able to speak correctly and so on (CS4_int2: 26).

Besides focusing on the importance of learning language points, he said that when pupils participate in comprehension activities they can attain not only comprehension, but also speaking skills. In his opinion, pupils would be able to gain an understanding of text content and to discuss new ideas expressed in texts using well-structured language. Andreas, then, considered that exposure to input would lead to pupils to attaining language skills. This could be the reason why he chose to expose the pupils to academic texts through mini-lectures (see subsection 9.4.1).

When I wondered if his GAL pupils were able to consolidate grammar rules and comprehend texts, he responded that they were no different from GMT ones, arguing that:

> *Look, someone who comes from a foreign country when old or at least ten years old of course he/she has a difficulty in leaning the Greek language and this will happen to us if we go to Germany. However, as the Greeks who were born in England and they speak English fluently I think that once a child either was born here or was a baby when he/she came and he/she attended a Greek nursery school why not to learn Greek?* (CS4_int2: 66).

He believed that GAL pupils who have come to Greece at a young age and have attended nursery and primary school have been able to develop Greek as a mother tongue. Seen in this light, it would appear that he was of the opinion that official education and exposure to the language in a native-speaking environment could contribute to additional language development without the need for extra support. It also appears that he felt that GAL pupils could become proficient in Greek the same way as their GMT counterparts.

9.2.3. Andreas' understandings of language teaching

As mentioned above, throughout the interviews, Andreas argued that the attendance of GAL pupils in his classes had not had an impact on his teaching strategies because of their participation in the Greek education system from a

young age (CS4_int1: 46, int2: 16, int3: 14). He also pointed out the similarities between GAL pupils and GMT pupils' language problems (CS4_int1: 32). When I wondered whether his GAL pupils were able to meet the curriculum demands, he contended that:

> *The children of my class? Do we speak about the foreigners? I do not think that they differ from the Greek children because I know that they have grown up here. I do not think if a Greek girl gets a mark of 8/20 and an Albanian boy gets a mark of 7.95/20 it will be a problem this is not an issue* (CS4_int2: 70).

For him, this lack of differentiation led him to insist on using the same teaching strategies employing in monolingual classrooms. He also assumed that in this way he treated all pupils equally (CS4_int1: 36, int2: 16). He was of the view that only GAL pupils who have come in Greece at an older age need extra language support. In his opinion, such pupils should not be placed in mainstream classroom but should attend host schools where they have a different curriculum and approaches to teaching Greek (CS4_int1: 48, int2: 16). When I informed him that such schools do not exist in the Greek education system, he pointed out that this is the situation because the majority of GAL pupils were born in Greece (CS4_int2: 18).

In his interviews, he also spoke about the teaching strategies that he considered appropriate for teaching the subject Greek. While reasoning why he decided to become a teacher, he stressed that he was fascinated with the idea of transmitting new knowledge to pupils (CS4_int1: 16). He also mentioned that in an ideal world in which pupils would have high academic performance he would use lecturing to transmit grammar knowledge (CS4_int1: 50). When I queried how he assisted pupils to overcome their language problems, he stated that:

> *Look during a lesson you do not have the time to do {something else} because you have to complete the syllabus. You have to introduce topics, which are related to the subject matter. You may tell them what a participle is and what parts of speech are. These are particular things and always the same* (CS4_int1: 44).

In his opinion, this is the most effective strategy for transmitting knowledge about different topics or language points and for getting pupils to gain such knowledge. This belief was apparent in all of his lessons observed (see subsections 9.4.1 and 9.4.2).

In the second interview, when I pointed out that in his lessons, he mainly focused on language points presented in texts, he explained:

> *when you have to teach pronouns, you will tell them, for example, to find the pronouns of the text. Otherwise, every time you need to give them a photocopy {sheet} with either the pronouns or verbs or adverbs or whatever, and children should memorise a list of words. However, when they can find them in the text, they can learn them better. The important thing is not to memorise them but to identify them {in texts}* (CS4_int2: 26).

He declared that the teaching of language points should occur through their identification in texts. He believed that pupils should be engaged in grammatical analysis of these texts to gain a better understanding of language points. However, this strategy was not evident in his lessons that I observed.

9.2.4. Andreas' interpretations of the national curriculum and textbook

Andreas asserted that the textbook is suitable for teaching the subject Greek in mainstream classrooms. He responded to my query about the appropriateness of the textbook in mainstream classrooms by stressing the equality in terms of learning needs between GAL and GMT learners (CS4_int1: 46, int3: 38). He also thought that since the textbook includes texts that discuss social issues and the language points that he is expected to teach, it is appropriate for such classrooms (CS4_int2: 30, int3: 40, 42). He claimed that pupils' difficulties in understanding the information provided in the textbook were not because of the textbook complexity, but rather, because of their language problems (CS4_int3: 38). This view appears to explain why Andreas based his lessons exclusively on the textbook (see section 9.3).

9.3. Background description of the Year 2 subject Greek class

Andreas' class was a secondary Year 2 mainstream class (pupils aged 13-14) with 19 pupils: 15 GMT learners and four GAL pupils from Albania (two pupils) and Georgia (two pupils). Two of the GAL pupils had come to Greece when they were four years old and had been there almost 10 years, one had been there for three years, and one was born in Greece. Based on my own notes and on discussions with the GAL pupils, their language proficiency was similar to that of the GAL pupils of the other focal classes. Three of them had developed everyday fluency, but all of them struggled to comprehend and produce academic language. When I discussed with Andreas the language problems of his GAL pupils, he focused on their behaviour insisting that they had the same language problems as GMT pupils (CS4_int1: 32, 34).

In this chapter, I present the four subject Greek lessons that I observed in Andreas' classroom at the beginning of April 2012 until early May 2012. The aims of these lessons, which the teacher read aloud from the textbook at the beginning of each lesson, are presented in Table 9.1. Overall, Andreas aimed at presenting and explaining language points while placed a small emphasis on meaning comprehension as he engaged the whole class in a few reading comprehension activities.

Lessons	Aims
Lesson 1	Getting the pupils to gain explicit knowledge about the forms and use of different kinds of pronouns
Lesson 2	Getting the pupils to gain explicit knowledge about the etymological families and their derivation
Lesson 3	Getting the pupils to gain explicit knowledge about the forms and use of adverbials and adverb derivation
Lesson 4	Getting the pupils to gain explicit knowledge about the forms and use of participles

Table 9.1: Aims of Andreas' four lessons

The teaching materials that Andreas used in his classroom were the textbook, which was produced by the ministry for the subject Greek in Year 2 and was the same as that which Elena used. The units on which Andreas focused were Unit

5 '*Συζητώντας για την εργασία και το επάγγελμα*' [Discussing work and professions]; Unit 6 with the title '*Παρακολουθώ, Ενημερώνομαι και Ψυχαγωγούμαι από διάφορες πηγές (ΜΜΕ, Διαδίκτυο κτλ.)*' [I watch, I am informed, I am amused by different sources - media, internet etc.]; Unit 7 called '*Βιώνοντας προβλήματα της καθημερινής ζωής*' [Experiencing problems of daily life]; and Unit 8 with the title '*Συζητώντας για σύγχρονα κοινωνικά θέματα*' [Discussing current social issues]. From these units, he chose some texts that mainly discuss a range of social issues (see table 9.2). When I requested that he explain why he made these choices, he told me:

> *I am doing this to be able to teach all the grammar and syntactic point; let's say to complete the syllabus. So, I prefer to teach a less difficult text as we will not need more time to study the comprehension questions. It was more important for pupils to learn in detail the grammar and syntactic points (CS4_int3: 8).*

His criterion was their simplicity, as he did not want to spend time in explaining them. According to him, another reason was their topic, in the sense that he believed that texts discussing social and moral issues would contribute to the development of a moral and sensitive character (CS4_int3: 42).

The language points proposed in the textbook that he taught were: a) pronouns and etymological families (Unit 6), b) adverbials and adverb derivation (Unit 7) and c) participles (Unit 8). He also used a grammar book (Triantafyllides, 1988) to read the grammar rules aloud. The ministry suggests that teachers could use this book as a reference (Pedagogical Institute, 2002), but also subsequently published a new grammar book based on the current national curriculum (Xatzisafidis & Xatzisafidou, 2011).

Unit	Text title	Text description
6	**Text 1**: '*Αυτή η μαγική εικόνα*' (This magic picture)	A newspaper article which discusses the constructive ways that people can use the television
	Text 2: '*[Όταν η τηλεόραση «το παίζει» σοβαρή]*' (When the television tries to be serious)	A newspaper article which reveals the real purpose of television, that is, to contribute to the development of consumerism
	Text 3: '*[Ο μικρότερος*	Extract from a literary book that

	εκδότης εφημερίδας]' (The youngest newspaper editor)	describes the story of a young child who edited his own newspaper
	Text 4: *'[Τι είμαστε;]'* (Who are we?)	A sketch that satirises the effect of television on people
	Text 6: *'[Πολίτικη κουζίνα]'* (A touch of spice)	A magazine article which gives a review of the movie 'A touch of spice'
	Text 7: *'[Ψάχνοντας το Νέμο]'* (Finding Nemo)	A magazine article which reviews the movie 'Finding Nemo'
	Text 8: *'Στατιστικός πίνακας αναγνωστών εφημερίδων στην Ελλάδα'* (A statistical table representing the newspaper readers in Greece)	A newspaper article which presents the percentage of Greeks who read newspapers in relation to their age and education
7	**Text 2**: *'Πρωταθλητές στα τροχαία ατυχήματα'* (Champions of car accidents)	Extract adapted from a newspaper article that describes the problem of car accidents in Greece and the factors causing them
	Text 3: *'Η ντροπή των πλαστικών'* (The shame of having plastics)	An unadapted newspaper article discussing the problem of leaving rubbish on the beach and the negative consequences for the environment
	Text 4: *'Ας αποβάλουμε το άγχος από τη ζωή μας'* (Let's reduce the stress in our life)	A revised text from a website, describes signs of stress, explains what it is and suggests ways of reducing it
8	**Text 3**: *'[Ήθελα να βοηθήσω το φίλο μου…]'* (I wanted to help my friend)	Extract from a literary book that describes what pupils could do to help their friends who are drug addicted

Table 9.2: Texts from Units 6, 7 and 8 in the textbook used by Andreas in the four lessons

In Andreas' classroom, all the pupils' chairs were facing forward, and their desks, which were not moved during the lessons, were in rows. They could sit either in pairs or alone at a desk. Three GAL pupils were sitting alone at a desk, and only one was sitting with a GMT one. The pupils were facing the teacher's desk and the whiteboard. The teacher's desk was in front of the pupils' desks, on a raised platform and beside the whiteboard.

The classroom atmosphere was very formal, and there were clear boundaries. Pupils were allowed to speak only when the teacher gave them permission, and they did not make any noise in class. The teacher adopted a stern voice when addressing the pupils and enforced discipline in cases where they did not follow his instructions or were not quiet.

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Picture 9.1: Andreas' classroom layout

9.4. Teaching the subject Greek in a mainstream classroom: Andreas

9.4.1. Instructional strategies for focusing on carrier content

Andreas drew pupils' attention to message content without focusing on language points by adopting strategies such as, reading texts aloud, checking pupils' reading comprehension and lecturing. In all the lessons that I observed, the reading comprehension activities that he organised had the following format. He would begin by instructing the pupils to find particular texts in their textbook and to pay attention without informing them about the activity that would follow. All the pupils would open their textbooks, look at the texts and listen to their teacher while he was reading these texts aloud to the whole class. In his opinion, the listening of academic texts would lead the pupils to pick up the way that language is used in accurate texts and so they can improve their language proficiency (CS4_int3: 44, 46). After completing his reading, he would immediately ask the whole class comprehension questions or lecture regarding the issues discussed in the texts without requesting any contribution from the class. The pupils were expected to either reply to his questions or listen to his mini-lectures.

Extract 19, which occurred near the beginning of lesson 1 during a reading comprehension activity and lasted approximately two minutes, is a good illustration of how he asked the whole class reading comprehension questions. After reading the text '*Όταν η τηλεόραση «το παίζει» σοβαρή*' [When the

television tries to be serious] (see Appendix 16A) aloud, he immediately put to the whole class the first textbook question related to the text and waited for somebody to raise their hand.

Extract 19

01	T:	*((he read from the textbook))* what is the main purpose of television?
02	Ps	*((no one raises their hand))*
03	T:	*((to the whole class))* read the text for two minutes/ and you can answer later//
04		*((to two GMT pupils who raise their hand))* put your hands down//
05		*((after a minute))* what is the main purpose of television?
06	Ps	*((three GMT pupils raise their hands))*
07	T:	Anna?
08	Anna:	to develop consumerism//
09	T:	*((to the whole class))* did you understand it?
10		to develop consumerism//

The question was a plain sense reading question, and so the pupils needed to use textual evidence to answer it. Most looked at their textbook, but no one raised their hand or responded to his request (line 02). He then gave them time to read the text again to find the answer (line 03) and instructed two GMT pupils to wait (line 04). The majority of pupils continued to look at their textbook. After a minute, he repeated the question (line 05) and only three GMT pupils raised their hands. After a nominated GMT pupil gave the correct answer, the teacher repeated her response to the whole class to demonstrate that it was so. After this episode, he started reading another text *'Ο μικρότερος εκδότης εφημερίδας'* [The youngest newspaper editor] aloud. In the second interview, when I asked him to reason this strategy, he pointed out that by delivering comprehension questions, he facilitated the pupils' understanding of the main ideas of the texts and thus, supported the development of their reading comprehension skills (CS4_int2: 26, int3: 22). From this perspective, Andreas conceptualised this strategy as a way of explaining academic texts and facilitating pupils' language skill development.

Another teaching strategy, which he embraced the most in his four lessons, was lecturing, whereby he commented on the texts without demanding pupil

participation. An example of this is presented in extract 20 which was part of a reading comprehension activity occurring at about the middle of lesson 3 and lasting for around five minutes. The teacher asked the whole class to open their textbook at the text '*Πρωταθλητές στα τροχαία ατυχήματα*' [Champions of car accidents] (see Appendix 16B) and to pay attention to it while he read it out loud to them. The pupils' actions were the same as described above. While he was reading the text aloud, he suddenly stopped and started commenting on a phrase in it without requiring any contribution from the class. Almost all the pupils stopped looking at their textbook and turned to look at the teacher.

Extract 20

01	T:	*((he reads from the textbook))* violation of traffic rules//
02		for example/ a driver did not see the traffic lights/
03		he went to the middle of the road/ and looked right and then left/
04		and the one who passed {the pedestrian}/ did not get killed//
05		the driver who tried to avoid him/ hit a pavement/ and got killed//
06		the accident does not have only-
07		it is not only the driver who violates the traffic rules/ gets killed/
08		but also those {pedestrians} who tried to cross in places that they should not/ {also died}
09		and also the driver who tries to avoid them {pedestrians}/ gets killed//

Andreas explained the phrase by giving examples of real life events because, as he mentioned, his aim was to advise the pupils to be cautious on roads and not to help them comprehend the meaning of the phrase (CS4_int3: 2, 4). This view can be related to his belief that he sought to expose pupils to topics that could contribute to the cultivation of their character (CS4_int3: 42). As can be seen, he did not ask them to participate in the discussion. In the third interview, he informed me that he neither engaged pupils in classroom talk nor commented on texts when he considered texts easy and understandable (CS4_int3: 8, 22). This one sided delivery was also seen during an episode that occurred in the middle of lesson 4. After reading the text *'Ήθελα να βοηθήσω το φίλο μου…'* [I wanted to help my friend] (see Appendix 16C) aloud, he did not comment on it and informed pupils that he had read it to have a break from teaching language points. According to him, the aim of meaning-focused activities was to get all pupils not only to enhance their reading comprehension skills, but also to

acquire critical thinking and to express their opinions orally about different topics (CS4_int2: 26).

9.4.2. Instructional strategies for language point teaching

In all of his lessons observed, Andreas gave exclusive emphasis on language points and mainly embraced teaching strategies that foster the explicit teaching of language points. In his four lessons, he mostly adopted a deductive teaching strategy, a representative example of which is given in extract 21 taken from a grammar presentation activity, which occurred near the middle of lesson 3 and lasted approximately five minutes. In this extract, the teacher instructed the whole class to open their grammar books and to pay attention to the grammar rule for adverbs and adverbials (see Appendix 16D). All the pupils followed his instructions and looked at their textbooks.

Extract 21

01	T:	what is an adverb?
02		*((he reads from the grammar book))* uninflected parts of speech that qualify the meaning of a verb//
03		for this reason/ we say the adverb beside the verb/
04		it accompanies the verb/ and it qualifies it//
05		*((he reads from the grammar book))* and it shows place/ time/ manner/ amount/ certainty/ hesitation/ denial etc.//
06		all these show the meaning of adverbs//
07		if I found an adverb in a text/ and I analyse it syntactically/
08		for example/, tomorrow we will go for a tour of the countryside/
09		will go/ is the verb//
10		tour/ is the object//
11		when?
12		tomorrow//
13		however/ we will not say adverb when we do syntactic analysis/
14		but we will say adverbial//
15		and what does it show?
16		time//
17		adverbial of time//

He addressed a display question to the whole class (line 01) and then immediately started reading the grammar rule for adverbs aloud from the grammar book. After reading the first line of the rule (line 02), he stopped and explained it in his own words (lines 03-04). This technique was repeated in

lines 05-06. In line 07, he gave an introduction with the aim of indicating the connection between adverbs and adverbials. He then analysed a simple sentence syntactically without asking the pupils for a contribution (lines 09-12). Using this example he explained what the term 'adverbial' means (line 13) and how to identify the different types of adverbials (lines 15-17). The pupils did not participate in the discourse and the majority of them were looking at the teacher seemingly paying attention. After this episode, the teacher gave another example to explain how to identify the different types of adverbials. He followed this format every time he taught language points deductively.

He sometimes adopted an inductive teaching strategy for presenting language points. This strategy can be seen in extract 22 taken from a grammar presentation activity, which occurred near the end of lesson 2 and lasting approximately two minutes. He first instructed the pupils to brainstorm derivatives and compounds[19] of the verb '*γράφω*' (I write) and to share them with the class. The majority of pupils raised their hands to give an answer and waited for the teacher's permission to speak. The teacher let many GMT pupils give examples of derivatives and compounds and also stated his own examples. After this activity, as can be seen in extract 22, he attempted to explain the relationship between the verb '*γράφω*' (I write) and the derivatives and compounds of this verb. The pupils were expected to pay attention to what the teacher was saying.

Extract 22

```
01   T:   so/ here we have a relationship/
02        an etymological relationship//
03        so/ this is the archetype/ the original word/
04        and then the ones that have the same root/
05        they belong to the same etymological family//
```

After explaining this relationship in a few words (lines 01-05), he told the whole class to look at their textbook and he read the grammar rule given in the textbook aloud without commenting on it. The majority of pupils followed his

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[19] Derivatives are words that are formed from existing words. For example, writer is derived from the verb write. Compounds are the words that are composed of more than one free morpheme. For instance, whiteboard is a compound as it is formed from white and board.

instructions and looked at their textbook. When he had finished reading the rule aloud, he instructed them to open their grammar book and to learn the grammar rule for derivation by heart for the next lesson. The majority of the pupils noted the grammar rule in their books. Andreas, then, presented and explained new language points first by giving examples and then by presenting grammar rules underlining these points.

In the third interview, despite his belief that there is no difference in presenting the examples before or after giving the grammar rules, he highlighted that he preferred to give pupils the chance to find the grammar rule through examples, because in this way they would learn to think (CS4_int3: 24, 28). However, he claimed that because of contextual factors (see section 9.1), he sometimes embraced a deductive presentation (CS4_int3:30, 32, 34). Regardless of the sequence he followed, he contended that it is essential to introduce grammar rules in class. Specifically, he justified his choice of reading grammar rules aloud from the grammar book by saying that:

> *If you want to use a pronoun or a conjunction in your written work, you will not think what a pronoun is or what a conjunction is, for you will write it spontaneously. Of course, you will write spontaneously if you have learned the parts of speech well* (CS4_int2: 50).

This verifies Andreas's belief that pupils need to learn language points explicitly in order to produce language accurately and fluently (see subsection 9.2.2). He also used examples as he believed that in this way pupils would understand language points better (CS4_int2: 38) and that the more information he gave about language points the better (CS4_int3: 36). It can be seen then that Andreas explained language points to pupils without involving the pupils in this activity so as promote the development of grammatical competence.

9.4.3. Use of linguistic and contextual cues for language comprehension

Andreas mainly assisted pupils to conceptualise new information that he presented in his lessons by explaining them orally and expected them to

comprehend text meaning by looking at and listening to texts. For instance, in extract 21, he explained the grammar rule of adverbials in his own words and by orally giving examples. From this perspective, pupils were expected to rely on linguistic cues to interpret the meaning of the teacher's spoken and written language. For example, during the meaning-focused activities, the pupils supposed to answer the plain sense reading questions of the teacher by relying on textual evidence as he did not use any other means to explain texts (e.g. extract 19). In language-focused activities, they were also expected to understand grammar rules based on the written information of the textbook and the grammar book as well as on teacher's oral explanations (e.g. extracts 21, 22). This may be connected with Andreas' belief regarding the language proficiency of GAL pupils (see subsection 9.2.3) implying that they were able to comprehend academic language like GMT pupils.

9.4.4. Use of linguistic and contextual cues for language use and participation

In the majority of classroom talk, Andreas led the classroom talk when presenting language points and transmitting carrier content knowledge, without the pupils being required to participate. At some points in lesson 1 and 4, he asked the whole class to join in classroom talk, mainly when he sought to check their comprehension and grammar knowledge. At these times, he followed the IRE pattern. An example of how he used this pattern is given in extract 23, which happened at the end of lesson 4 and lasted approximately one minute. In this lesson stage, he presented the forms and uses of two kinds of participles. He explained the differences between the two and read the related grammar rule from the textbook aloud. He then involved the whole class in a practice activity which was given in the textbook (see Appendix 16E). He read the exercise instructions, which state that pupils needed to transform the participles of the three examples from plural to singular or vice versa and to observe which participles change. He then began reading the examples aloud and expected the pupils to complete the exercise immediately by applying in practice the previously presented grammar rule about participles. In the following extract, he read the second example out loud.

```
01   T:    ((he reads the example from the textbook aloud)) on the next pillar/
           a poster was glued//
02         plural?
03         tell us// ((he shows a GMT pupil))
04   P1:   on the next pillar/ were glued//
05   T:    were glued//
06   P1:   posters//
07   T:    posters//
08         what happens here?
09         it {participle} changes//
```

Andreas nominated a GMT pupil (line 03) and expected him to transform the participle into the plural by saying the word 'plural' (line 02). The pupil responded to the teacher's elicitation with one-phrase (line 04) and a one-word answer (line 06). After the pupil's answers, the teacher evaluated them by repeating the correct ones (lines 05, 07). The teacher then addressed a second question to the whole class without waiting for an answer (line 08) and instead, gave it himself. As can be seen in this case Andreas used the IRE pattern to check pupils' grammar knowledge.

In extract 19, he also used this pattern to check the pupils' reading comprehension. Initially, he asked the whole class a plain sense reading question (line 01), which he repeated in line 05 and then nominated a GMT pupil to answer (line 07). The pupil answered his question by providing a one-phrase answer (line 08). The teacher then enquired of the whole class whether they understood Anna's answer (line 09) and immediately repeated it indicating that it was correct (line 10). It would appear that he considered the evaluation of pupils' answers as a suitable strategy for transmitting the correct knowledge about the subject Greek due to his view that teachers' role is to transmit knowledge to pupils (see subsection 9.2.3).

9.5. GAL teaching and Andreas

Andreas was the only teacher who declared that he has not changed his teaching due to GAL pupils' attendance because he strongly believed that they have the

same language proficiency as GMT pupils. Table 9.3 shows the main pedagogic principles that underlie his teaching strategies in the four lessons that I observed. Following this, a discussion regarding the extent to which Andreas' principles and practices fit with the general principles of additional language teaching is conducted.

Pedagogic principles	Observed teaching strategies
1. Use of the same teaching strategies as those deployed in monolingual classrooms	Lectures, elicitation strategies and explicit language teaching (see subsections 9.4.1 and 9.4.2)
2. Teaching language points explicitly will contribute to the development of language accuracy	Deductive or inductive presentation of language points (see subsection 9.4.2)
3. The exposure to input will enable all pupils to produce accurate language and develop critical thinking	Exposure to academic texts (see subsection 9.4.1)
4. Lecturing will result in all pupils understanding new knowledge	Lecturing was his main teaching strategy (see subsections 9.4.1 and 9.4.3)
5. Reading comprehension questions will assist him to check the pupils' comprehension levels	A few reading comprehension questions (see subsections 9.4.1 and 9.4.3)
6. Evaluation of pupils' answers will help them develop the correct knowledge	IRE sequence (see subsection 9.4.4)
7. The textbook and curriculum are appropriate for the mainstream classroom	His only source of teaching material was the prescribed textbook (see subsection 9.3)
8. Use of linguistic cues can lead to input comprehension	Oral explanations of academic texts and language points (see subsection

9.4.3)

Table 9.3: Andreas' key pedagogic principles and observed teaching strategies

Integrating language and content objectives

Andreas placed emphasis on the subject Greek teaching with the purpose being solely to accomplish the subject-content aims, using subject-based materials and activities. He seemed not to integrate GAL aims into his lessons or embraced teaching practices supporting GAL pupils' learning. So, he preferred to put an 'exclusive focus on subject content' (Davison & Williams, 2001, see section 4.1). This practice can be related to his belief in the appropriateness of the national curriculum for both GAL and GMT pupils (see subsection 9.2.4).

Communicative competence in both everyday and academic language

His main aim was to get pupils to develop grammatical aspects of academic formal language. In his lessons, he did not make any reference to sociolinguistic or lexical components of academic formal language. This can be linked to his belief that all pupils need to improve their grammar knowledge to become able to use the language accurately, thus indicating that he is not interested in encouraging the development of communicative efficiency. Like the other teachers, he did not teach explicitly the characteristics of text types despite the exposure of the whole class to a range of academic texts. Only on one occasion did he read aloud the characteristics of formal letters as presented in the textbook, but without commenting any further or encouraging pupils to produce a written text. This practice can be explained by his expressing views about the non-importance for pupils in Year 2 to produce written texts and about GAL pupils' language proficiency (see subsection 9.2.4). He also seemed to emphasise the improvement of academic formal language at the expense of interactive informal language since he did not introduce any components of the former in his lessons, even though the national curriculum supported its development. This can be explained by his opinion that pupils, including GMT pupils, were unable to deal with the curriculum demands because of their language difficulties.

Form-focused language teaching

The majority of his teaching activities were grammar-focused because, for him, by consolidating grammar points all pupils would be able to achieve high-level language proficiency. He presented and explained language points explicitly and sometimes presenting simple examples. He seldom involved the pupils in controlled practice activities and never presented these points during meaning-focused activities (see subsection 9.4.2). This implies that he followed traditional focus-on-forms instruction, which, according to him, would enable all pupils to produce accurate spoken and written language.

Focus on carrier content meaning

He organised a few meaning-focused activities in which he instructed the pupils to try to comprehend the meaning of texts or that of his mini-lectures on different topics (see subsection 9.4.1). For him, the exposure to meaning without explicit language teaching would enable pupils to grasp how to use language accurately and develop critical thinking. Despite drawing the pupils' attention to carrier content, his instruction lacked any real-life focus since pupils were not able to use unpredictable language to discuss everyday topics with each other. He also did not introduce language points during such activities. This implies that he did not foster the development of communicative efficiency and accuracy.

Promoting comprehension of classroom language and content materials

It was noticed that whereas he exposed the whole class to extensive spoken language use, they were provided with few opportunities to consider the written form (see subsection 9.4.1). This language use had the characteristics of academic formal language, while interactive informal language was not used at all in classroom talk or the content materials. Despite this expose to academic formal language, he assumed that pupils were capable of encoding linguistic cues to comprehend the meaning of classroom language and content materials. He solely used comprehension questions to check pupils' comprehension level while he never included any contextual support or speech modifications to support input comprehension.

Creating opportunities for extended language production

The opportunities for active language use during whole-class activities were limited. He occupied 95 per cent of class talk, since he mainly adopted a lecturing strategy, thus restricting the chances of pupils using language. The pupils' spoken language use was limited to replying to the teacher's questions that were only 'display requests' and so these responses can be characterised as predictable, restricted and simple. He also did not encourage them to produce any written language, which could explain why during our interviews he did not refer to the significance of practising language use. He also did not organise collaborative activities in which pupils would have had more opportunities to produce extensive language, as suggested in the literature (see section 4.4).

Promoting participation in classroom interactions

The sole participation structure in his lessons that I observed was whole-class. He always initiated the classroom interaction by directing questions to the whole class and controlled turn taking, whereby he nominated the pupils who raised their hands. The majority of GAL pupils seldom raised their hands and so the teacher did not give them the chance to get involved in the classroom talk. After the pupils proffered answers, he evaluated them, possibly because he sought to transmit the correct knowledge. However, as discussed in the literature (see section 4.5), this practice blocked the learners from participating in classroom interaction. The traditional classroom layout also reinforced this form of teaching practice. It can be also observed that he never used feedback to give pupils the chance to engage further in classroom conversations, organised collaborative activities or mentioned to the importance of classroom interaction in our interviews.

From this perspective, Andreas' teaching principles and practices have not been influenced by the general principles of additional language teaching. He was the only teacher who never adjusted his teaching practices taking into account GAL pupils' needs, but rather, he continued delivering his lessons in a manner appropriate for monolingual classrooms.

Chapter 10

'GAL' Teaching in the Focal Mainstream Classrooms

10.0. Introduction

This chapter provides a summary and commentary regarding the key findings presented in Chapters 6-9, with reference to the additional language teaching principles mentioned in the literature review in Chapter 4. The previous four chapters described the context in four mainstream classrooms with both GAL and GMT learners as well as the beliefs and teaching activities that the focal GLTs adopted to teach the subject Greek in these classrooms. This description contributed to the identification of the focal teachers' pedagogic principles underpinning their practices and the extent to which their practices managed to meet teaching principles that are found in the professional and research literature (see Chapter 4) and are considered salient for teaching an additional language in mainstream contexts. In this Chapter, I compare the teachers' principles and practices in the endeavour to identify common or different trends in terms of GAL teaching and to identify the differences between teachers' practices and key principles in the literature. This discussion helps pinpoint not only areas of weakness, but also priorities for change. I also quantify the key teaching practices according to their frequency in the lessons observed, so that the practices that the teachers themselves considered important can be elicited. The headings for each section are in line with the structure of the analytic framework for this thesis (see section 4.6), whereas the subsections are geared towards indicating the variations in the focal teachers classroom practices. In the next Chapter, I put forward recommendations for the national curriculum and teacher education programmes so that GLTs would become able to deliver a more meaningful learning experience for both GMT and GAL pupils in their lesson delivery.

10.1. Integrating language and content objectives

As discussed in section 4.1, the curriculum needs to encourage not only the mastery of academic content, but also the development of additional language skills (Mohan et al., 2001). Such a curriculum could trigger learners' participation in classroom activities and their development of communicative capacity. In this section, I follow the descriptive framework of Davison and Williams (2001) that I outlined in section 4.1 to analyse the lesson aims and content as well as the classroom activities that the focal teachers used to integrated language and content instruction during their lesson delivery.

10.1.1. Subject-led language instruction

The teaching strategies observed in the focal teachers' lessons were closer to the content end of the continuum of Davison and Williams' (2001) descriptive framework since all the focal GLTs' aim was to teach the subject Greek. It emerged that all the teachers stuck closely to the subject Greek syllabus within the national curriculum which, as discussed in section 2.3, considers GAL as a 'diffused' curriculum area (see Leung, 2001a). Although the subject Greek has been designed to address the needs of GMT pupils, in their interviews, the GLTs seemed to be of the opinion that it could serve both GAL and GMT pupils. Seen in this light, it would appear that they believed that explicit GAL curriculum is not necessary for assisting GAL pupils to meet curriculum demands and to develop communicative capacity.

This view can be also seen by examining their lessons aims and classroom activities. All the teachers appeared to have the intention of all their pupils mastering both Greek (as a mother tongue) language knowledge and language use by engaging them in subject content-based activities. This indicates that they were focused on Greek as a mother tongue and not as an additional language. Although all the teachers seemed to seek to accomplish both these aims, they placed differing emphasis on each of these aspects of language development. Elena and Andreas emphasised the development of language knowledge, as the majority of their classroom activities were grammar

presentation activities. For example, Andreas organised eleven grammar presentation activities while he organised only three reading comprehension activities. In contrast, Anna and Maria placed more emphasis on facilitating pupils' development of language use as the majority of their classroom activities were reading comprehension and speaking activities. For instance, Anna organised seven reading comprehension activities, whilst she only organised two grammar presentation activities with the objective of explaining certain language points.

The content of all the teachers' lessons was derived from the textbook which has a subject content-based perspective (see section 2.3). Anna, Elena and Andreas used the texts with accompanying comprehension questions to organise reading comprehension and listening activities. They also used language points dictated in the teaching material to guide their grammar presentation and practice activities. On the other hand, Maria used exercises and pictures given in the textbook to organise speaking activities. The focal teachers, also, were not GAL specialists, but mainstream Greek (mother tongue) teachers. They also did not have support from the GAL specialists who had been placed in their schools as part of the EU-funded project (see section 5.3).

These findings indicate that none of the focal teachers integrated subject content and GAL aims into their lessons. They placed an emphasis on the subject Greek without including any GAL aims. This practice may be due to teachers' tendency to follow the national curriculum's recommendations. This principle was also expressed during the interviews, in which all the respondents stressed the necessity for GAL pupils to learn Greek in exactly the same way as GMT pupils. This shows that their practices did not match with the principle regarding the integration of language and content objectives. As was pointed out in section 4.1, when the curriculum appears to promote the integration of content and language instruction in some way or another, learners may become capable of not only mastering subject content, but also developing their language use (see Chamot & O'Malley, 1987; Snow et al., 1992). So, it is apparent that GLTs might not just instruct GAL pupils in how to master

grammar knowledge, but could also foster the development of GAL after taking into consideration their pupils' learning needs and different contextual factors.

10.2. Communicative competence in both everyday and academic language

The development of interactive informal and academic formal language skills has been seen as a prominent factor to support learners' engagement in everyday communication and their academic achievement in the mainstream classroom (Cummins, 2000; Leung, 2012a; Scarcella, 2003, see also section 4.3). Such development appears to occur when learners not only acquire language knowledge (grammar and vocabulary), but also when they conceptualise how to use this knowledge in different contexts (sociolinguistic competence) (Canale, 1983, 1984; Canale & Swain, 1980). Beyond teaching vocabulary, language points and language functions, it is necessary that the purposes and the structure of academic text type be explicitly taught, as well as the specific language features involved in the different forms (Davison, 2001a; Harris & Leung, 2007; Mohan, 2001, see also section 4.3). Such teaching would promote learners' comprehension and production of different texts types. In this section, I discuss the components of academic and everyday language that the focal teachers taught in their language instruction with the view to promoting pupils' communication in both social and academic contexts.

10.2.1. The grammar and lexical components of academic formal language

The language points that Elena and Andreas taught in Year 2, according to the subject Greek syllabus, constitute linguistic components of both academic and everyday Greek (Pedagogical Institute, 2002). For example, the syllabus suggests that the teachers should encourage all their pupils to use adverbials and pronouns in different social and academic situations. Nevertheless, in our interviews, these teachers assumed that GAL pupils have already developed interactive informal skills because they only commented on the language deficiency of GAL pupils in terms of producing academic texts. It would be

apparent then that they promoted the development of language points that pupils can use in their academic texts.

The syllabus of Year 3, on the other hand, places emphasis on language points constituting linguistic components of academic formal Greek. For instance, Anna and Maria presented subordinate clauses and figures of speech, which the syllabus argues that can be used in academic texts (Pedagogical Institute, 2002). From this perspective, it is assumed that GAL pupils in Year 3, similar to GMT pupils, have already developed communicative capacity, and so the priority is to improve their academic language proficiency.

At both levels, the vocabulary taught was specific and academic since the words presented were derived from the written academic texts of the textbook. This was perhaps not surprising as in the teacher instruction manual for Year 2 and Year 3, the advice is to teach only the vocabulary of written texts in the textbook (Gavriilidou et al., 2006; Katsarou et al., 2006). For example, the word 'nihilist', which Anna explained in lesson 2 (see extract 4, page 172), is an academic word which is mostly found in academic texts. There is also a body of evidence from the observations showing that the teachers helped pupils to learn academic words in preference to everyday ones. The teachers also placed emphasis only on the meaning of academic words without commenting on their forms, as suggested by Scarcella (2003). This indicates that their aim was only to help learners attend to word meaning.

10.2.2. No emphasis on sociolinguistic components

None of the teachers seemed to consider it necessary to inform pupils about language functions. All of them merely presented the forms and general uses of language points. For example, in lesson 2, when Elena was trying to explain the time adverbial, she first pointed out the different forms that such adverbials can have and then gave a general definition without referring to the different meanings that they can take when they are employed for different communicative purposes. Andreas also taught pronouns constituting linguistic components of both academic and everyday language and at no time did he

point out the difference of using them for different occasions. This shows that no reference has been made to the meanings that language points can realise in different contexts and to how parts of speech could be used in either academic or social contexts.

They also focused on the specific meaning of words as used in a particular text orally without focusing on the sociolinguistic aspects of vocabulary. For example, in lesson 3, Maria explained the term 'impressionism' by giving a general definition without explaining its uses in different contexts (see extract 16, page 223). It would appear that due to the absence of instruction on functional and sociolinguistic aspects of language points and vocabulary, the focal teachers supposed that pupils had the ability to use language points and words presented in their lessons in different social and academic situations unassisted.

10.2.3. No emphasis on discourse components

None of the four teachers referred to the characteristics of different discourse features used in specific academic genres in their lessons, even though all the pupils were expected to comprehend different text types, such as journal articles and explanation texts. Maria did not resort to the use of texts at all during any of the four lessons observed while in Anna, Elena and Andreas' lessons, pupils were expected to comprehend the main ideas of different text types discussing the same topic. In these activities, these teachers mainly drew their attention exclusively to the meaning of texts without commenting on their genre or on how linguistic or rhetorical features are used to represent different ideas. Only once, in lesson 4, did Anna ask a group for the genre of a written text, which was a newspaper report, but without commenting any further.

Anna, Elena and Maria also mentioned in our informal discussions that at the end of each unit, they engaged all the pupils in writing activities in which they were expected to write academic texts about themes discussed in class. They stressed the difficulty that GAL pupils were having in producing such texts using complex grammar structure and academic vocabulary. However, in their

lessons, they did not elucidate the discourse features found in different academic genres to facilitate pupils' writing. Andreas also read information referring to the structure of formal and informal letters aloud from the textbook, without commenting any further, during lesson 3.

10.2.4. Summary and concluding comments

With respect to the principle that highlights the importance of developing all components of both interactive informal and academic formal language skills (see section 4.3), it can be seen that all the teachers mainly taught grammatical components of academic Greek. The teachers argued that language knowledge would lead pupils to produce accurate spoken and written language. This practice conforms with Scarcella's (2003) argument that the learning of grammatical components can assist pupils in the production of grammatically correct sentences.

However, even though the teaching of grammatical aspects of Greek is salient for additional language learning, it is not sufficient for getting pupils to produce highly proficient spoken and written language. Teachers also need to take into account the sociolinguistic aspects of language that would enable pupils to produce language appropriate for specific contexts (Leung, 2010a; Scarcella, 2003, see also section 4.3). In this study, as mentioned above, the teachers did not include this component of academic language in their lessons. This practice may be due to their belief that GAL pupils, like the GMT pupils, had already developed this competence. The teachers also did not enhance the development of vocabulary. This practice is inconsistent with studies (e.g. Allison & Harklau, 2010; Franken, 2005) highlighting the significance of supporting the development of academic vocabulary so that learners can develop the language needed to meet subject content aims.

The teachers also did not foster the development of discourse competence. A possible explanation for this might be that they assumed that GAL pupils share the same cultural knowledge as GMT pupils and teachers, and were already familiar with the characteristics of text types, despite the focal teachers'

unanimous assertion that GAL pupils had writing problems. This teachers' practice may also be due to their limited knowledge about how to teach the concept of genre since they mainly analysed language at the level of the sentence and not as discourse. There seems, therefore, to be a need for incorporating such a teaching in the context of the subject Greek to help GAL pupils to become adequate writers.

Another discrepancy between the principles and the teachers' practices is that they underestimated the importance of teaching features of everyday language. Anna, Maria and Elena stressed only the importance for GAL pupils of developing academic formal language to meet subject lesson aims, and in the lessons that I observed all the teachers mainly focused on this type of language. This indicates that they worked under the assumption that pupils had already mastered interactive informal language. However, even though the development of academic formal language would support all pupils in coping with subject content demands, GAL learners need to continue developing their interactive informal language. As explained in section 4.3, language use in social situations can take different forms and have different features which can only be learned through previous learning experiences (Leung, 2012a). A reasonable strategy to tackle this issue could be for teachers to design lessons in which GAL pupils would be able to continue developing their informal interactive language and to conceptualise how to use different language forms in different contexts.

10.3. Form-focused language teaching

As discussed in section 4.3, explicit language teaching can lead to the development of communicative competence when it occurs alongside meaning-focus activities (Ellis, 2006; Long, 1991). In this section, I point out the teaching strategies that the focal teachers used to teach language points and vocabulary in their lessons. To characterise the form-focused instruction of the focal teachers, I adopt the Long's (1991) categorisation of such teaching, i.e. focus-on-forms and focus-on-form instruction.

10.3.1. Explicit focus on forms

All the focal teachers taught language knowledge in a similar way whereby explicit grammar instruction took place in all the lessons observed. Anna and Maria organised less language-focused activities than Elena and Andreas, who carried out eleven and twelve such activities respectively. They all used the language points predetermined by the syllabus to organise these. Despite the difference in the presentation of language points, at interview, they all stressed that the development of explicit language knowledge would enable all their pupils to gain an understanding of how to employ these points in their spoken and written language.

Anna, Maria and Andreas chose merely to present language points deductively in their grammar presentation activities, because of, as they put it, their complexity (Anna) and the low academic performance of all their pupils (Maria and Andreas). During these activities, they first gave an explanation of a language point using metalanguage and mentioning, as discussed in section 10.2.2, their forms and general uses. Andreas, unlike Anna and Maria, after the oral presentation of language points, provided examples to illustrate their forms (e.g. extract 21, page 248).

Elena, by contrast, appeared to present and explain language points inductively in all the six grammar presentation activities (see section 7.4), which she justified by pointing out that this strategy is specifically recommended in the national curriculum (see Gavriilidou et al., 2006). In such activities, she first asked questions about their structure of simple isolated sentences with the aim of getting the pupils to work out the grammar rules of the language points. After this probing, she stated the grammar rules of language points. However, the pupils only answered the teacher's questions about the forms and uses of language points and were not able to work out the grammar rule for themselves, as the teacher did not give them sufficient time to do so. So, despite the intention of Elena to elicit the grammar rules from the pupils themselves, it was she who dictated the grammar rules.

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10.3.2. Grammar practice exercises

After the presentation of language points, all the teachers engaged their pupils in grammar exercises that all had the same characteristics. Anna and Maria involved their pupils in only one grammar exercise, Andreas in two, and Elena employed this activity on five occasions. These exercises were focused on a single language point, which the pupils were asked to identify and label in isolated sentences. For example, in lesson 1, after revising subordinate clauses, Maria asked the whole class to identify their types in simple isolated sentences that she had prepared (see subsection 8.4.2). According to all of them, these activities would assist them to check whether the learners had grasped the language points presented.

10.3.3. Explicit and unplanned vocabulary teaching

Explicit vocabulary teaching was found in Anna, Elena and Maria's lessons, while in Andreas' lessons no vocabulary teaching occurred. In such circumstances, the teachers gave the definition of words associated with written language orally without referring to other aspects of vocabulary knowledge, such as the phonological, grammatical, sociolinguistic or discourse-related features. As they argued in the interviews, they focused on vocabulary, not only to get pupils to develop lexical knowledge, but also to facilitate text comprehension. The choice of the words was unplanned. As explained in the interviews, the strategy for vocabulary teaching involved explaining new words as they arose during reading comprehension activities. For instance, Anna gave the definition of words orally twice when GMT and GAL pupils asked her the meaning of unfamiliar words in texts (e.g. extract 4, page 172). On the other hand, Elena and Maria focused on vocabulary only on two occasions, which lasted less than a minute, when they considered that some pupils might be unfamiliar with certain words. None of the teachers engaged their pupils in practice activities, which are considered salient for vocabulary learning (Ellis & Shintani, 2013; Lyster, 2007; Nation, 2005). It can be seen that the teachers did not explicitly include vocabulary teaching in their lesson aims and mainly

defined words that hindered the pupils' comprehension of the meaning of the set texts.

10.3.4. Summary and concluding comments

The focal teachers involved all the pupils in explicit language teaching which is a salient aspect of additional language development. However, they were found to adopt traditional teaching approaches that have not been particularly fruitful in getting learners to become capable of using language knowledge in different situations (see Ellis, 2006; Ellis & Shintani, 2013, and also section 4.3). They adopted a focus-on-forms instruction in which they presented language points either deductively or inductively and then engaged pupils in practice activities to get them to consolidate single language points one at a time. This shows that they taught discrete language points without including them in a context and without giving pupils the opportunity to produce unpredictable language using these.

Anna, Maria and Elena also only taught vocabulary explicitly in the sense that they gave the definitions of words as they arose in the text. Although they taught vocabulary during reading comprehension activities, they did not teach it systematically, or give pupils the opportunity to find the meaning of words on their own. Instead, to teach vocabulary, they used traditional teaching approaches that are not generally considered helpful for pupils to increase their word bank (see Ellis & Shintani, 2013).

To address this deficiency, as suggested in the literature (see section 4.3), teachers might draw pupils' attention to language forms in the context of communicative activities in which the main focus is on the comprehension or production of messages and not on the teaching of single language points. This would enable pupils to grasp how language features and words can be used appropriately on different occasions and thus to produce such language for different communicative purposes (Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis, 2003).

10.4. Focus on carrier content meaning

Learners' involvement in meaningful communications in which they focus on conveying messages using real-world language and not simply on specific language points tends to have an effect on their language use (Littlewood, 2011; Prabhu, 1987; Richards, 2006). In this section, using Littlewood's (2004) framework, I discuss the classroom activities that the focal GLTs used to draw pupils' attention to the meaning of the written texts.

10.4.1. Focus on meaning as a way of cultivating language skills

As it can be seen from the distribution of their classroom activities (see section 10.1), Anna and Maria focused on carrier content meaning more than Andreas and Elena. During the eleven reading comprehension activities, Anna asked groups or the whole class to use the content of the textbook texts to write a summary and used the themes discussed in the units as a starting point for further discussion. In a similar way, in the first and last lesson observed, Elena organised five reading comprehension activities in which she used the content of the texts to encourage pupils either to identify the main ideas contained within them or to describe their personal experiences regarding the topic of the texts.

Maria organised eight speaking activities in lessons 2 through to 4 and mini-lectures, to introduce and speak about topics to the whole class (e.g. extract 16, page 223). In contrast to the other teachers, during the three reading comprehension and nine listening activities, Andreas discussed the main ideas contained within the text (e.g. extract 19, page 245), used the carrier content to provide his personal experience related to the topics discussed in the texts or he did not comment at all.

Seen in this light, it would seem that all four teachers exposed all the pupils to carrier content without drawing their attention to language points. During the interviews, the teachers expressed the view that such exposure would lead to the development of reading comprehension, speaking and writing skills as well as

to an understanding of how language is used. It would appear, then, that they did not have the intention of using carrier content as a means of showing the relationship between the language points presented in grammar-focused lessons and meaning. This perspective is clearly in line with Krashen (1982), under whose Input Hypothesis, it is proposed that exposure to carrier content is sufficient for language acquisition and can enhance language production (for discussion on Input Hypothesis, see section 4.2). However, as discussed in section 4.2, the exposure to carrier content can enhance the development of a few language skills, such as comprehension skills, but not the development of production skills and of accuracy.

The teachers also failed to give their pupils opportunities to use the language to communicate new messages to others. As suggested in the literature, teachers need to engage learners in communicative activities in which they are required to use unpredictable language actively to complete a task in order for the focus on meaning to lead to language learning (see Littlewood, 2004). However, although the focal teachers concentrated on meaning during reading and listening comprehension activities, they did not organise communicative activities. Their activities mainly promoted 'non-communicative learning' because teachers placed an emphasis on explaining the meaning of texts or 'pre-communicative language practice' because they mainly engaged pupils in question-answer sequences regarding text topics (see Littlewood, 2004). Three out of the four teachers believed that such exposure could also support pupils' acquisition of ideas that they can use in their written texts while two teachers pointed out that exposure to texts would contribute to character building. So, by organising such activities, the GLTs seemed to aim at fostering pupils' language skills rather than communicative efficiency and accuracy. A possible explanation for these findings may be the teachers' assumption that GAL pupils can learn the subject Greek the same way as GMT pupils. So, it is apparent that there is a need to organise meaning-focused activities that can give all pupils the opportunity to use the language to communicative carrier content in real-life situations and to combine these activities with focus-on-form instruction to support learners' accuracy development and communicative ability.

10.5. Promoting comprehension of classroom language and content materials

Prior studies have noted the importance of exposing learners to extended and comprehensible input in language instruction so that language learners can participate in classroom interactions (Leung, 1996; 2010b, see also section 4.2). In this section, I first discuss the amount and the kind of input provided in the lessons observed to assess whether the focal teachers exposed GAL pupils to extensive input or not (10.6.1). I then present the teaching strategies that the teachers used to ensure that the input of their lessons was comprehensible (10.6.2 - 10.6.4).

10.5.1. Extensive academic input

Input in all the focal teachers' lessons observed was presented through academic written texts or through spoken language use. The language of academic texts could generally be characterised as academic formal, since the text structure was usually complex and the vocabulary consisted of words that are less frequently used than those in everyday language. The texts were taken from a range of literacy books, newspapers and magazines, being between half and a whole page in length. Andreas and Elena worked with more written texts than Anna and Maria. Andreas exposed the whole class to three to four written texts per lesson, while Elena used four written texts in lesson 1, one in lesson 3 and another one in lesson 4. In Anna's lessons 1 and 4, each assigned group had to work with one written text per lesson to accomplish classroom activities, while in lesson 3, the teacher presented one written text. Maria used one written text and two oral texts in lessons 2 and 3. These texts can enable GAL learners to attain high proficiency in an additional language. As Wong Fillmore (2014) argues, complex and demanding teaching materials can help AL learners to develop their additional language proficiency and to sustain their academic development. Palincsar and Schleppegrell (2014) also support the view that access to rich and complex texts can enhance vocabulary and content development as well as provide the motivation that learners need to get involved in classroom activities.

Spoken language use in classroom interaction can be seen in terms of academic formal language and interactive informal language. Spoken language use in the classroom tended to be more informal, particularly when the teachers attempted to engage their pupils in discussions on content material. Maria, Elena and Anna, unlike Andreas, tended to use simple sentence structures and everyday vocabulary in question-answer sequences, which were geared towards explaining the meaning of the texts. In Anna's lessons, interactive informal language was also used between classmates during group activities. However, in mini-lectures, when the teachers were introducing a new topic, by giving their own view on it and/or explaining different concepts, they mainly used complex sentence structures, academic vocabulary and archaic expressions. So, at these times the spoken language use tended to be closer to academic formal than to the interactive informal language. In Andreas' case, the use of academic formal language was prevalent in all the lessons observed and there were few interactions between him and the pupils. Andreas, Maria and Elena exposed all the pupils to extensive spoken language use in the sense that they took up the majority of class talking time. Anna, on the other hand, gave GAL pupils the opportunity to listen to both the teacher's spoken informal language and that of their peers.

This has shown that the majority of teachers provided extensive input in their lessons as they included many academic written texts and exposed their pupils to extensive spoken language use. Apart from Andreas, they also used a mix of both academic formal and the interactive informal language. Even though the exposure to such input is beneficial for learners, it is important that the teachers can offer the instructional support required for pupils to deal with linguistic and cognitive challenges (Harris & Leung, 2007; Leung, 2012a; Wong Fillmore, 2014). The next subsections present the teaching strategies that the teachers used to this end.

10.5.2. Limited use of visual materials

As discussed in section 4.2, the use of visual materials can enhance learners' understanding of new information when teachers take into account learners'

background knowledge. Although Anna and Maria made an effort to use these so that pupils could comprehend input in their lessons, they did not do this frequently. Maria attempted to make classroom language comprehensible using visual materials during two episodes, but for no more than three minutes (see subsection 8.4.3). Anna only used a picture in one classroom episode, for approximately two minutes, to help pupils understand the meaning of a concept that she had presented orally (e.g. extract 5, page 174). Furthermore, when I asked them to comment on their practice, they did not refer to the importance of taking into account learners' prior learning and knowledge when adopting this practice. This may be the reason why the majority of GAL pupils did not become involved in classroom interactions connected with the use of visual aids. Considering this evidence, it seems that the two teachers seldom used visual materials to make their speech more comprehensible and when they did, they did not take into consideration different aspects, as suggested in the literature (see section 4.2).

10.5.3. Extensive use of comprehension questions

In our interviews, all the teachers pointed out that they used comprehension questions after the reading had finished, with the aim of either checking whether pupils comprehended the information stated explicitly in the texts or enhancing their understanding of the meaning of the texts. This was the main strategy that the teachers used during reading and listening comprehension activities. Elena and Andreas asked the comprehension questions from the textbook for all the reading comprehension activities. For example, in lesson 1, Elena asked the first comprehension question from the textbook to check whether pupils understood the meanings of text 1 (e.g. extract 7, page 195). Anna, on the other hand, always asked her own comprehension questions regarding the summaries that the groups presented in the classroom and she asked this type of question in one reading comprehension activity (e.g. extract 1, page 168). Maria, by contrast, only asked these questions for one listening comprehension activity during lesson 3 (e.g. extract 15, page 222).

However, as can be seen, few pupils were able to answer such questions and hence, to show their grasp of classroom language or content materials. These results agree with the findings of other studies which have argued that this strategy is traditional (Gibbons, 1991), and is closer to the context-reduced end of the framework proposed by Cummins (1996, 2000) (for a detailed description of this framework, see section 4.2), and thereby learners tend to struggle to comprehend input. From this perspective, it seems that the focal teachers did not provide contextual support to pupils, but instead, they expected them to rely on linguistic cues to understand the meaning of the texts to answer their comprehension questions. This practice did not enhance pupils' input comprehension and thus did not help them to gain access to academic formal as well as interactive informal language.

10.5.4. Limited teachers' speech modifications

Teachers' appropriate speech modifications tend to facilitate comprehension of classroom language (Chaudron, 1988; Long, 1985; Wong-Fillmore, 1985, see also section 4.2). In the lessons observed, Anna, Maria and Elena occasionally used a variety of speech adjustments but only during question-answer sequences. For these few times, they modified their speech by using everyday vocabulary and less complex sentences during question-answer sequences (see table 10.1 and extract 1).

Teachers/ Speech modifications	Anna	Elena	Maria
Simplification of teacher speech	3 episodes, for 10 minutes approximately	4 episodes, for 5 minutes approximately	2 episodes, no more than 8 minutes
Paraphrase	4 episodes, no more than 10 seconds	7 episodes, no more than 10 seconds	3 episodes, less than 5 minutes
Expansion of pupils' utterances	8 episodes, no more than 5 seconds	4 episodes, no more than 10 seconds	none
Comprehension checks	6 episodes, no more than 3 seconds	2 episodes, no more than 2 seconds	none

Table 10.1: Frequency and duration of teachers' speech modifications

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They also paraphrased the texts, their questions, their phrases or pupils' answers so as to provide their pupils more opportunities to understand classroom language. It is apparent that Elena used this modification more often than Maria and Anna (see table 10.1). For example, as can be seen in extract 17, Maria paraphrased a text about the evolution of graffiti by summarising the key points in a simple way for no more than one minute to improve the likelihood of her pupils comprehending its meaning. Anna and Elena usually expanded pupils' answers by adding factual information to explain further the meaning of their utterances (see table 10.1). For example, in extract 12 (cited on page 204) Elena intervened in order to make the meaning of the pupil's phrase understandable to the rest of the class. Anna and Elena sometimes used comprehension checks (see section 4.2) to aid wider understanding (e.g. extract 2, page 169).

The evidence presented in this section suggests that these three teachers simplified their vocabulary and syntax, paraphrased, expanded pupils' utterances and used comprehension checks to ensure that their pupils understood both academic texts and classroom language. However, despite the efforts made by these teachers to use these modifications, they did not use them frequently or extensively, and there is little evidence that these modifications helped the learners to comprehend classroom language. The simplification of content has been also seen as an inappropriate practice for promoting understanding (see section 4.2).

10.5.5. Summary and concluding comments

A number of studies have discussed the importance of using contextual support and teachers' speech modifications so as to help learners grasp aspects of spoken and written language (input) used in the classroom (see section 4.2). However, the focal teachers' practices only partially matched this principle. Most of time, they expected pupils to rely on linguistic cues to understand spoken language use, either academic formal or interactive informal, and to respond to their comprehension questions. This practice was not sufficient for supporting pupils' input understanding since the majority seemed unable to respond to the teachers' questions regarding academic texts or to become

involved in classroom interaction. These findings corroborate with the ideas of Leung (1996, 2012a) who suggests that pupils tend to have difficulties in comprehending the meaning of both academic formal and interactive informal language when relying exclusively on linguistic cues.

Only on rare occasions, three of the four teachers used contextual support and modified their speech to facilitate learners' understanding of classroom language and content materials. Nevertheless, although these teachers employed these strategies, their use was limited when considering the extensive amount of classroom language and content materials that the pupils were exposed to and in addition, they did not take into account the learners' background knowledge. This evidence suggests that the teachers need to engage with contextual support and speech modifications systematically and broadly as well as to consider their pupils' background. These practices can make input comprehensible and as a result, the teachers can foster their learners becoming more involved in classroom interactions.

10.6. Creating opportunities for extended language production

Learners' own extensive production of the target language for purposeful communication during classroom interactions can contribute to the promotion of language use and of language accuracy (Hawkins, 2010; Leung, 2001b; Swain, 1993; 1995, see also section 4.4). In the next subsections, I look for evidence from the lessons observed regarding the extent to which the teachers actually created opportunities for GAL pupils to produce extended and contingent talk during both whole-class and group activities (subsections 10.8.1 - 10.8.2). To do this, I partially used the COLT framework proposed by Allen et al. (1990) (see section 4.5). I also describe the pedagogic strategies that the teachers adopted for assisting their pupils to produce language (subsection 10.8.3).

10.6.1. Scant opportunities for language production in whole-class activities

The majority of the focal teachers did not create opportunities for extended and contingent talk in whole-class activities. Andreas gave the fewest opportunities for all the pupils to produce any kind of language as he took the greatest part of class talking time in all the lessons observed. Maria and Elena also provided limited opportunities as they took a great part of this time, while in lessons 2 and 3, Anna did give some opportunities for her class to produce language.

All the teachers mainly provided opportunities for GAL pupils to produce spoken language contributions during question-answer sequences. For example, despite the fact that Maria organised speaking activities, she only used questions to elicit pupils' straightforward answers. In all the lessons of the four teachers, the majority of the questions were display, meaning that, the teachers already knew the answers and only asked them to get their pupils to elicit facts or to display language knowledge. The answers by pupils to these questions were relatively predictable, as one only was possible semantically, and minimal, in that they consisted mainly of one-word or one-phrase utterances (see Allen et al., 1990). Pupils also used simplified language forms and everyday words. In grammar activities, pupils' answers were grammar-related and restricted, meaning that, they were expected to produce a specific language form during grammar practice activities (e.g. extract 9, page 199). On the other hand, their responses were meaning-related and unrestricted during reading comprehension and speaking activities, whereby they were not confined to using any particular linguistic form or vocabulary (e.g. extract 1, page 168). These results agree with the findings of other studies (see section 4.4), in which display questions invariably led to limited and minimal complexity of talk from pupils.

Anna and Elena, unlike the other teachers, asked a different type of question, the answers to which they did not know in advance in two and one speaking activities, respectively. These questions were about pupils' beliefs and opinions on different topics. In this case, pupils' answers were relatively unpredictable, meaning that, a range of answers was possible, and sustained, meaning that, they consisted of at least two main clauses (see Allen et al., 1990). Their

answers were meaning-related and unrestricted, i.e. they could use any language forms and vocabulary to reply (see Allen et al., 1990). They were also characterised by the use of simplified language forms and everyday words. For example, when Elena asked about the pupils' personal experiences regarding car accidents (see subsection 7.4.1), the talk of the four GAL pupils who did so consisted of at least two main clauses, was relatively unpredictable and unrestricted, and included simple language structures and vocabulary. This finding supports the perspective that an 'information request' (Allen et al., 1990) can elicit more extensive responses from pupils than display questions. However, the focal teachers used significantly fewer such requests when compared to display ones during the lessons that were observed.

10.6.2. Scant opportunities for language production during group activities

The involvement of pupils in group activities has been seen as a way of increasing the opportunities for language production (see section 4.5). Only Anna and Maria created opportunities for all the pupils to produce language while cooperating with their classmates to complete tasks. However, most of the time during these activities it was noticed that the majority of GAL pupils produced limited and simple language while only those who, according to the teachers, exhibited high academic performance produced extensive spoken language during this kind of activity. On the other hand, GMT pupils engaged in extensive spoken and written language as they narrated the main ideas of the texts, wrote the summaries and presented them to the class. In addition, when the teachers held group discussions, they asked display questions to elicit the correct answers from pupils whose responses were limited to one-word or one-phrase utterances.

10.6.3. Limited teachers' pedagogic strategies for promoting talk production

Cummins (2000) argues that teachers are able to use contextual cues not only to promote comprehension, but also to help pupils to produce both spoken and written language. Chaudron (1988) also states that teachers' speech

motifications can encourage pupils to produce language. In the lessons observed, Anna, Elena and Maria, unlike Andreas, used a few pedagogic strategies to encourage pupils to talk in their classrooms (see table 10.2). In the main, they rephrased their questions and usually repeated them to enable pupils to respond. Anna and Maria also used pictures or videos as a starting point to get the learners to produce extensive talk, because they considered that having such as these as references would facilitate their engagement in discussions. For example, in lesson 2, Maria organised a speaking activity around two pictures to help pupils to produce language (see extract 14, page 221). Despite the intention of these teachers, as can be seen in table 10.2, they did not use these strategies extensively or regularly.

Teachers/ pedagogic strategies	Anna	Elena	Maria
Reformulation	4 episodes, no more than 5 seconds	2 episodes, no more than 5 seconds	1 episode, no more than 3 seconds
Repetition	2 episodes, no more than 5 seconds	5 episodes, no more than 5 seconds	3 episodes, no more than 5 seconds
Use of visual materials	1 episode, no more than 5 minutes	none	2 episodes, no more than 15 minutes

Table 10.2: Frequency and duration of the teachers' pedagogic means used for promoting talk production

10.6.4. Summary and concluding comments

Although the teachers created opportunities for all the pupils to produce spoken and written language, these were short and mainly involved engaging the pupils in question-answer sequences. In such sequences, teachers' questions were of a display type, which resulted in all the pupils' responses being simple and limited. It seems possible that this occurred due to the teachers' constant need to check pupils' comprehension and language knowledge. Even in group activities, GAL pupils' talk appeared to have the same characteristics, with very few opportunities to practice extensive dialogue. These findings contrast with

other findings that support the view that group activities can lead to extensive language use (see section 4.4). A possible explanation for this might be that the teachers did not explain to all the pupils how to work together to complete a task. The teachers also did not provide their pupils with any opportunities to produce extended written language in classroom, but they did sometimes instruct them to write short texts for homework. This may be due to the teachers' need to complete the syllabus, which affected their teaching decisions, as all of them mentioned. These practices are counter to the principle stressing the importance of giving learners opportunities to undertake spoken and written language in order to master the language (see section 4.4).

Only on rare occasions did Anna and Elena put out opportunities for GAL pupils to contribute extensive spoken language during whole-class activities. The teachers, apart from Andreas, also adopted limited pedagogic strategies to encourage pupils to talk in their classrooms. However, it is likely that these limited practices have not contributed to GAL pupils' language development. These findings suggest that opportunities for producing extensive language, both written and oral, should be introduced into classroom activities on a systematic basis.

10.7. Promoting participation in classroom interactions

Participatory involvement in event/task-related interaction has been identified as a major contributing factor to language development (Leung, 2005a, 2013, 2014a). Such involvement can help pupils conceptualise how to exploit their language resources to communicate in a range of contexts inside and outside the classroom. In this section, I discuss the main participation structures of the lessons observed, the turn-allocations in these lessons (subsections 10.7.1 - 10.7.4) and the classroom layout (subsection 10.7.5). My aim is to illustrate the extent to which pupils actually participated in the lessons observed.

10.7.1. Restricted participation during whole-class interaction

The main participation structure was whole-class participation in all the teachers' lessons. This type of participation was used by Anna in eight activities, by Elena and Maria in all except for one, and by Andreas without exception. Under these circumstances, the teachers conducted the activities in exactly the same way for the whole class. They also initiated and guided interactions which were dyadic occurring between the teacher and individual pupils. They mainly addressed the questions to the whole class allowing anyone to participate in interactions and, most of the time, they regulated turn taking by choosing who would answer. In all such sessions, Anna, Elena and Maria nominated either GMT or GAL pupils, who, in their opinion, had developed communicative capacity, while Andreas nominated only the former. None of the teachers provided sufficient wait time between asking the question and soliciting a response. They also almost always concluded the interactions by providing positive or negative evaluation of the pupils' answers. Extract 11 (cited on page 202) is a good illustration of this practice where Elena engaged the whole class in the IRE sequence. This evidence indicates that they did not give extended opportunities for pupils to participate in classroom interactions (see section 4.5).

Sometimes, some of the teachers used different participation strategies. In four episodes of Anna and Maria's lessons observed, pupils who knew the answer shouted it without waiting for teacher nomination (e.g. extract 15, page 222) or the whole class answered in unison (e.g. extract 2, page 169). Anna, unlike the other teachers, gave feedback on pupils' responses in two episodes. Specifically, she did not provide pupils with the correct answer as in the case of evaluation, but helped them to find the answer to the initial question by providing them with several opportunities to answer, formulating their answers into further questions and requesting further information (e.g. extract 1, page 168). This seems to result in the pupils having more chances to participate in classroom interaction, as recommended in the literature (see section 4.5), rather than simple non-dialogic evaluation.

10.7.2. Competitive participation

In the majority of the lessons observed, only a few pupils participated in classroom interactions during the whole-class activities. In particular, in Maria, Elena and Andreas' lessons just a small number raised their hands to answer the teacher's questions. For example, in lesson 1, after Andreas asked the whole class a comprehension question about the text '*When the television tries to be serious*', only three GMT pupils raised their hands in response (see extract 19, page 245). In contrast, in the two activities during which Anna asked the whole class to express their opinion and personal experiences as well as on the one occasion that Elena did the same, many pupils, including GAL pupils, raised their hands to participate in classroom interactions. The teachers also always addressed questions in the whole class and then nominated one pupil to respond or sometimes addressed questions to particular pupils. They appeared to favour choosing certain pupils to answer their questions over others and it was also noticeable that some never offered any response at all. Thus, it became apparent that whole-class participation sessions did not provide many opportunities for GAL pupils to participate in classroom interactions.

10.7.3. Limited opportunities for individual learner work

Another participation structure was individual work which all the teachers employed in their lessons. Maria, Anna and Andreas only asked the pupils to do so for one activity, such as, in lesson 1, when Maria asked pupils to work individually for a multiple-choice exercise on subordinate sentences. By contrast, Elena asked pupils to work individually in all the grammar practice activities that she organised. In her opinion, individual work enabled them to consolidate language points that she had previously presented. These findings show that no opportunities were made available for the pupils to interact with either the teacher or their classmates during individual work activities. However, as discussed in section 4.5, such participation can enable learners to complete activities at their own pace and to grasp how to do so effectively.

10.7.4. Restricted participation during group work

As mentioned above, Anna and Maria were the only teachers who included group activities in the lessons that were observed. Nevertheless, even though both these teachers had the objective of getting all pupils to participate in peer interactions, the majority of GAL pupils had difficulties in doing so. Anna had allocated her pupils to groups without distributing roles, and so all the members were expected to participate equally in the tasks. The groups, which were permanent, consisted of both GMT and GAL pupils who had different degrees of academic proficiency. In her opinion, this group composition (mixed groups in terms of ethnicity and proficiency) would allow all to participate, but in the majority of cases the participation of GAL pupils was limited. In fact, within the groups, including those where GAL pupils were in the majority, it was always the GMT pupils who completed the tasks and the former took little or no part. This observation was also confirmed by my discussion with GAL pupils, some of whom stressed that they did not feel comfortable working in groups as they did not have the opportunity to participate in the discussions (interview with Anna's GAL pupils, 9/5/12).

This type of participation was also noticed in the group activity that Maria organised. Maria did not assign a specific role to each pupil in the group, but rather, all the group members were expected to participate equally in group discussions to accomplish their task. She formed the groups based on the seating arrangements formed by the pupils and consequently the groups were mainly homogenous. The two groups that consisted of only GAL pupils were discussing extracurricular activities, because, as they informed the teacher, they had difficulty in completing the activity. In the other groups, GAL pupils who, according to Maria, had high academic performance participated in the discussions. These findings further support the idea of organising group activities taking account of a variety of factors so that pupils' participation can be promoted (see section 4.5).

10.7.5. A quasi-traditional classroom layout

In all the lessons that were observed, Elena, Maria and Andreas arranged the class in a traditional way that seemed to restrict the pupils' participation in classroom interaction. All the pupils' chairs were facing forward and their desks were lined up in rows and were perpendicular to the front wall of the room. At a desk, they could sit either in pairs or alone and most of the time. The teachers always stood near their desk, which faced those of the pupils, standing on a raised platform and beside the whiteboard. As a result, all the pupils were looking at the teacher. This classroom layout encourages teacher-led and whole-class activities, where the teacher is seen as the dominant figure and the pupils are unable to communicate with classmates other than their immediate neighbour (see section 4.5).

Unlike the other teachers, in all of her lessons and in both whole-class and group-work activities, Anna arranged her classroom into clusters of two desks, and so each group consisted of four members. This helped the pupils have eye contact, which facilitated their participation in discussions. Some had their backs to the whiteboard and the teacher's desk, where she usually stood during teacher-led activities. Most of the time, however, she stood between the groups in order to encourage all of them to take part in her teacher-led discussions.

10.7.6. Summary and concluding comments

It is interesting to note that all the four GLTs rarely gave GAL pupils opportunities to become actively involved in classroom interactions. They mainly let their pupils to participate in whole-class activities being only able to engage in classroom talk after teachers requested them to respond to questions. This shows that pupils never initiated an interaction and had limited opportunities for interacting with their classmates. It may be due to the teachers' lack of knowledge about how fruitful such interactions can be. In the interviews, none referred to the relationship between the pupils' participation in classroom interactions and language development. On the other hand, two teachers organised a few group activities to get GAL pupils to communicate

with their classmates to complete a task. Nevertheless, the majority of GAL pupils rarely became involved in such interactions or initiated them. A probable explanation for this might be that the teachers did not design these activities after having taken into account the learners' backgrounds, needs and language levels, as well as the classroom contexts (for a related discussion, see section 4.5). It is apparent then that the teachers' practices only partially matched the principle that encourages the active participation of pupils in classroom talk (see section 4.5). So, it would seem to be of significance that teachers endeavour to involve all the pupils in activities where they would have the opportunity to interact with each other as well as initiate such communication in order to complete classroom tasks on a regular basis.

Although some similarities were found when comparing the teachers' beliefs and practices with the general principles for additional language teaching discussed in Chapter 4, it is apparent that there were also some striking key differences. The aim here is not to blame the GLTs for failing to address GAL in their classrooms in the way prescribed in the progressive literature. Rather, the principles for additional language teaching, as set out in Chapter 4, are put forward as general guidelines that teachers should be made aware of and could draw upon in some particular configuration so as to serve different learner cohorts across different contexts.

As mentioned in previous chapters, the focal teachers had had no training regarding GAL teaching in which they could have become aware of these principles, and the national curriculum that they were following makes no mention of these. From this perspective, the consideration of these differences is geared towards uncovering the gaps in education policies and highlighting the lack of attention paid to GAL in teacher education programmes, which has resulted in the insufficient teacher preparation regarding GAL teaching. In Chapter 11, I suggest ways that these gaps can be bridged such that the GAL dimension can be addressed systematically in the Greek education system.

Chapter 11

Conclusion and Recommendations

11.0. Introduction

In the last chapter of this thesis, the emphasis moves away from data analysis and interpretation, to the identification of the gaps in the way GAL has been addressed in real classroom settings and to a discussion on the implications of this research for pedagogy and teacher education. To begin with, I restate the research aims and questions, outline the methodological choices and summarise the key findings of this research with respect to the research questions. In section 11.3 recommendations for curriculum provision are put forward, while section 11.4 offers an account of the professional knowledge base that GLTs need to develop to teach the subject Greek in mainstream classrooms so that the GAL dimension can be addressed systematically. The chapter concludes with suggestions for further research directions and a discussion of the contribution of this case study research to the Greek and other educational contexts.

11.1. Summary of the research questions and methodological choices

Greek subject teachers have been expected to address the needs of both GMT and GAL pupils in their mainstream classrooms, in spite of the deficiencies of the Greek educational system and the teacher education regarding GAL teaching, as discussed in Chapter 2. With this in mind, this study set out to investigate how GAL is actually taught in real classrooms in which children from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds have been placed together. The research was guided by the following research questions:

1. How do the focal Greek language teachers conceptualise the teaching of GAL in their mainstream classroom?

2. What kinds of teaching strategies and activities are employed by the focal teachers when they work with GAL pupils, alongside GMT pupils, in their classrooms? How do these strategies and activities relate to their espoused beliefs?

3. To what extent do teachers' principles align with those regarding additional language teaching as found in the professional and research literature?

To tackle these questions, a qualitative case study approach was chosen not only because it has not been used before in Greek contexts for investigating this topic, but also because it would allow for an in depth and holistic examination of GAL teaching (see section 5.1). Three methods were chosen to collect a variety of data from the classrooms of the four participant-teachers: qualitative classroom observations, qualitative interviews and analysis of policy documents, the national curriculum and teaching materials (for a discussion of my methodological choices, see section 5.2). The analysis of the collected data contributed to the identification of the teachers' actual teaching practices in their classroom settings, of the pedagogic principles underlying their practices, their beliefs about GAL teaching, as well as to the unearthing of the philosophy underlying educational policies regarding GAL teaching. This led to a comprehensive understanding of the way that GAL was being taught by the four focal teachers in the context of the subject Greek.

11.2. GAL as a 'diffused' aspect in the mainstream classrooms

In this section, I comment on the key findings of my research with respect to the research questions. In subsection 11.2.1, I present the teachers' espoused beliefs about GAL teaching in order to address the first research question and the second part of the second. In subsection 11.2.2, I endeavour to explain why there are vast differences between these teachers' principles and additional

language principles seeking to highlight the gaps in teacher education and the national curriculum.

11.2.1. Teachers' conceptualisations of GAL teaching in the mainstream classroom

In the interviews, all the teachers stressed that GAL pupils need to learn the subject Greek in the same way as GMT pupils. They argued that the given curriculum aims, content and activities can serve the needs of both GAL and GMT pupils, and that the set textbook is appropriate for all the pupils irrespective of their linguistic and cultural background. Only Anna stressed the inappropriateness of the textbook because of the lack of intercultural texts, but she did consider it appropriate with respect to the class level. When expressing their views regarding language learning, they mainly considered that both GMT and GAL pupils could develop the language in a similar way. For instance, when suggesting that error correction can facilitate pupils' development of their writing skills, Elena believed that this applies to both GMT and GAL pupils. These espoused beliefs were reflected in their lessons observed. The focal teachers followed the given curriculum aims, content and activities when they planned and delivered their lessons to all the pupils indiscriminately. They also organised reading comprehension, listening, grammar presentation and grammar practice activities as suggested in the textbook without devising different activities for GAL pupils.

In the interviews, all four respondents suggested that GAL pupils who still had language problems needed to join language support classes outside regular school hours. Nevertheless, in order to facilitate GAL pupils' understanding of the subject Greek, Anna and Maria pointed out that they had to use teaching strategies different from those used in a monolingual classroom. For example, Anna organised group activities and Maria adopted visual aids, which, for them, can support GAL pupils' comprehension of the subject content. Elena also shared that she had to simplify the curriculum content and activities to make classroom language comprehensible and to engage GAL pupils in classroom activities. This indicates that the teachers did not consider themselves solely

responsible for supporting GAL pupils in developing additional language proficiency, but rather, they saw themselves as being tasked with supporting these pupils in meeting the demands of the subject Greek. It also seems that three out of the four teachers have endorsed the conceptualisation of the national curriculum regarding GAL teaching. The curriculum recommends that in order to teach this subject in a mainstream classroom, GLTs should use strategies different from those they usually adopt in monolingual classrooms without specifying what types of strategies (see section 1.3). On the other hand, Andreas expressed the belief that he did not have to change his teaching because of the attendance of GAL pupils in his class. In his opinion, they had the same learning needs as GMT pupils. The observations of his lessons confirmed that his teaching practices were consistent with his belief. This probably suggests that Andreas did not believe that a GAL dimension should be included in mainstream classrooms. Seen in this light, GAL has been mainly conceptualised as a matter of embracing generic and just-in-time teaching practices.

11.2.2. 'GAL' teaching and the participant teachers

As discussed in Chapter 10, the differences are apparent between the focal teachers' practices and key principles for additional language teaching (see Chapter 4). The participant teachers mainly taught the subject Greek as a mother tongue without incorporating the GAL dimension in their lesson delivery. This could be attributed to the lack of their teacher education regarding additional language teaching principles and practices. As they shared, none of them attended courses related to GAL teaching in their initial teacher education. Only Anna had attended relevant in-service teacher education programmes while Maria and Andreas had attended random seminars. Furthermore, it seems that they were not able to access relevant literature and the national curriculum that they were following has not incorporated these general principles. As mentioned in section 2.3, the curriculum addresses GAL not as a 'distinct' subject, such as subject Greek and maths, but as a 'diffused' curriculum concern (see Leung, 2001a), indicating that GAL has not been given subject status. For example, the curriculum makes a reference to the needs of

GAL pupils in the subject Greek (see section 2.3), but provides little and only abstract information on how teachers could meet these pupils' needs. On the other hand, it refers extensively to how GMT pupils' needs can be addressed.

Nevertheless, it can be seen that the teachers occasionally drew on some aspects of additional language teaching principles in their lessons. It is apparent, however, that they did not adopt them consistently or consciously as the majority did not have knowledge of these principles. They mainly followed these principles because of their strong similarity to language teaching principles proposed in the national curriculum. For example, they taught grammatical components, focused on text meaning and gave language production opportunities, because these activities are suggested in the national curriculum and are contained in teaching materials in relation to the teaching of the subject Greek, rather than explicitly adopting GAL teaching principles. They may also have embraced them due to their affinity with mother tongue teaching approaches. By way of illustration, their assumption that exposure to academic texts can contribute to the development of both comprehension and production skills may be related to first language acquisition theories (see Brown, 2000; Paribakht & Wesche, 1993).

Furthermore, Maria used visual aids since she believed that in this way, she could keep all pupils' interest alive while Anna used pictures because she felt that when she was a learner herself, she was able to grasp concepts when they were related in this way. This indicates that these are strategies that they would have employed in any teaching situation regardless of whether the class included GAL pupils. On the whole, the findings of this study suggest that the focal teachers were not aware of the principles of additional language teaching and hence, continued to apply teaching practices appropriate for monolingual classrooms. Seen in this light, the national curriculum needs to be amended and teacher education needs to be restructured so that teachers can tailor their teaching to the needs of both their GAL and GMT pupils.

11.3. Implications for curriculum provision

This section is concerned with the adjustments that could be made in order for the national curriculum to serve the needs of all pupils irrespective of their linguistic or cultural background. As discussed in section 2.3, there is no GAL-sensitive curriculum, and GAL teaching has not been given subject status. There is also the assumption that mainstream teachers can facilitate GAL pupils' participation in the curriculum subjects by adopting generic teaching practices that have not been specified in the national curriculum without adapting its aims, content and assessment criteria (see section 2.3). This perspective can be also confirmed by the findings of this study. The focal teachers mainly conceptualised and approached GAL teaching only as a matter of applying some diffuse teaching practices that can contribute to GAL learners' involvement in the subject area. There is, therefore, a definite need for amending the current national curriculum so as to incorporate a dedicated GAL extension applicable for GAL pupils.

11.3.1. Alternative curriculum models

As was pointed out in section 2.3, bilingual programmes may not be appropriate for Greek education contexts on the grounds that more than one GAL pupils' mother tongues can be found in mainstream classrooms. In such contexts, the integration of AL learners into the mainstream educational provision should be encouraged. This does mean that the development of the host language as an additional should be supported in these classrooms along with the recognition that learners' mother tongues need to be acknowledged during classroom delivery. Of course, as mentioned in section 2.2, Greek authorities attempted to promote the development of GMT pupils' mother tongue/s in cross-cultural school or in after-school classes but this has not been systematic.

Some European and English speaking countries have attempted to integrate additional language within the mainstream curriculum in a variety of ways (e.g. Leung, 2007; Mohan et al., 2001). The variation noticed in these examples can be attributed to the different educational contexts, ideologies, political and

social processes underlying education policy decisions (Leung, 2007). In England, even though there is no dedicated EAL curriculum and the non-EAL-oriented national curriculum is presented as suitable for both English mother tongue and EAL pupils, there has been recognition of the different needs of EAL learners and so, the need for a pedagogic shift. All subject teachers are expected to adopt systematically different teaching practices defined by the curriculum to facilitate EAL learners' participation in the mainstream age-appropriate classroom. EAL specialist teachers, where available, or teaching assistants are also expected to support pupils in the mainstream classroom and to collaborate with mainstream teachers towards planning EAL-sensitive lessons (Leung, 2007). In this curriculum provision, however, there is a possibility that the needs of EAL pupils and the necessity for a dedicated EAL curriculum could be downplayed since EAL has been seen as a general communicative issue (see Leung, 2007, for a discussion). Another limitation of this model is that mother tongue development has not been addressed. However, it is permitted to be used when appropriate as a way of facilitating English development.

In Victoria, Australia, where EAL learners have also been integrated into the mainstream classroom, different structural options and curriculum approaches have been developed. The system of this state has included "mainstream classes with EAL support, mainstream classes with some separate EAL classes, EAL classes combined with some mainstream classes and intensive English classes in separate English language centres" (Davison, 2001a). These options in the curriculum structure are closely connected to the different stages of EAL development. By way of illustration, the curriculum emphasises the development of the host language for beginner EAL pupils, whereas the learning of curriculum content comes into focus only at more advanced stages of their development (Davison, 2001a). In addition, mother tongue may be used occasionally to enhance pupils' progress. So, in Victoria, an EAL dedicated curriculum has been applied and a variety of curriculum approaches has been embraced that takes into account pupils' language proficiency. This curriculum model was also implemented in some parts of California before and after Proposition 227 (see Leung, 2007, for a discussion). Nevertheless, as Leung

(2007) explains, in the past few years many obstacles have been placed to applying this system across Australia due to the introduction of economic policies aimed at reducing public expenses and at increasing competitiveness.

In Denmark, which has been considered as being one of the EU countries that has delivered effective practices for AL pupils (PPMI, 2013), a differentiated curriculum for AL learners has been adopted. Reception classes for beginner AL learners which aim at the development of Danish as an additional language have been launched and a language assessment framework for identifying the kind of language support needed to be provided has been developed. There is a gradual participation of AL pupils into the curriculum subjects while continuous language support is provided within the mainstream classroom depending on AL learners' progress (PPMI, 2013). Special classes have also been introduced for "weaker students who do not have educational attainment appropriate for their age or have learning difficulties that do not allow them to continue upper secondary education" (PPMI, 2013: 101). In Danish regular schools, the respect of diversity has been encouraged and teachers usually receive training in it (ibid). However, no differentiated support is provided to the newly arrived and the other AL pupils within mainstream classrooms (ibid).

Different approaches could also be adopted for the promotion of mother-tongue instruction within the regular school that mainly promotes the host language development. PPMI (2013) recommends the following approaches: "offering immigrant languages as modern foreign languages within the curriculum, using bilingual classroom assistants, providing team teaching with a mother tongue teacher and training teachers to support their students in using their language competencies as a learning tool" (p. 96). The case of Austria is a good illustration of the way that mother-tongue development could be included in the mainstream classroom. AL pupils' mother tongues are taught as an optional curriculum subject either in afternoon classes or within the mainstream classroom where the mother-tongue teacher is working alongside the mainstream one. Other EU countries, such as Ireland and Sweden have also incorporated this perspective in the curriculum of regular schools (for a description, see PPMI, 2013).

Despite their limitations, these practices can provide an illustration of how GAL and mother tongue instruction can be integrated within the mainstream curriculum. Taking account also of a range of factors, such as educational contexts, teachers' beliefs as well as their practices, a combination of different types of curriculum provision would best address GAL teaching in Greek educational contexts. An OECD report (2010a) emphasises that EU educational policies following a holistic approach, i.e. they promote different policies considering a range of contextual factors, tend to meet the needs of AL pupils rather than when one kind of policy is adopted, such as in Greece and Cyprus which both have centralised education systems. Sweden is a good illustration of this policy. It has established reception classes focusing on teaching Swedish as an additional language while the help provided in mainstream classrooms tends to be based on learners' performance (PPMI, 2013). What follows is an outline of how GAL teaching and learning could be introduced as a mandatory part of the Greek national curriculum.

11.3.2. GAL-sensitive Greek curriculum provision

The policy underlying the current Greek national curriculum and the focal teachers' principles and practices have led me to the conclusion that the current curriculum has not integrated GAL teaching in a systematic and principled way. So, taking account of the advantages and deficiencies of the curriculum models explained above and in section 4.1, theories of additional language teaching and learning (see Chapter 4), the educational contexts (see Chapter 2) and the codes that emerged from the observations and interviews (see Appendices 11 and 12), I recommend a curriculum model that would create space for GAL development within the national curriculum. As mentioned above, this model should follow a holistic approach, i.e. it should embrace different perspectives with regards to the different levels of GAL development and learners' needs. It should include support classes for beginners, continuous support within the mainstream classroom for all GAL pupils, GAL-sensitive teaching principles and practices, differentiated assessment as well as exploitation of different mother tongues. This shows that there is a need for a GAL assessment framework which would assess GAL pupils' language knowledge and level. Such framework would

assist with the identification of the kind of language support that should be given to individual GAL pupils. Here, I follow the description of language levels (beginning, second and advanced level) proposed by Leung and Franson (2001c), because these pertain to the levels of AL learners.

For GAL pupils who have no knowledge of Greek, there is a need to develop quickly both interactive informal and academic formal language. So, it would be beneficial for them to attend some separate GAL support classes, which would promote the development of Greek through subject content. These classes should not have the characteristics of the current integration ones (see section 2.2) which mostly promote the development of the grammatical component of interactive informal language. In such classes, as explained in section 2.2, GAL pupils tend not to receive the appropriate preparation for joining the mainstream classroom. By contrast, the curriculum focus of GAL support classes needs to be on the attainment of all aspects of communicative competence of both academic formal and interactive informal language. In addition, the content should be drawn from the topics of the national curriculum while GAL-sensitive practices, e.g. focus-on-form instruction, need to be encouraged. Pupils' mother tongue could be also used as a transitional aid and references to their culture could be included in the teaching materials. So, these classes should adopt 'contextualised language teaching' (see section 4.1, for a description). When these pupils attend mainstream classrooms, GAL specialist teachers could support them by exposing them to spoken or written language and offering them opportunities for language development.

GAL pupils who have reached a good level in interactive informal language use and have an evolving ability to read and write could participate exclusively in mainstream classrooms. Unlike prosperous countries like Australia, the Greek education system at present is not able to endow support classes for GAL pupils at the second level owing to the current financial crisis. Statistical data also demonstrate that fewer support classes have been running in the recent years of austerity than integration classes, which would appear to provide evidence for this assumption (see section 2.2). Nevertheless, in mainstream classrooms, it would be helpful if a GAL specialist teacher was present in addition to the

mainstream teacher for providing targeted support. The specialist could help them develop the linguistic components of academic formal language as well as to comprehend and produce subject-specific language for different subject areas. Of course, this does not mean that the development of interactive informal language should be pushed aside. As discussed in section 4.3, teachers need to continue promoting the development of interactive informal language when necessary. GAL pupils who are able to use Greek appropriately in almost all the social and academic situations, but still need to improve their academic formal language use, could also get the required support within the mainstream classroom rather than in support classes.

In mainstream classrooms, not only should GAL specialists focus on the aspects of language that they have difficulties with, but also the mainstream teachers should increasingly be better equipped for addressing these difficulties. For learners at all language levels, the mainstream teacher should adapt their curriculum aims by integrating subject-specific language goals, their content and assessment criteria and embracing GAL-sensitive teaching practices, such as engaging learners in language production activities that would lead to extensive and contingent language use. These adaptations should be based on their learners' needs and language level. Of course, this does not mean that mainstream teachers should simplify their lessons. As Gibbons (2009) rightly highlights, teachers need to provide an intellectually challenging curriculum in which:

> … all students, including EL learners, are afforded the opportunities to think creatively, transform information, engage in inquiry-oriented activity and construct their own understanding through participating in substantive conversations and, critically, are given the scaffolding and support to be successful (p. 1).

Seen in this light, 'language-conscious teaching' (see section 4.1, for a description) should be adopted in which mainstream teachers need to develop suitable and systematic aids so that GAL pupils can cope with the linguistic and cognitive demands.

In addition to the above mentioned practices, the current national curriculum needs to be adjusted so that the GAL pupils' needs could be taken into account. It must highlight the language knowledge and skills that they need to develop alongside subject content knowledge so that language development can occur at the same time as subject content mastery. Considering my findings and the current syllabus of the subject Greek, curriculum aims that encourage the development of sociocultural and discourse competence in both academic formal and interactive informal language should be added. It is also essential that the teaching materials are amended so that themes from a range of cultures could be included. For instance, in the subject Greek, social issues of other societies and not only the host society could be discussed.

The curriculum should embrace GAL-sensitive pedagogical principles emerging from those pertaining to additional language teaching, as discussed in Chapter 4, and provide illustrative examples to demonstrate how these principles could be applied in actual classroom settings. In Table 11.1, I present the principles that could fill the gaps identified in the teachers' practices in terms of GAL teaching and in the subject Greek syllabus. For example, it was apparent that none of the focal teachers explained how the language points presented in their lessons could be used appropriately in a range of contexts. This may be, inter alia, due to the lack of clarity regarding this principle in the curriculum or teacher instruction manual. It is then necessary that this principle becomes an important part of the curriculum in the sense that it would enhance pupils' appropriate language use (see section 4.3, for a discussion).

Curriculum principles

1. Subject-specific language aims and GAL aims
2. Lessons based on learners' background information, Greek proficiency and prior knowledge
3. Linguistic structures and features of interactive informal language
4. Sociolinguistic aspects of both academic formal and interactive informal language
5. Explicit teaching of the characteristics of text types used in subjects across

the curriculum	
6. Communicative and focus-on form activities	
7. Systematic use of contextual support and speech modification	
8. Use of information request questions	
9. Student-led instruction	
10. Systematic use of the IRF sequence in whole class participation	
11. Carefully designed collaborative group activities	
12. Use of pupils' mother tongue opportunistically	

Table 11.1: Principles of a GAL-sensitive national curriculum

These are general principles that should be adapted and made specific, taking into consideration the class level, different subject area demands as well as the language level and background information of GAL pupils. This suggests that the national curriculum needs to offer a framework which mainstream teachers would have the flexibility to adjust after taking into account the classroom contexts and their learners. As explained in section 2.3, the curriculum is the same for all teachers and learners in all contexts, which may have been why the observed teachers failed to differentiate their lesson aims, content and assessment criteria. However, in order for teachers to revise their lesson plans accordingly, they need appropriate training so as to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills (see section 11.4).

Besides designing a GAL assessment framework, the curriculum designers also should re-define the assessment criteria of the subject areas. As discussed in subsection 2.3.3, these criteria currently are based on GMT learners' language performance and needs, and are the same for all years. The revised curriculum should consist of differentiated subject-specific language knowledge and skills that GAL pupils need to develop so that they could deal with the linguistic demands of the subject areas for the different years. By way of illustration, Year 1 when learners are introduced to subject-specific literacy and academic language are likely to experience different language demands than Year 3 where they have to pass the final exams to enter the senior secondary school.

This suggests that a subject-specific GAL assessment system would need to be designed based on such differences.

In addition, the Greek authorities need to offer systematically some programmes that would promote GAL pupils' mother tongues where appropriate. This not only would help GAL pupils keep developing their mother tongue but also would contribute to GAL development and to high academic performance (see section 2.3, for discussion). Mainstream teachers should be advised to encourage GAL learners with the same mother tongue to work together and more advanced ones might support beginners' understanding of subject concepts. Mother tongues could also be incorporated as optional curriculum subjects in the mainstream classroom. As mentioned in subsection 2.3.1, it might be difficult to organise mother tongue classes outside the mainstream classroom. However, in these courses, mother tongues should be not conceptualised as foreign languages and foreign language pedagogy should be avoided in the sense that such conceptualisations tend to ignore GAL pupils' language needs and backgrounds (see Tosi, 1999). This recommends that in these courses, mother tongue pedagogy, i.e. the development of communicative competence in both academic formal and interactive informal language, must be promoted.

Generally, this curriculum model suggests that the focus of the current integration classes needs to be changed and GAL specialists need to enter the mainstream classroom. The current national curriculum needs to become GAL-sensitive by modifying the aims, content, teaching materials, teaching methodology and assessment criteria and to contain mother tongue curriculum subjects. This means that mainstream teachers should develop the knowledge and attitude to accept this curriculum change and apply it in practice. In the section that follows, I propose the professional knowledge base that mainstream teachers as independent professionals need to develop so as to be able to teach all pupils effectively in mainstream classrooms.

11.4. Implications for teacher education and professional development

In this section, I discuss the pedagogic implications of this research for GLT education. As mentioned earlier in this thesis, there are gaps in teacher education and professional development regarding GAL teaching and in the knowledge and expertise of the focal GLTs to address this dimension in their classroom. This indicates that there is a need for teacher education programmes of Schools of Greek Language and Literature and in-service programmes to be modified so as to take this dimension into account. The findings of this study that explored what teachers know, believe and practise in terms of GAL teaching would be helpful in building on what teachers have already known so that an appropriate professional knowledge base for GLTs to teach the subject Greek in classrooms with pupils from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds could be proposed.

11.4.1. Designing teacher education and professional development programmes

The current GLT initial education programmes have mainly prepared applied scientists who have linguistic knowledge that they can apply in practice without having developed expertise in teaching and reflexivity. They have also prepared teachers only to teach the subject Greek in monolingual classrooms. On the other hand, in-service GLT education programmes tend to have an interventional character proposing effective teaching practices that GLTs need to apply in any classroom context (see section 2.4). However, as pointed out in Chapter 3, the traditional models of teachers as mechanical operators who have to apply particular skills and follow plans as well as being applied scientists who have to develop theoretical knowledge to be able to teach in real classrooms, have increasingly become discredited regarding their ability to prepare teachers for classroom settings (Graves, 2009; Leung, 2012b). Teachers tend to base their teaching practices neither on university-based knowledge nor on pre-given lesson plans, but on their beliefs about different aspects of their teaching, their conceptualisations of theoretical knowledge and on contextual factors (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnson, 2009, see also section 3.1). So it

seems that teacher education needs to prepare them to be informed independent professionals who are aware of the impact of their beliefs and values in terms of how these can influence their teaching practices. Teachers also need sufficient knowledge and expertise to be able to ensure that their adopted practices are appropriate in the different classroom contexts (Eraut, 1994; Leung, 2009, 2012b). Having this perspective in mind, in order to prepare professional GLTs, designers of teacher education and development programmes need to take account of the following three aspects.

First, the content of teacher education programmes should be based on the current theories of language teaching education. As Leung (2012b) argues, over the years, the content of these programmes has been changing depending on theories considered effective for language teaching (for a discussion, see section 3.2). From this perspective, it seems important that the general principles of teaching additional languages in linguistically and culturally diverse classrooms should be acknowledged in the current GLT education programmes. This would enable GLTs to use them in a generic way that involves adapting their practices to suit each learning context they face.

Second, teacher educators should be aware of the importance of preparing teachers to adapt their teaching according to different classroom environments, student populations and the varying demands of particular education systems (Leung, 2012b). As mentioned in section 3.2, during their teaching career, teachers work in a variety of educational contexts and systems, and with pupils with different characteristics. If they want to provide a meaningful experience for all learners, they cannot plan and deliver the same teaching in different classroom and educational environments. Therefore, teacher education needs to prepare GLTs to become able to cope with the demands of different educational contexts and systems and to modify their teaching accordingly.

Third, teachers' previous knowledge and beliefs about language teaching need to be taken into consideration in curriculum design for teacher education and to be used as a basis for further learning. As discussed in section 3.1, teachers' beliefs about different aspects of their work as well as their prior knowledge

tend to have an impact on what and how they learn and whether they are open to new knowledge and values (Borg, 2006; Graves, 2009; Johnson, 2009). Based on the finding of this study, it is important to acknowledge that GLTs are fairly knowledgeable in Greek philology and *inter alia* they have developed linguistic knowledge about the language as a mother tongue during their initial teacher education. They are also Greek native speakers who are competent language users but much of their knowledge may be implicit. As discussed above, the focal GLTs were also working under the assumption that GAL pupils need to learn the subject Greek the same way as GMT pupils. So, teachers need to be engaged in reflective activities that could lead to them challenging and changing their beliefs and values.

On a practical level, GLT education programmes need to enable GLTs to develop disciplinary knowledge regarding GAL teaching, pedagogic content knowledge, contextual knowledge (of learners, school and society) and critical reflection skills (see section 3.2). These kinds of knowledge are interconnected and inform one another, therefore, teachers also need to learn how to combine them to cope with teaching demands (Woods, 1996). Below, I put forward the components of the professional knowledge base that GLTs who are not GAL specialists will need to develop during their initial teacher education and professional development bearing in mind that the focus of this study is on GAL teaching in mainstream classrooms and not in separate support classes.

11.4.2. Defining the professional knowledge base of Greek (as a mother tongue) teachers

Being aware of the content of the current GLT education (see section 2.4), having seen what actually happens in the four classrooms and the teachers' beliefs regarding GAL teaching (see Chapters 6-9 and Appendices 11 and 12), I acknowledge that these and their background knowledge in philology has not supported them in GAL teaching or in conceptualising what GAL is. So, drawing on the professional knowledge base suggested in the empirical and theoretical literature and discussed in Chapter 3, I suggest that GLTs need to

develop the following additional knowledge and expertise in order to address GAL in their mainstream classroom (see Table 11.2).

Professional knowledge base

1. Disciplinary knowledge
a) Theories of additional language learning
b)   Intercultural Pedagogy
2. Pedagogic content knowledge
a) Pedagogic knowledge of how to teach Greek subject-specific language use
b) Pedagogic knowledge of how to teach everyday language knowledge use
c) Pedagogic knowledge of how to teach text types
d) Pedagogic knowledge of how to promote interaction in their classrooms
e) Pedagogic knowledge of how to teach grammar and focus on meaning
f) Pedagogic knowledge of how to promote language production and input comprehension
g) Expertise in assessing pupils' needs and classroom context
3. Reflexivity
a) Critical reflection on their beliefs, prior knowledge and teaching practices
b) Evaluating curriculum aims, content, teaching materials, educational policies

Table 11.2: Professional knowledge base for GLTs

Firstly, GLTs should have knowledge of theories of additional language learning. In their initial education, they usually have not had the opportunity to attend courses about these theories as the current GLT education programmes very rarely include any relevant or compulsory courses. This suggests that GLTs need to gain an understanding of the difference between learning a language as a mother tongue and learning it as an additional language. This knowledge would help them modify their practice so as to be able to cater

effectively for both their GMT and GAL pupils. For example, they should be aware of the importance for GAL pupils to have opportunities to produce extensive spoken and written language.

They need also to have knowledge of intercultural education, which they often have not developed in their initial education owing to the lack of such a focus in university curricula. This knowledge would make teachers aware of the connection between language and culture as well as the negative consequences of racism and stereotyping (Menken & Antunez, 2001). It would also enable teachers to cope with linguistic and cultural diversity in the classroom as well as to become cognisant of the importance of respecting and including aspects of the culture of GAL pupils in their lessons (see Carrasquillo & Rodrguez, 2002, and section 3.2).

Apart from theoretical knowledge, teachers need to become familiar with teaching practices that they could use in their lessons to teach GAL through their subject content. They should learn how to teach explicitly the Greek subject-specific language knowledge (vocabulary, language expressions and structural elements) that they have mainly developed during their initial education to facilitate pupils' development of academic formal language. They also need to understand how to teach the everyday language that they have probably developed as native speakers so as to assist pupils to use it in informal interactive contexts.

GLTs need not only to be aware of the characteristics of a variety of text types, but also to grasp how they can teach them explicitly to pupils so that they can comprehend and produce a range of academic written texts. They should be also informed about the participation structures that promote classroom interaction and how they could apply them in different classrooms. For example, teacher education could include courses that inform teachers about how group work can be applied in a class, its characteristics and requirements, as well as the occasions when they could use it.

They should know the different approaches to grammar teaching and, in particular, the need to focus on meaning. During their first degree, GLTs tend to develop knowledge of Greek grammar and of how to interpret texts. However, I concluded from the lessons that I observed that the participant teachers did not show awareness of the different ways of teaching grammar and of text comprehension in different classroom contexts. GLTs also need to become familiar with a range of teaching practices that promote language production and pupils' comprehension of classroom language and content material. If teachers were to implement these recommendations, their GAL pupils would be able to cope with the language demands of different contexts and hence, become more on a par with their GMT counterparts.

GLTs need to develop expertise in assessing the language level of GAL pupils and their needs as well as the ability to judge classroom context (see Freeman, 1989; Garcia, 1996, and also section 3.2). In addition, they have to be aware of these pupils' background experience and dispositions, and especially their previous schooling so as to be able to identify the demands and the potential difficulties that GAL pupils could face (see Carrasquillo & Rodrguez, 2002; Leung, 2012b). This would lead them to adapt their lesson aims, content and teaching materials taking into account all pupils' needs.

Besides disciplinary and pedagogic content knowledge, GLTs need to develop skills of reflexivity. As professionals, they should be capable of questioning their beliefs, background knowledge and their teaching practices on a constant basis (see Borg, 2009; TESOL, 2010, and also section 3.2). Through critical reflection they would have the opportunity to investigate their teaching, adapt their practices in a teaching situation and combine their past experience to solve current problems (Calderhead, 1996; Johnson, 1999). They should also develop expertise in evaluating teaching materials and curricula as well as gaining a critical awareness of the education policies regarding GAL. This would enable them not only to identify policy deficiencies but also to be able to address them in order to plan and deliver GAL-related lessons. Of course, this is a general knowledge base that needs to be adapted to meet local conditions. In the following subsection, I suggest ways this knowledge base could be incorporated

into the initial and in-service teacher education programmes taking account of the current Greek teacher education system.

11.4.3. Organising teacher education and professional development programmes

In Greece, initial teacher education is provided by the universities that have total autonomy for designing and organising their curriculum (Eurydice, 2015). This means that teacher educators are the ones who can decide how they could modify the curriculum to include a GAL perspective. One way of doing this is to add a compulsory course in the existing curricula, as the University of Minnesota did in the initial education of primary school teachers (for a description, see Lucas & Grinberg, 2008). This course could be organised in three modules that would enhance the development of disciplinary knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge and of reflective skills. For instance, one module could inform teachers about the principles of additional language development and how they can be applied in real classroom settings. This would enable all teachers to become aware of the need to adapt their lesson plans and teaching practices in multilingual and multicultural classroom. However, a single course might not provide teachers with the knowledge and expertise required to design and deliver GAL-sensitive lessons.

Teacher educators could infuse the suggested knowledge base into existing courses (see EUCIM-TE, 2010; Lucas & Grinberg, 2008). By way of illustration, the existing university course which aims at the development of linguistic knowledge about GMT could make reference to the development of knowledge regarding GAL and engage trainees in evaluating their assumptions about language. Special seminars or lectures on pedagogical issues could be organised so that trainees could become aware of the importance of GAL teaching across the national curriculum. The universities that include teaching practicum might also encourage trainees to observe and deliver lessons in multicultural and multilingual classrooms. However, such modifications might be difficult to be implemented on the grounds that, as mentioned above, all teacher educators need to agree upon them. They might be motivated for such

change in case the ASEP (see section 2.4) would consider this kind of knowledge base salient for teachers to be appointed in public schools.

The in-service teacher education programmes are mainly organised by the Regional Training Centres (*Περιφερειακά Επιμορφωτικά Κέντρα*)[20], the universities and schools (for other training bodies, see Doukas et al., 2007). It is compulsory for newly-appointed teachers to participate in induction training for four months organised by the Regional Training Centres (Eurydice, 2015). The aim of this training is to inform teachers about the educational system, their role, the teaching approaches of their subject areas, the use of technology and how to work with pupils with special educational needs (Makri-Mpotsari, 2007). In this training, the teaching methodology modules could be extended by raising methodological issues of language and content integration in mainstream classrooms. The training could also introduce modules on GAL pupils' backgrounds and on how to work with these pupils, as well as encourage the acquisition of critical reflection skills.

In-service teachers are obligated to participate in in-service programmes in a range of areas defined by the central government or the administrative executives (Doukas et al., 2007). One such programme could be on the GAL teaching in mainstream classrooms. These programmes, however, tend to ignore classroom reality as well as teachers' own views and principles as well as their actual practices (Eurydice, 2015). So, it is necessary for designers to take into account a range of contextual factors and teacher cognition so that in-service teachers can be prepared to teach GAL through their subject areas in actual classroom contexts. For example, considering that Andreas was not aware of the number and the background of GAL pupils in the Greek educational system (see Chapter 9), a programme could inform in-service teachers about the numbers of such pupils in Greece, their cultural and linguistic backgrounds as

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[20] The Regional Training Centres were established in 1985 by the Greek ministry of Education. They are responsible for organising and delivering a range of compulsory and optional professional development programmes for primary and secondary school teachers. However, the ministry is the entity that defines the type, the topic and the duration of the programmes as well as the number of participants (Decree, 1992).

well as the need to take into account these factors when designing and delivering their lessons.

There have been some attempts to undertake school-based training in collaboration with universities in Greece (Eurydice, 2015). Schools with GAL pupils with the help of teacher educators could design such training after taking account of their school, learners and their own needs. In these programmes, in addition to developing knowledge and expertise in GAL teaching, teachers could be provided with the opportunity to experiment with new teaching practices and to identify those most effective for their classroom contexts. Universities could also organise conferences and seminars for in-service teachers focusing on disciplinary or pedagogical content knowledge after evaluating the local contexts. Seen in this light, there is an extensive need to include a GAL dimension as part of the current initial and in-service teacher education programmes so that teachers would be able to teach language through their subject areas.

11.5. Further research directions

The findings of this study indicate that research grounded in teachers' actual teaching practices and principles can make a significant contribution to a better understanding of how GAL teaching is being addressed in real classroom settings. Nevertheless, there is a great need for further research as little has been conducted in relation to secondary education in Greece. In this section, I briefly outline recommendations for further research on this subject matter.

Future research incorporating a larger sample size and conducted in a range of contexts would be of value. One limitation of this study was the small sample size which prevented generalised statements about GAL teaching in mainstream classrooms. The research conducted in two schools in the same area of Thessaloniki with a high percentage of GAL pupils may not accurately reflect GAL teaching in other areas of the country. So, future research covering a range of contexts across the country would give a clearer picture of how GAL

teaching has been addressed in different parts of Greece. This additional information could contribute to the development of a pedagogic framework that would enable GLTs to meet the needs of both GAL and GMT pupils in mainstream classrooms. As Breen et al. (2001) point out, the better understanding of teachers' principles, as has been one of the goals of the current research, would ensure that practitioners reflect on how they could modify their teaching to cater for different contexts as well as contribute to the development of language teaching frameworks that are grounded in classroom reality.

The present research focused on GAL teaching in the subject Greek classes because GLTs have had linguistic training, and the national curriculum of this subject only makes reference to GAL pupils. Another avenue for enquiry would be to investigate how secondary teachers from a range of subject areas deal with GAL pupils in their Greek mainstream classrooms. For example, how maths or physics teachers handle the GAL dimension. This would be of interest, in particular, because the national curriculum does not refer to these pupils in subjects other than the subject Greek and teachers of other subjects have not had relevant training, as mentioned in section 2.4. Such a study would uncover whether GAL pupils were being handicapped in other curricula areas due to lack of appropriate training for these teachers. Overall, the proposed research would contribute to creating a holistic picture of how Greek secondary education has conceptualised and approached GAL teaching.

In this study, the participants were presented with key instructional episodes from their lessons and were prompted to comment on my descriptions and understandings of their actual teaching activities and strategies, with the aim of capturing the teaching principles underpinning their practice. This approach may have influenced how the teachers described and reasoned their teaching practices. By way of illustration, their description and explanation may have differed from what they actually delivered in the classroom so as to give the interviewer the answers they thought she wanted to hear. Seen in this light, another kind of data collection method to identify the principles underpinning actual practice could have been adopted. For example, prompting them to comment extensively on lesson transcripts would help them analyse and explain

their own practices, either verbally or in writing, without researcher interference.

In this study, the focus was on how the GLTs reasoned about their teaching practices, thereby uncovering their underlying beliefs and the background knowledge influencing their teaching decisions. Even though I attempted to find out how GAL pupils experienced these practices in their lessons, the data were not valid (see section 5.3). Nevertheless, pupils are considered to be an important part of the classroom process. It seems therefore important not only to have teachers' perspectives, but also pupils' perceptions of their experience in this process (Kiely, 2001; Kinchin, 2004; Tarone & Allwright, 2005). So, another research area that would prove valuable is the investigation of pupils' perspectives on GAL teaching. Such research would allow for a more comprehensive understanding of what is going on in real classroom settings and thereby, support teachers modifying their practice after consideration of their learners' experiences.

11.6. Final remarks

This thesis makes several noteworthy contributions to the professional knowledge of migrant education in a Greek context. It contributes to the development of a more sophisticated conceptualisation of GAL teaching in real classroom settings. As mentioned in Chapter 1, the majority of Greek research on minority education has had an interventional character aiming at proposing principles on how the Greek educational system can address this issue but ignoring the classroom reality and the pivotal role of the teachers. The current research comes to fill this gap by investigating what occurs in non-contrived classroom settings and connecting these findings with the international literature related to the established principles of additional language teaching (see Chapter 4). This has resulted in my drawing the conclusion that GAL teaching has not been addressed methodically in mainstream subject Greek classrooms. It also appears that GLTs have not been prepared sufficiently to teach GAL, because they are still using only mother tongue teaching approaches

in their classrooms. These findings provide evidence that the Greek educational system has not yet addressed this issue, despite the increasing percentage of GAL pupils in regular schools. This situation may have negative consequences for these pupils who are still being expected to cope with the demands of the educational system.

The outcomes of this study provide evidence of the need for certain context-sensitive policy and educational actions as well as professional knowledge base. To the best of my knowledge, there has not been a concerted effort to provide such recommendations in the Greek context. As discussed throughout the thesis, without adapting general policies to local contexts, education systems tend to struggle to tackle pressing educational issues. Teachers also tend not to accept any curriculum innovation or new professional knowledge when it is not accommodated to their social and educational contexts and their cognition. For this reason, in this last chapter, based on my findings rather than on general models, I have suggested how the Greek education curriculum and the subject Greek should be revised so as to take into account the GAL dimension and thus, deliver an appropriate education for all pupils irrespective of their linguistic and cultural background. I have also made recommendations regarding the professional knowledge base that GLTs as informed independent professionals need to develop to cope with GAL-teaching demands in their mainstream classrooms.

This case study also provides insights for how global perspectives can be transformed to local practices. It demonstrates how situated pedagogical solutions can be developed after adapting general pedagogical principles to specific educational settings. This shows that the outcome of this thesis could be used to enhance our understanding of how GAL teaching could be incorporated in other subject areas of Greek secondary schools and how teacher education programmes could include training for all secondary school teachers to enable them to improve their delivery of GAL in their lessons Even though my intention was not to generalise my research findings into different contexts, they could be used as a basis for discussions on how additional language issues could be addressed in other countries where additional language teaching in

mainstream classrooms involves little or no differentiation, as has been shown in the case of GAL being taught in mainstream classrooms in this study.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 – List of abbreviations

ACARA	The Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority
AL learners/ pupils	Additional language learners/ pupils
ASEP	Supreme Council for Civil Personnel Selection
CALLA	Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
COLT	Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching
EAL	English as an additional language (in UK schools)
EL.STAT	Hellenic Statistical Authority
EPEAEK	EU Community Support Framework funding
ESL	English as a second language (broad term for English as a second/foreign/additional language in the US)
GAL	Greek as an additional language
GAL pupils/learners	Greek as an additional language pupils/learners
GLTs	Greek language teachers
GMT pupils/learners	Greek mother tongue pupils/learners
GSL	Greek as a second language
IPODE	Institute of Expatriated Education and Intercultural Education
IRE	Initiation- response-evaluation
IRF	Initiation-response-feedback
MT pupils/learners	Mother tongue pupils/learners
OECD	The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment

PPMI	Public Policy and Management Institute
SLA	Second language acquisition
TBLT	Task-based language teaching
TESOL	Teaching English for speakers of other languages

Additional language learners/ pupils - Greek as an additional language pupils/learners

In this study, I write about immigrant and refugee pupils who are placed in public schools and are expected to learn additional language as AL pupils/learners. I decided not to use terms like 'language-minority' or 'non-native' learners on the grounds that they are usually underlined by ideological assumptions. They tend to imply that these pupils are inferior from the host population stressing their linguistic and ethnic minority status. They usually ignore the background knowledge and prior education, and mainly highlight their low cognitive/ academic proficiency (Jong & Field, 2010). To avoid these ideological and identity distinctions and because the purpose of this discussion is related directly to GAL, I adopt the term GAL learners/ pupils to characterise the pupils who are learning Greek as an additional language without ignoring their backgrounds.

In adopting this term, I am aware that GAL pupils are not a homogenous group, but rather have distinct and different needs. They have different linguistic, cultural and educational backgrounds, as well as learning needs. This is why teachers need to be aware of their pupils' backgrounds and adapt their teaching to meet their needs.

Approach – Methods - Technique

A number of definitions for the terms 'approach, method and technique' have been proposed. Anthony (1963) originally seeks to clarify the distinction and at the same time to highlight the relationship between these terms. He defines an approach as "a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning" (p.63); a method as "an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach" (p.65); a technique "is

implementational - that which actually takes place in a classroom" (p.66). Although Anthony's model (1963) demonstrates the distinction and the connections between these terms, a number of critics have highlighted the weaknesses of these definitions.

Richards and Rodgers (2001) argue that this model seems not to clarify what a method means, the roles of teachers and learners, how an approach may be become method and how method and technique are related. Celce - Murcia (2001a) also challenges the term 'method' as used in Anthony's model. She argues that in the 1970s this term led to the development of specific procedures and materials that teachers were expected to use in the teaching process without taking account of classroom context and pupils' needs. However, in classroom reality, teachers tend not to follow particular methods but they usually combine a range of methods considered appropriate for their classes. This led to the assumption that one method cannot be applied in all circumstance and cannot facilitate language learning of all learners in all settings (Celce-Murcia, 2001a; Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

Based on these critiques, other definitions have been proposed. Richards and Rodgers (2001) attempt to extend Anthony's model. They use the term 'method' as an umbrella term to demonstrate the interconnection between theory and practice suggesting that 'method' is constituted by the elements of 'approach', 'design' and 'procedure'. They adopt Anthony's definition to define the term 'approach' while the term 'design' to replace Anthony's definitions of 'approach' and 'method'. In fact, 'design' specifies the objectives of a method, the syllabus model, teachers and learners' roles, types of teaching and learning activities as well as the role of instructional materials. They also use the term 'procedure' to refer to the actual practices and techniques that teachers adopt in classrooms (Richards & Rodgers, 2001p.20). Overall, according to Richards and Rodgers (2001), an 'approach' gives the theoretical base of a 'method' which is organized in the level of 'design' and is applied in procedure.

However, Brown (2001) states that this specification can lead to the assumption that teachers pre-design their teaching practices and adopt a set of procedures in all circumstances. Hence, he prefers the term 'methodology' rather than 'method' to define pedagogical practices in general while he adopts the term 'method' to describe "a generalized set of classroom specifications for accomplishing linguistic objectives" (p.16). Brown (2001) also defines 'approach' and 'technique' in a similar way to Anthony (1963) adopting the term 'curriculum/ syllabus' instead of that of 'design' used in Richards and Rodgers (2001). Generally, Brown (2001) adopts definitions similar to those used in Anthony's model arguing that the latter's definitions can better describe the conceptualization of approach, method and technique. Nevertheless, as discussed below, in this thesis, I chose to embrace the term 'principles' rather than 'approach' or 'method' to describe the conceptualisation underlining teachers' teaching practices.

Mother tongue pupils/learners - Greek mother tongue pupils/learners

I use this term to refer to the learners for whom the language of the host society is the mother tongue of their parents and their mother tongue. I did not adopt terms like 'native' or 'language-majority' learners because of their ideological assumptions and of the focus of this thesis being on language teaching rather than on ethnicity or identity. So, the term 'Greek mother tongue pupils/learners' is used for learners who are learning Greek as mother tongue without assuming that all of them have the same needs, backgrounds and characteristics.

Principles of language teaching

In this thesis, I adopt the term 'principles' rather than 'approach' or 'method'. As mentioned above, the term 'method' refers to a set of specific procedures derived from theories of language, learning and teaching. This is underlined by the assumptions that methods can be used in any classroom context and that teachers can transfer theories into practice without adaptation to the

classroom context. However, no single method has been considered a panacea of language teaching, and in reality, teachers tend to adopt different principles of language teaching approaches and methods to cope with their classroom demands and pupils' needs (Brown, 2000; Jin & Cortazzi, 2011; Nunan, 1991, see also Chapter 2). Accordingly, I adopt the term 'principles' to describe the general principles that can guide teachers' practices stressing the importance of adapting them to particular contexts. This term also indicates that teachers are informed professionals (see Chapter 2) who have the knowledge and skills to reflect on their practices and classroom reality as well as to select principles that are suitable for their classroom reality and pupils' needs.

Repatriated children

Repatriated children have been called the children of Greek nationals who have returned to Greece after they had left from the country because of their political ideology during either the civil war in 1946 or the Greek military junta of 1967-1974.

Teacher cognition

A wide range of psychological constructs, such as beliefs, knowledge, theories, attitudes, assumptions, conceptions, principles, thoughts and decision-making, have been used to describe teachers' cognitive processes. The diversity of these concepts is not surprising because, as Borg (2006) comments, different concepts "... highlight the personal nature of teacher cognition, the role of experience in the development of these cognitions and the way in which instructional practice and cognitions are mutually informed" (p. 49). An important consideration in terms of describing teacher cognitive process has been the unclear distinction between knowledge and beliefs. Some researchers have stressed that there is a difference between teacher beliefs and knowledge. For example, Fenstermacher (1994) when aiming to shed light on the relationship between knowledge and beliefs points out that

"... a claim to know is a special type of claim, different from a claim to believe and requiring justification in ways that beliefs do not" (p. 30).

On the other hand, these terms have been used in some studies interchangeably because of the difficulty in distinguishing them in empirical investigations. Woods (1996) argues that in his research he could not understand which teachers' interpretations were based on their knowledge and which on their beliefs. For this reason, he integrated the terms 'beliefs, assumptions and knowledge' (BAK) to explain the kind of knowledge that influences teachers' actions. According to Verloop et al. (2001), because "in the mind of the teacher components of knowledge, beliefs, conceptions and intuitions are inextricably intertwined" (p. 446), there is a difficulty in distinguishing these terms. Furthermore, different terms have been used to characterise teacher cognitive processes, including *principles or maxims* (Richards, 1996), *pedagogical concerns* (Breen et al., 2001), *pedagogical knowledge* (Gatbonton, 1999) and *personal practical knowledge* (Golombek, 1998). In this study, even though I am conscious that the terms of psychological constructs, like 'knowledge' and 'beliefs', do not have the same epistemological status, I have integrated the variety of underlying teacher mental processes under an umbrella term of 'teacher cognition', as suggested by Borg (2003, 2006).

Appendix 3 – European-funded projects from 1997-2014

Project	School years	Organisation	Project website
European-funded projects for foreigner and repatriated pupils			
Εκπαίδευση Παλιννοστούντων και αλλοδαπών μαθητών [Education of repatriated and foreigner pupils]	1997-2000	National and Kapodistrian University of Athens	http://www.keda.gr/programs.php
Εκπαίδευση Παλιννοστούντων και αλλοδαπών μαθητών [Education of repatriated and foreigner pupils]	2002-2004	National and Kapodistrian University of Athens	http://www.keda.gr/programs.php
Ένταξη παιδιών παλιννοστούντων και αλλοδαπών στο σχολείο για την Πρωτοβάθμια εκπαίδευση [Integration of Repatriates and Foreign Students in Primary Education]	2006-2008	National and Kapodistrian University of Athens	http://www.keda.gr/epam/index.html
Ένταξη παιδιών παλιννοστούντων και αλλοδαπών στο σχολείο για τη Δευτεροβάθμια εκπαίδευση (Γυμνάσιο) [Integration of Repatriates and Foreign Students in Secondary Education (Gymnasium)]	2006-2008	Aristotle University of Thessaloniki	http://eppas.web.auth.gr/
Εκπαίδευση αλλοδαπών και παλιννοστούντων μαθητών [Educating foreigner and repatriated pupils]	2010-2014	Aristotle University of Thessaloniki	http://www.diapolis.auth.gr/index.php
European-funded projects for Roma pupils			
Εκπαίδευση τσιγγανοπαίδων [Educating Roma Students]	1997-1999	Univeristy of Ioannina	http://www.rom.gr
Ένταξη τσιγγανοπαίδων στο σχολείο [Integration of Roma Students to School Environment]	2000-2003	Univeristy of Ioannina	http://www.rom.gr
Ένταξη τσιγγανοπαίδων στο σχολείο [Integration	2005-2007	University of Thessalia	http://roma.pre.uth.gr/main/

of Roma Students to School Environment]			
European-funded projects for Muslim pupils			
Εκπαίδευση μουσουλμανοπαίδων [Educating Muslim students]	1997-2001	National and Kapodistrian University of Athens	http://www.museduc.gr
Εκπαίδευση μουσουλμανοπαίδων [Educating Muslim students]	2002-2004	National and Kapodistrian University of Athens	http://www.museduc.gr
Εκπαίδευση μουσουλμανοπαίδων [Educating Muslim students]	2006-2008	National and Kapodistrian University of Athens and Democritus University of Thrace	http://www.museduc.gr

Appendix 4 - The subject aims and goals of the syllabus of the subject Greek in the junior secondary school

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DIATHEMATIKON PROGRAMMA
A CROSS-THEMATIC CURRICULUM FRAMEWORK
FOR THE SUBJECT GREEK IN JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

</div>

1. General goals

The aim of teaching the subject Greek in the gymnasium is to provide pupils with opportunities to:

- Acquire knowledge of the Greek language as a means of communication between the members of their community, in order to develop mentally and emotionally.

- Realise the significance of language for their participation in social life, either as senders or receivers of information and also as free and democratic citizens with a critical and responsible attitude towards public affairs.

- Be able to recognise the structural and grammatical elements of Modern Greek at clause and text level, in order to be able to identify and explain possible errors.

- Appreciate the significance of language as the fundamental vehicle of expression and culture of every nation.

- Appreciate their cultural heritage, a basic component and vehicle of which is language, showing also respect for the language and the cultural values of other peoples.

- Realise that interaction among nations has an influence on their languages.

It should be pointed out that the aims could generally apply to all Years, on condition that they are adapted to the requirements of each Year and the age of the pupils.

2. Key content principles, General aims and Indicative Fundamental Cross-thematic concepts

The content guiding principles range in difficulty depending on year. The grammatical-syntactical phenomena and the communicative skills are diffused in all content guiding principles.

Year	Key Content Principles	General Goals (Knowledge, skills, attitudes and values)	Indicative Fundamental Cross-thematic Concepts
1st 2nd 3rd	**Listening and understanding** Oral communication codes Evaluation of information and arguments	**Pupils should:** recognize the differences between the different kinds of oral speech and understand the intentions of their interlocutors; identify the key points in their interlocutors' speech; evaluate what they hear, assessing the linguistic, extra-linguistic and paralinguistic elements of their interlocutors' speech; evaluate their arguments;	Communication Culture System Space-Time Interaction Information Change
	Grammar Paragraph, linking words (conjunctions), summary, punctuation marks Article, noun, adjective, pronoun inflection Structure of a sentence (noun phrase, verb phrase, subject,	recognize the morpho-syntactical and lexical choices of their interlocutors, depending on communication circumstances; recognize the organization and the degree of clarity of other people's speech;	System Change Space-Time Dependence Synchrony-Diachrony

	object, predicate, modifiers) Kinds of sentences (main sentence, sub-ordinate sentence) and connection between sentences (co-coordinative, subjunctive) Tenses, Moods, Conjugations Semantics, Vocabulary, Spelling Word formation (derivatives and com-pounds) Direct and indirect speech		
	Pragmatics and figures of speech	develop the ability to perceive the value content of the speaker's message, depending on the pragmatic and semantic nuances of his speech (explicit and implied meaning, metaphor, humour, irony, etc)	Culture Information Space-time Similarity-Difference Change
1st 2nd 3rd	**Speaking** Oral communication codes	communicate effectively for a variety of purposes, adapting their speech appropriately. make use of the paralinguistic and extralinguistic elements of speech	Communication Culture System Space-Time Interaction
	Grammar (See 'Listening and understanding')	organize their speech carefully in order to make themselves clear develop their own distinctive and original styles when speaking and adapt their speech to the communication circumstances, taking into account the morpho-syntactic	System Change Space - Time Dependence Synchrony-Diachrony

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		and lexical elements of language	
	Pragmatics and figures of speech	enrich their speech with pragmatic and semantic nuances (explicit and implied meaning, metaphor, humour, irony, etc.)	Culture Space - time Similarity - Difference Change
1st 2nd 3rd	**Reading and understanding** *Written communication codes and signs* *Variety of text types*	understand the intentions of the writer when reading be introduced to a variety of text types representing a range of forms and purposes and different structural and organizational devices and be able to identify their differences, and evaluate their effectiveness	Communication Culture System Space-Time Interaction Information Similarity Difference
	Grammar (See 'Listening and understanding')	identify and analyse the grammatical and lexical features that writers are using in their writing and evaluate their appropriateness, depending on the communication circumstances	System Change Space - Time Dependence Synchrony-Diachrony
	Pragmatics and figures of speech	understand the value content of texts, depending on their pragmatic and semantic nuances (explicit and implied meaning, metaphor, humour, irony, etc)	Culture Space - time Similarity-Difference Change
1st 2nd 3rd	**Writing** *Written communication codes*	extend their confidence in writing for a variety of purposes, audiences and communication circumstances	Communication Culture System Space-Time Interaction
	Grammar (See 'Listening and Understanding')	develop their ability to write essays in their own distinctive and original style write in an extensive range of forms (stories, personal or formal letters, reports, reviews, essays, advertisements, newspaper articles, etc), attending to the distinctive grammatical, lexical and syntactical features of these forms	System Change Space-Time Dependence Synchrony Diachrony
	Pragmatics and	enrich their texts with	Culture

	Figures of speech	pragmatic and semantic nuances (explicit and implied meaning, metaphor, humour, irony, etc)	Space-Time Similarity-Difference Change

THE SYLLABUS OF THE SUBJECT GREEK FOR THE JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL

1. Specific objectives

The purposes of the subject Greek in the junior secondary school is to provide pupils with opportunities to:

- Realise the significance of language for their participation in social life, either as senders or receivers of information and also as free and democratic citizens with a critical and responsible attitude towards public affairs.

- Become people with integrated personality, self-confidence and creative thinking

- Appreciate the significance of language as the fundamental vehicle of expression and culture of every nation.

- Identity the structure and the particularity of their national language.

- Appreciate their cultural heritage, a basic component and vehicle of which is language.

- Comprehend that the interactions between different cultures are represented in their language.

- Respect the language of each community being the basic element of their culture and be ready to live as citizens in a multicultural Europe.

Specifically, the aim of the teaching of the subject Greek is for pupils to:

- Recognise and appreciate the long history of the Greek language and the richness of all Greek dialects.

- Be in a position to recognise the structural and grammatical elements of the Modern Greek at clause and text level, in order to be able to identify and explain possible errors.

- Recognise and explain the influences of other language in Modern Greek.

- Comprehend that the development of language cannot only occur in the subject Greek as it also occurs in all the lessons and during the activities inside and outside school.

- Practise choosing and using appropriate discourse in a every communicative situation.

- Recognise the different text types, e.g. diaries, CVs, letters etc. and use them appropriately.

- Recognise the paralinguistic and prosodic features of Modern Greek.

- Appreciate the value of dialogue and practise using this text type – basic element of the democracy- and engaging in debates.

- Extend their vocabulary by using dictionaries frequently.

- Become familiar with the libraries and generally with information centres from which they could collect necessary information for each situation

- Become familiar with the collection of information and the production of compound and factual discourse.

- Develop a cooperative and group spirit inside and outside school.

- Be able to collect information from different sources (written or spoken), process them and at the end to compound an essay where they can express and justify their own opinion and ideas.

- Become familiar with technology so that they can read and write texts in the computer and communicate through computer.

- In terms of pupils who do not have Greek as their first/ mother tongue (foreign and repatriated), the familiarisation and learning of Greek can be achieved by using Greek in real situations inside and outside school, however, it is important to respect the first/ mother tongue of these pupils.

2. Aims, Content, Indicative activities and Cross-thematic working plans

Year 1

Aims	Main themes	Sample teaching activities
**Unit 1**: Spoken and written language	
The pupils should be able to: start recognising the elements of communication: who is talking/ writing, to whom, why, for what, where and when	Characteristics of spoken and written language in communication	**The pupils**: Listen/ read a variety of texts from all the curriculum subjects and from other sources and identifies the elements of communication
Realise the significance of difference communication codes and the special role of language	A range of communication codes – signals	Realise the variety of communication codes (sign language, advertisement language, maths language etc.) through examples and pictures,
Realise the elements of communication in written language	Distinctiveness of written communication	Study texts and identify the sender, the receiver of the message and the aim
Comprehend that there are different semantic types of sentences that are used differently in the discourse	Simple clause: affirmative, negative, questions, those expressing admiration and query, exclamatory clauses	Identify the use of different types of clauses considering the situation and their use (e.g. question: request, offer, irony, etc.) Take part in role plays exploiting the different types of clauses (literature, religious education, art education)
**Unit 2: Genres and communication circumstances**	
Comprehend that there are different language styles	The different styles of spoken and written language	Observe/ read a discussion, a website on the internet, a forecast, a music programme, an advertisement, etc (physics, music, literature)
Be aware that each type of discourse requires a similar linguistic variety and that the medium (channel) and the communication circumstance affect the form and	Choice of appropriate vocabulary. At the appropriate level of spoken and written language.	Pay attention to linguistic variety used in each spoken / written communication (specific words, formal / intimate level of speech, etc.). Study or read aloud with the appropriate voice a variety of school and extracurricular texts

organisation of the message		and comment on similarities, differences, etc.
Understand the role of the paragraph in a text. Realize the parts of a paragraph (thematic clause-important details – ending clause).	Paragraph. Paragraph as a meaningful part of speech. Her parts.	Identify the paragraphs of different text types and recognizes the importance of each paragraph to the text as a whole (literature, history, science, art). Understand the function of paragraph parts and their significance for paragraph structure.
Unit 3: Description, narration, argumentation, summary		
To be expressed in front of a familiar audience, or write simple texts, taking into account the various parameters and communication situations (description / narrative, audience / readers, coherence etc.)	Descriptive and narrative way. Structure of descriptions. Basic elements and techniques of narration.	Produce orally or write short descriptions and narratives accurately including the information needed by the recipient every time
Pay attention to and comprehend the role that words play in descriptions and narratives	Verbal expression	Observe and comment on the role, e.g. of adjectives in the description of people and place etc., or of verbs and time expressions in the narratives
Monitor conversations or read texts assessing the arguments of the sender and their effectiveness. Practise in drafting argumentation texts in topics appropriate for their age.	Negative/ critical speech. Argumentation and the structure of such texts	Detect and comment on the arguments of a speaker or a writer. Develop texts in which their views are justified with arguments on issues related to their interests, e.g. for a book, for advertising, for school life etc. (literature, math etc.).
Be able to perceive the relation between a summary and the text through appropriate example	Summary	Study texts of various kinds and their summaries and observe the process leading from the main points of each paragraph in the summary of a text. Bring together abstracts from back covers of books, from games instructions, magazines, medicines and texts from Internet sites.

		Comment on their sufficiency and autonomy (literature, biology, computer science).
Understand that the variety of textual types depends on their communication purposes	Text types	Examine different types of texts such as narrative, descriptive, identifies the main linguistic and structural characteristics and reason their function based on the type of texts to which they are used.
Unit 4: Nouns and adjectives, description		
Realise the function of noun in sentences and phrases	Noun phrase. Adjectives.	Discuss the function of a noun as the main part of a sentence. Explain the function of noun phrases in sentences through texts and examples
Identify the different conjugations of nouns and adjectives	Conjugations of nouns and adjectives	Become familiar with the conjugations of nouns and adjectives through tables and exercises.
Realise how to produce and compound new words	Word production and compound	Realise how to produce words and the meanings of production ending through examples. Notice how compound words are produced through texts and examples. Learn to pay attention to the parts of words and finds out their meaning. Compare words that have common component and understand the different meanings of compound words. Create their own compound words and uses them in sentences
Identify the different function of adjectives and nouns in the description	The noun and the adjective in descriptive texts	Notice the meaning of nouns and adjectives in descriptive texts, e.g. description of an object or place etc. Study texts and discuss the meaning of having an adjective and a noun together
Understand that in the spoken language	Paralinguistic and prosodic	Identify paralinguistic and prosodic cues in speech

paralinguistic and prosodic cues are used	elements in spoken language	
Unit 5: The verb, Narrative		
Realise the function of verbs in sentences and in verbal phrases	Verbal phrases	Recognise the function of verbal phrases in sentences and compare them with noun phrases through texts and examples.
Realise the different aspects of the verb	Mood, voice, tense, person, number	Think the function of mood, voice, tense, person, number of verbs in texts and understand the relationship of these aspects with the conjugation of verbs and their meaning.
Distinguish copula from transitive verbs.	Sentences with transitive verbs, with copula and with adjectives/ nouns	Identify copula and transitive verbs in texts or phrases.

Notice the function of copula words in the description.

Create their own texts utilising the grammar points presented. |
Grasp how verbs are produced	Verb production	Identify productive ending for the creation of verbs from other words through examples/ texts (Literature, Ancient Greek from translation, Foreign Languages)
Distinguish the function of verb in narration	The verb in narration	Identify the meaning of verbs in narration in texts and exercises
Unit 6: Syntax of nouns, Paragraph		
Understand the function of noun in sentences	The functions of all cases	Realise that cases are connected with the function of nouns, e.g. the subject is always nominative, object accusative
Realise the function of noun dependents as same-case modifier	Same-case modifiers	Observe the function of nouns as same-case modifiers in appropriate texts and exercises, and distinguish the different types
Grasp the function of noun dependents as other-case modifier	Other-case modifiers	Identify the different meanings of other-case modifiers, especially their meanings in the genitive case
Grasp how nouns can be produced by other words	Noun production	Examine how nouns can be produced by other words in examples or texts (literature, Ancient Greek from translation, history, biology etc)
Unit 7: Articles and adjectives, Description		

Grasp the difference between the definite and indefinite article. Become familiar with the declension of articles, simple and compound	Definite and indefinite article. Declension of articles	Recognise the types and meanings of articles in texts for a range of subjects
Grasp the function of adjectives in sentences	Adjective phrase – substantivisation of adjectives	Study texts and discuss the result of having an adjective next to a noun. Distinguish the position of the adjective from the noun and realise the impact on the meaning of the removal of the adjective. Highlight several cases of substantivisation of adjectives.
Comprehend how adjectives can be produced by other words	Adjective production	Distinguish production ending for the production of adjectives in examples or texts (literature, Ancient Greek from translation, foreign languages)
Understand how to describe a place	Description	Identify the structure of descriptions in texts. Observe the transition from the general to the detailed. Note the description of various 'objects' (space description, person, statements) in appropriate texts (literature, biology, geography, etc.).
Unit 8: The compound sentence, Narration		
Understand how to connect main clauses	The compound sentence. Coordinating conjunctions	Grasp the function of compound sentences in a text, e.g. in a fairytale. Write texts including compound sentences
Grasp the function of asyndeton	Asyndeton	Observe the function of asyndeton, e.g. in a descriptive text with many adjectives and grasp how punctuation is working in this case
Grasp the uses of punctuation	Punctuation	Understand the function of punctuation and practises putting punctuation in texts
Be in a position to	Narration	In a narrative text:

report the narrative elements (people, events, causes of events, etc.) and narration techniques (the angle and time in the narrative, the narrator, etc.) in written texts		- Understand the development of events - Distinguish the descriptive parts of the narrative and comment on their function, - Detect the narrator and the perspective of the narrative - Distinguish the retrospective and foreshadowing narratives.
Unit 9: Constitutional and exemplary axis		
Grasp the flexibility of the Greek language by combining constitutions and moving verbal sets horizontally in the sentence.	Constitutional axis	Consider the combination of constitutions in sentences. Examine the limits of combinations to give meaning accepted in Modern Greek language. Move word sets and note the semantic differences arising.
Understands the economy of the language by replacing phrases on the exemplary axis.	Exemplary axis	Notice the replacement of phrases having the same function. Notice, for example, the replacement of the subject or object with a pronoun or a sentence. Notice and practise replacing phrases with others that have a different meaning.
Understand the vocabulary of a variety of texts that have interesting and appropriate topics for them. Understand the meaning of words based on context.	Understanding of vocabulary in a variety of texts.	Practise understanding of the vocabulary of a range of texts. If they doubt the meaning of certain words, try to understand their meaning based on the context. Use dictionaries (literature, Ancient Greek literature, religion, mathematics, biology, chemistry)
Practise transforming a plain text to a different genre.	Text transformation	On a topic that is familiar, change the communication parameters, so that they can give different genres, although the topic remains the same, e.g. transforming a story about environmental pollution in a letter to the local government.

Unit 10: Subordinate clauses – Punctuation		
Grasp the structure and function of subordinate clauses	Subordinate clauses	Distinguish main and subordinate clauses. Transform main clauses to subordinate clauses and notice the differences
Realise the function of subordinate connectors in subordinate clauses	Subordinate connectors	Distinguish various types of subordinate clauses. Notice their position and also the changes in their meaning when changing the connectors.
Understand the function of punctuation in general and specifically the use of the dot, comma in main and subordinate clauses	Punctuation	Through various texts (e.g. essays, novels, scientific texts) recognise the function of punctuation, particularly the dot and the comma, in sentences. Exercise in the use of various punctuation in their writing. Realise the functionality of punctuation marks and their relationship in the spoken language; understand that the question, admiration, surprise are indicated by using the exclamation mark, while the interrogative tone by using the question mark, etc. Convert spoken to written language noting the appropriate punctuation.
Be familiar with the use of different kinds of dictionaries especially interpretative.	Use dictionaries	Practise using dictionaries and recognise abbreviations and their symbols. Detect easily and find out the correct meaning of unknown words by considering contextual cues

Total: 65 hours

Year 2

Aims	Main themes	Sample teaching activities
Unit 1: Subject, Paragraph		
The pupils should be able to: Understand the	Forms of the subject	**The pupils**: Identify the subjects in the texts of various subjects and learn to

function of the subject in the sentence. Comprehend the various forms of the subject (noun, pronoun, sentence).		distinguish the types. In selected texts. they attempt to replace subjects with other different forms (literature, Ancient Greek from translation and original text, history, religious education, physical, etc.).
Understand that the subject agrees with the verb in person and number.	Agreement of the subject and verb	Replace in appropriate exercises the person and number of subject and verb
Be aware that many compound words have indissoluble particles as the first component.	Compound using indissoluble particles, both formal and informal	Find in compound words from all disciplines the indissoluble particles and distinguish between formal and informal (literature, Ancient Greek from translation and original text, history, religious education, physical, etc.).
Understand, in a simple way, the different ways to organise a paragraph (justification, examples, comparison, contrast, division, etc.), so they can support their views.	Ways to develop a paragraph	Study texts of various disciplines and identify the different ways to organise paragraphs (literature, Ancient Greek from translation, history, religious, physical). Compile texts the paragraphs of which are organised in different ways.
Unit 2: Verb moods and tenses, Summary		
Understand the meanings of moods in independent clauses (real, potential, desirable etc.).	Verb moods of independent clauses	Learn to recognise the types and meanings of moods in appropriate texts from literature, history, etc. Practise using verb moods in their own examples orally and in written form.
Understand the different verb tenses in independent clauses.	Verb tenses	Acknowledge the different verb tenses by studying appropriate texts. Transform texts of various disciplines in other tenses (literature, history, religion, etc.)
Realise the differences between the different types of compounds (parataktika, ypotaktika,	The types of compounds	Acknowledge different kinds of compounds in selected examples derived from different disciplines.

possessives, etc.).		
Write the summary of a text with the help of subtitles.	Summary with the help of subtitles	Note subtitles in paragraphs or bigger sections of various texts– or alternatively use subtitles already present in a text – so that they can write a text summary (literature, Ancient Greek from translation, history etc.)
Unit 3: Verb conjunctions		
Realise that the inflection of verbs is based on the distinction between the two voices and that these are not related to respective moods.	Active and passive voice	Study the tables of verb inflections and realise that many verbs have both active and passive voice, while others have either active or passive voice. Practise recognising verb tenses in both voices. Through appropriate examples, realise that the active and passive voices do not always coincide with the corresponding meanings (moods).
Realise that the inflection of the present and imperfect tenses is based on a double model in both the active and the passive voice.	1st and 2nd Conjugations	Study tables of verbal verb inflections and find out that there are two inflections of the present tense and imperfect beyond the different voices. Acknowledge the first and second conjugations in appropriate examples.
Be familiar with first synthetic compound words (noun, adjective, numeral, verb, adverb, preposition, pronoun).	Composition : first synthetic	Identify the first synthetic of compound words in appropriate examples or written and spoken texts (studying a literary work, watching a television news bulletin etc.). Form the first synthetic of their own compound words integrated in texts (literature, art education, geography, physics, chemistry).
Learn to use methods to control and improve the texts that they produce.	Rechecking their writings	Take into account the comments of teachers and their classmates and make corrections in spelling, punctuation, vocabulary etc. Improve their text structure, rewrite parts of their texts.

		Improve their texts with the help of a computer.
Unit 4: The object of verb, Organisation of the whole text		
Understand that verbs are divided into two major syntactic categories (transitive and non-transitive) depending on whether they accept an object.	Transitive and non-transitive verbs and the object	Identify transitive verbs and their object as well as non- transitive verbs in appropriate texts. Through selected examples, realise that some transitive verbs can appear with or without an object depending on the context. Write a text with such verbs and observe the changes in the meaning due to the presence or absence of an object in a sentence.
Perceive the role of the object in a sentence and its importance as a complement of the verb. Realise the various forms of the object (noun, pronoun, proposal and prepositional object).	Various form of the object	Detect objects in texts from various areas and recognises their type. In selected texts, replace the objects with others of different form.
Be aware that verbs based on their meaning and grammar type are divided into active, passive, reflexive and neutral.	Moods of the verb	Recognise the verb moods by studying texts from various disciplines (literature, mathematics, history, etc.). Form their own sentences using all verb moods and make changes where necessary. Convert appropriate texts from the active to the passive voice and vice versa (literature, history, physics, foreign languages, etc.).
Organise their discourse in a wider text while watching for the consistency and coherence.	Organisation of texts (macrostructure)	Write texts, making sure of a smooth transition from one paragraph to another, as well as the sequence of meanings. Use correctly basic conjunctions between periods and paragraphs.
Unit 5: Degrees of Adjectives, Description and Narration		
Realise comparison	Degrees of	Practise recognising the degrees of

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through the degrees of adjectives. Understand the one-word and the periphrastic formation of the degrees of the adjective.	adjectives. Comparison	adjectives in phrases and texts (literature, Ancient Greek from translation, history, religion, foreign languages). In selected sentence, transform the degrees of adjectives from one number to another. Convert the one-word to periphrastic comparative adjectives and vice versa.
Become familiar with the second synthetic of compound words and more widely with the combination of two synthetics.	Composition : 2nd synthetic	Identify both synthetics of compound words in appropriate examples. Form compound words using two synthetics in their own texts (literature, art education, geography, physics, chemistry).
Practise in writing descriptive and narrative texts (informal).	Organisation and coherence of description and narration.	Describe an experiment in chemistry, a phenomenon in biology, morphology of a place in geography etc. clearly. In a history lesson, they describe a historic event, indicating the place, time, the causes and effects, etc. In appropriate circumstances, in class, they narrate and their narration usually follows chronological order and sometimes they use retrospective narration. Carefully delineate the persons taking part in the events of the narration and, the extent to which they can justify their actions. Apply the knowledge of description and narration in written assignments of other courses, for example in a description in biology or geography, in a narrative of events in history, and so on.
Collect material from various sources and lessons, and use them to compose simple	Collect materials and composition of simple	Study several texts from textbooks, from novels, scientific books etc. Use the school or regional library at a specific time with the

assignments.	assignments.	cooperation of the library manager, to gather the appropriate materials. Evaluate the material collected and choose what exactly they need for composing an assignment.
Unit 6: Personal pronouns		
Become familiar with the meanings, the syntactic roles and the declension of personal pronouns and the syntactic/morphological similarities and differences between the weak and strong types.	The weak and the strong types of personal pronouns	In selected texts, recognise the weak and strong types of personal pronouns and their syntax. Compare the meanings of weak and strong types of personal pronouns in appropriate texts.
Realise the functionality of personal pronouns (emphasis and contradistinction) especially in spoken language and literature.	The functionality of personal pronouns	Produce a text using only the weak types of personal pronouns and then convert them into the strong types, by making the necessary changes
Get to know other types of pronouns and become familiar with their function.	The other types of pronouns	Recognise the types of pronouns in selected texts from various disciplines and use them in their own texts (literature, Ancient Greek from translation and original texts, history, etc.).
Realise that words are organised in etymological families based on a common theme or a common root, e.g. write, writing, copy, graphics, etc. Understand the etymological relationship between words with the same productive suffix or first or second synthetic.	Etymologic word families	Create groups of words that have a common root. Create groups of words having the same productive suffix, the same first and second synthetic and identify common meanings.
Unit 7: Adverbs, Linking words		
Become familiar with the different types of	Types of Adverbials	Recognise adverbials in appropriate texts and distinguish

adverbials (adverbs and adverbial sets).		their types. Form their own phrases using adverbials of all types.
Consolidate the ways of producing adverbs	Adverb production	Produce adverbs from adjectives and prepositions
Learn to use linking words and expressions in writing	Linking words and expressions and their uses in written language	Write different types of texts connecting the paragraphs with linking words and expressions (Literature, Ancient Greek from translation and original, Foreign Languages, etc.).
Develop a range of texts choosing the appropriate style (vocabulary, syntax, language variety)	Production of a range types of texts using the appropriate style	Write informal e-mails, essays, formal letters and texts for the school magazine, etc.
Unit 8: Participles, Argumentation		
Become familiar with the different types of participles (adverbials, adjectives, ending in –μενος)	Different types of participles	Study selected texts and identify the different types of participles. Form participles in – μενος from different verbs. Write a letter to a friend using different types of participles
Realise the difference of three types of word composition	Word composition	Identify the different types of compounds in texts and use them in their own sentences.
Realise that many compounds consist of two (or more) independent words	Multiple-word compounds	List the multiple-word compounds of texts from different subjects
Understand the arguments of a speaker and judge his/her conclusions. Monitor discussions and evaluate the quality and effectiveness of arguments used by speakers. Develop spoken or written texts using arguments in topics	Evaluation and Verbalisation of arguments	As listeners of a discussion, understand the position of the speakers, using the knowledge gained about the features and organisation of spoken language, in different communication situations and judge the persuasiveness and effectiveness of arguments or their conclusions. Take position on topics, such as war and peace, the ecological problem etc., showing that they understand main concepts of a topic (literature, Ancient Greek

		from translation and original texts, history, religious education, physics, etc.). Produce their own text using arguments.

Unit 9: Definition

Understand the scope and technique of definitions	Definition	Practise defining terms from literature, physics, chemistry, maths.
Learn to present their thoughts using coherent arguments and in any curriculum subject	Argumentation/ reasoning in other curriculum subjects	Develop a theorem in physics or maths, a principle in chemistry and so on, logically and coherently.
Become familiar with the use of different types of dictionaries (interpretative, etymological, nominal, factual as well as dictionaries of synonyms and antonyms, derivatives etc.).	Use of a range of dictionaries	Practise searching for the meaning of and other information about words. Compare different types of dictionaries and use the appropriate one for each occasion.

Total: 52 hours

Year 3

Aims	Main themes	Sample teaching activities
Unit 1: Subject, Paragraph		
The pupils should be able to: Compare compound and complex sentences	Compound and complex sentences	**The pupils**: Realise the difference between compound and complex sentences through appropriate texts. Transform compound to complex sentences and notice the differences
Use of vocabulary appropriately in terms of the meaning of words and text types	Use of vocabulary	Choose and use words that fit to the text style that they produce, e.g. they use words related to the topic 'Food-Famine' accurately and appropriately. Choose a variety of words to include in their diary and to express their concern in the school paper.

Plan and write complex/ research assignments using appropriate sources	Research assignments	Evaluate the material that they have collected from different sources (textbooks, libraries, internet etc.) and exploit them for producing a complex/ research assignment as an individual or in a group to show that they have consolidated the material used.
Unit 2: Noun clauses – Critical evaluation of topics		
Realise that there are two categories of subordinate classes based on their meaning and syntax. Become familiar with all the types of substantival clauses	Substantival and adverbial clauses	By looking at appropriate examples, realise that substantival clauses function as the subject or object in a sentence. Through selected texts, become familiar with the different types of adverbial clauses; understand that these clauses function as adverbs (literature, Ancient Greek literature, history, religious education, political and social education, etc.).
Learn to distinguish volitional, noun clauses and clauses showing hesitation	Volitional, noun clauses and clauses showing hesitation	Produce texts using substantival clauses (volitional, noun clauses and clauses showing hesitation).
Realise that the meaning of a word depends on the context. Be in a position to grasp the meaning of words through contextual cues	Polysemy of words	Observe that the same word, e.g. *theatre*, has different meanings based on the context. Produce their own texts using the same words but with different meanings. Collect texts from different subject areas and comment on the polysemy of words (literature, Ancient Greek literature, maths, biology etc.).
Criticise different topics orally or written form	Critique of different topics	Present the person and the topic of a discussion of spoken or written texts to their classmates. On appropriate communication occasions, express orally their critique and comments e.g. for a concert, a theatre production, a schoolbook or novel.
Unit 3: Direct and Indirect questions, Literalism and Metaphor		
Distinguish direct and indirect questions and	Direct and indirect	Spot the direct and indirect questions in literary, theatrical, scientific texts,

become familiar with their type. Realise the factual uses of direct questions	questions	essays and other type of texts and identify their type. Compare with related grammar points of other foreign languages (literature, Ancient Greek literature, art education, foreign language, etc.). Transform direct to indirect questions and vice versa making the necessary changes. Recognise the different uses of questions taking account of the context (e.g. question as request, desire, order etc.).
Realise that indirect questions are part of indirect speech that is used in narration and reports	Direct and indirect speech	Identify the forms of indirect speech in selected texts. Transform selected texts from direct to indirect speech and vice versa, making the necessary changes (Literature, Ancient Greek literature, Art Education, etc.).
Realise that the speaker or the writer can use language either literally or metaphorically according to his/ her aim.	Literalism and metaphor	In appropriate texts, identify literalism and metaphor and understand why the sender uses literalism or metaphor when describing a place, a landscape, when narrating real events etc. (literature, religious education, history).
Unit 4: Relative clauses, synonyms, identical words, antonyms		
Distinguish all the types of relative clauses. Become familiar with the uses of 'that' and the possibility to replace it with the relative pronoun 'who' and the relative adverb 'where'.	Types of relative clause	Identify and categorise relative clauses in selected texts. Transform appropriate texts using different types of relative clauses. In particular examples, they replace 'that' with 'who' or 'where'. Grasp that the meaning changes when using or not using commas in relative clauses.
Grasp that a number of Greek words are used in all the subject areas of the most important European languages	Greek words in foreign languages	In selected texts (essays, medical, biological, technical texts etc.) that are written in English, French, Italian etc. recognise either unabridged Greek words or foreign words with Greek root (foreign languages, physics, biology etc.).

		Find words or phrases that have Greek roots on a range of foreign websites.
Consolidate the phenomena of synonyms and antonyms. Look for the synonyms and antonyms of words considering the text style	Synonyms, antonyms and identical words	Identify the synonyms, antonyms and words that have the same meaning as selected words. Look for synonyms and antonyms in appropriate texts considering the text style.

Unit 5: Purpose and Causal clauses, Homonyms, Nicknames, Text analysis

Become familiar with recognising purpose clauses.	Purpose clauses	Identify purpose clauses in appropriate texts by finding out the purpose conjunctions 'για να, να'. Produce their own texts using purpose clauses.
Distinguish causal conjunctions and other words or phrases used in causal clauses	Causal clauses	Recognise causal clauses in selected texts and transform them using different conjunctions noticing the difference in meaning. Realise the importance of causal conjunctions in developing arguments. Produce argumentative texts using different types of subordinate clauses.
Consolidate the phenomena of homonyms and nicknames	Homonym and nicknames	Looking at a list of words, they spot homonyms or nicknames. Produce spoken or written sentences using homonyms and nicknames.
Realise that a text has different parts (section, paragraph, sentence, word).	Text analysis	Analyse selected texts from different subject areas and identify their parts.

Unit 6: Time clauses and conditionals, hyponym and definition

Become familiar with time conjunctions (words and expressions) and when conjunctions indicate that an action occurred previously	Time clauses	Study narrative texts and recognise the time relationships expressed in time clauses and other adverbial clauses. Produce a narrative text using a range of time clauses.

to, simultaneously with, or after the action of the main clause.		
Consolidate the different types of conditionals considering the real - unreal	Conditionals	Identify the different types of conditionals in texts from different subject areas (literature, maths, physics, chemistry, foreign languages).
Comprehend the use of hyponym. Understand the relationship between a word and its definition	Hyponym and definition	Identify hyponym and definition in different subject areas (literature, mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, politics and social education).
Unit 7: Clauses of effect and of contrast, metonym		
Become familiar with conjunctions indicating effect (words and expressions) and the expression of reason and effect in clauses of effect	Clauses of effect	Recognise the relationship between reason and effect in different texts including clauses of effect. Transform a text with compound sentences to one with complex sentences using clauses of effect.
Recognise the conjunctions indicating contrast and concession (words and expressions)	Clauses of contrast and concession	Understand the meaning of contrast and concession in a range of texts including clauses of contrast and concession.
Realise that words can change their meaning based on how they are used in texts (metonyms)	Change of word meaning - Metonyms	Recognise metonyms in selected examples and replace them with other words. Identify metonyms in a range of texts and interpret their functionality (religious education, literature, art education).
Unit 8: Particles, Punctuation, Summary		
Become familiar with the different types of particles and their meanings.	Particles and their meanings	Identify particles in different texts, categorise them and express their meanings (literature, Ancient Greek literature, art education).
Realise that word or phrase meanings can change in different figures of speech.	Figures of speech related to the meaning of words and phrases	In appropriate formal and informal texts, identify figures of speech, such as irony and metonym (literature, Ancient Greek literature, religious Education, science)

| Recognise all the punctuation marks and their function in texts, and use them accurately | Punctuation marks and their function | Use in their writings, among others, the semicolon, parentheses, colons, quotation marks etc., so they can give the appropriate tone in their texts and express their feelings using punctuation marks.

Use appropriate punctuation in texts that don't have punctuation from different textual types (literature, Ancient Greek, religious education, political and social education, etc.).

Note and comment on various literary forms that do not have punctuation or have selective punctuation (e.g. surrealist poetry). |
| Learn to summarise different types of texts | Text summary | Look carefully at selected texts, keep notes, write subtitles, make a summary plan and write a summary avoiding commentary and critique. |

Total: 52 hours

Suggested cross-thematic projects

*Topic***: A weather forecast on television**. Pupils divided in groups watch a weather forecast on television and note the language of the presenter, the paralinguistic cues (body language, movements, face expression etc.), the specific vocabulary that he/she uses*. **Fundamental cross-thematic concepts:** communication, code, similarity-difference, culture etc. **Connections** with art education, geography, physics.

Topic: **Legends and traditions of our area**. Pupils, divided into groups, transcribe testimonials of elders about the folklore tradition of their place, noting the traditions that have been preserved in their place until today as well as finding books or making Internet searches to elicit the variations of these customs. ***Fundamental cross-thematic concepts***: Communication, Code, culture, individual-society, interaction etc. **Connections** with history, literature, geography, informatics.

*Topic***: Describing a historical event**. Group work on an important historical event (e.g. 28 October 1940, the Athens Polytechnic uprising, etc.). Study how the events were described by the press of that era, in sound data, musical compositions and songs and extracts from literary texts. Composition of assignments, announcements and discussion. *Fundamental cross-thematic concepts*: communication, code, culture, individual-society, conflict etc. *Connections* with history, literature, music, geography.

*Topic***: Language in various sciences**. Collection of specific vocabulary through various texts with different terminology. Pupils divided into groups record the special vocabulary from a political text, from a scientific announcement, from a newscast, from a youthful website etc. and make comparisons. *Fundamental cross-thematic concepts*: communication, code, culture, science, art, technology etc. *Connections* with literature, mathematics, natural sciences, art education etc.

Topic: **The man and the sea**. Students divided into groups:

- Describe the geology of their place and its relationship with the sea (borders, sea coast terrain type, etc.)
- Study the water of the sea (marine pollution, meteorological phenomena, etc.)
- Look for the importance of the sea in the quality of people lives (aesthetic pleasure, visual illustrations, musical expression, culture)
- Study vocabulary related to the sea, poetry – prose, e.g. Nikos Kavvadias, Andreas Karkavitsas etc.
- Examine the sea as an area of trade and shipping from ancient times up to today, as a field of economic and political competition, e.g. colonies, warfare etc. through the study of sources. *Fundamental cross-thematic concepts*: communication, culture, science, art, technology etc. *Connections* with literature, geography, natural sciences, art education etc.

The activities are for all the Years of junior secondary school but there is a need to adjust them accordingly.

3. Teaching methodology

The subject Greek is being taught from the nursery to upper secondary school. In primary education, the main aim is the acquisition of basic spoken and written skills (writing and reading), with the communicative language teaching approach being adopted. In the junior and senior secondary school, the focus is on the skills concerning the language use in communicative occasions, assuming that the skills of reading and writing have been developed. So, in the junior and senior secondary school, the text-based approach is adopted.

The main language aims of the subject Greek are the following:
The pupils are to:

- Become aware and systematise the language forms and functions that they have already developed at home (mother tongue) and are used in communication.
- Extend, cultivate and enrich their language.
- Develop creative thinking that contributes to the understanding, editing and producing of written and spoken language. It contributes to the development of a deeper relationship with texts since from receivers they become senders producing coherent and appropriate texts and of text comprehension. In this way, pupils can achieve high language proficiency.

The syllabus covers all linguistic branches (language system - phonology, morphology, syntax, vocabulary, pragmatics/speech organisation) and all types of speech, spoken and written, in all manners of articulation (narration and description, apophatic/critic, dialogue, argumentation).

The teaching methodology for the subject Greek consists of communicative language teaching, text-based and cross-thematic approaches.

The cross-thematic curriculum framework for the subject Greek specifies particular frameworks and principles that can promote communicative teaching.

The cross-thematic approaches concern the connection between different thematic fields, ensuring the integration of disciplines in the classroom and this is accomplished through individual or group research assignments by the pupils. All the units of the subject Greek give an emphasis on research assignments conducted by groups of pupils that connect communicative contexts (who is talking, to whom, why, the recipient of the assignments) with cross-thematic principles (social, historical and scientific, etc.).

The communicative use of language cultivates, systematically, the ability of children to communicate accurately and effectively using the forms and styles that are appropriate for each communicative setting and are derived from texts. During the course, pupils practise understanding a variety of forms of spoken and written communication and producing accurate speech of various genres and text types. In addition, their language experiences are respected, valued, enriched and organised by using language creatively.

The pupils practise using the language, i.e. producing and understanding spoken and written language, and adapting it to different communicative circumstances. They practise using their metalanguage skills thus helping them realise the functionality of language so that they can produce it accurately. This practice should occur through the exposure to a variety of texts and exercises that follow text-based and communicative approach.

Individual teaching, repetitive exercises or other activities to resolve problems in writing and reading comprehension are necessary. In this way, in junior secondary school individual pupils who have problems in using basic skills can be helped. In this category, foreign and repatriated pupils who have not developed adequate Greek language and writing must be included. During such courses, language activities must be based on pupils' levels - and the specific problems that they face - and on whether they are related to writing problems or problems in using language in communicative contexts.

4. Assessment

Language assessment is a complementary process to teaching, both being aimed at the development of pupils' language ability. Apart from the production of written language in class and the tests during the terms and at the end of school year, assessment includes:

- A range of oral and written exercises conducted in class (comprehension questions, development of a topic, speech organisation etc.).
- Homework that is usually written, but sometimes it can include preparation for discussions in class.
- Projects – cross-thematic activities

It is important to stress that all the above are language production activities. It is considered as comprising every oral or written text that pupils produce in a particular communicative context that has a specific purpose. The extent and the style of such texts are defined by the text type: formal and informal letter, formal and informal description of events, narration of personal stories, development of ideas on topics that are familiar for the pupils and are related to their interests etc. The extent is also defined by the time that it is given to pupils and their year.

Written language production:

- Needs to be situated in a communicative context, meaning that the text type, the text receiver, the purpose for which it is written need to be defined. In this way, pupils perceive the style that they will use in their text.
- Needs to be related to the units taught or to a theme that they have been discussed in class.
- Something is based on topics discussed in one or more texts that come from the textbook, teacher's book, textbook of other subject areas or other sources that are given to pupils alongside the text topic. The text (or texts) can be accompanied by certain questions.
- The extent of the text needs to be determined.

It is clear, therefore, that language production is considered not only the texts written at specified hours in class but also tasks being given for homework when following the above mentioned criteria. Written or oral exercises which are completed in class so that pupils can practise using specific speech types can be also considered as being language production.

To assess the language ability of pupils, all the language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) are taken into consideration. So, their ability to produce spoken and written language, as a sender, as well their ability to comprehend spoken or written language, as a receiver, is evaluated. The teacher must have in mind that it is possible for a pupil to be better in one type of skill than another. So, it is important for pupils to be aware of their weaknesses and strengths, so that they can gradually assess their own language ability.

Specifically, the criteria for assessing pupils' language ability are as follows:

Oral communication

The pupils as senders

The criteria for assessing pupils' spoken language use are the following:

- The ability to transmit their thoughts and feelings clearly.
- The ability to use language accurately (morph-syntactic structures, vocabulary, etc.) and utilise the paralinguistic and non-verbal features to make their language more alive.
- The ability to organise their language taking account of communication contexts.
- The naturalness and directness of pupils' language use, especially if the spoken language use is predesigned.
- Their ability to monitor the audience's reactions (verbal or not) and respond to them, e.g. to revise their opinions taking into account the information and/or arguments of listeners (receivers).

The pupils as receivers

The criteria for assessing pupils' spoken language comprehension are the following:

- The ability to comprehend different types of spoken language use from a wide range of senders (to be able to answer comprehension questions, to produce language that is based on the speech hearing, and so on).
- Their ability to evaluate the thoughts and arguments of the senders taking into account the latter's purpose and communication contexts.

Written communication

The pupils as senders

The criteria for assessing pupils' written language use are the following:

- The content
- The language use (syntax, wording, punctuation, spelling, etc.)
- The organisation of speech (coherence and consistency)
- The appropriateness of the style (choice of the appropriate vocabulary, the proper way of syntax, generally the appropriate linguistic variety, depending on the circumstances and the text type)
- The effectiveness of the text (the senders' ability to achieve their purpose, e.g. to convince or to cause the desired actions/reactions.

The pupils as receivers

The criteria for assessing pupils' written language comprehension are the following:

- The ability to comprehend a variety of written texts and answer various questions on them (e.g. questions concerning content, the organisation and the text language, etc.), as well as to respond to various exercises mentioned in the text (e.g. summary, speech development, making diagrams etc.).
- The ability to assess and comment on the opinions referred to in a text according to the purpose of the sender and with the text type produced.

The assessment criteria become more difficult in higher levels of education (primary, junior secondary school) and in higher classes.

In conclusion, it should be highlighted that the assessment of the subject Greek:

- Is based on the same principles as teaching
- Is complementary to teaching
- Requires the cooperation between pupils and teachers
- Has as the ultimate aim of pupils' self-assessment and improvement of their language expression.

5. Teaching materials

- The textbook of the subject Greek for the three years of junior secondary school (pupil's textbook, teacher's booklet).
- Some textbooks for the teaching of Greek as a second language (pupil's textbook, teacher's booklet).
- Anthology of texts (by text types) for the practice of writing.
- Grammar of the Greek language for school use.
- Dictionary of Modern Greek language for school use (in electronic form).
- Illustrated dictionary for learning Greek as a second language.
- Visual material: video presentations on the history and teaching of the Greek language.
- Cd-roms for the teaching of Greek as a mother and as a second language.

6. Specifications of textbooks and other teaching materials

- Short books of about 230 pages, one for each year. The pages have 35-36 lines and each line has 50-60 letter spaces. These texts are accompanied by exercises, questions, tables, diagrams and illustrations.
- The various themes and language points are presented in their natural order.

- Emphasis is placed on projects conducted by pupils.

- Avoidance of duplication and meaningless details.

- The content of the text should be evident from the headings which reflect the ideas and text paragraphs.

- The units are connected to each other and with other courses (cross-thematic /multi-thematic), according to the level of importance of this connection.

- The textbooks always provide more material or alternative and graduated questions and exercises, hence the number of pages cannot be determined precisely.

- The pupils' textbook cannot be separated from questions, as these are included in the texts that are connected with the teaching of language points.

- The teacher's booklet can be one for all the years, comprising approximately 200 pages, and must have a training character.

- The language of the textbook is standard Modern Greek according to the law 1566/1986, paragraph. 1 and to the current Modern Greek grammar.

- The illustrations should have a brief explanation which refers to the unit topic.

- The proposed school grammar book can be used as a reference book for all three years, and is a reformed version of the Modern Greek Grammar by Manolis Triantafyllidis.

Appendix 5 - **Description of the linguistic components of academic English and their associated features used in everyday situation and in academic situations (Scarcella, 2003)**

Linguistic Components of Ordinary English	Linguistic Components of Academic English
1. The Phonological Component	
knowledge of everyday English sounds and the ways sounds are combined, stress and intonation, graphemes, and spelling	knowledge of the phonological features of academic English, including stress, intonation, and sound patterns.
Examples: *ship* versus *sheep* /I/ - /i/ *sheet* versus *cheat* /sh/ - /ch/	Examples: *demógraphy, demográphic, cádence, genéric, casualty,* and *celerity*
2. The Lexical Component	
knowledge of the forms and meanings of words occurring in everyday situations; *knowledge* of the ways words are formed with prefixes, roots, suffixes, the parts of speech of words, and the grammatical constraints governing words	knowledge of the forms and meanings of words that are used across academic disciplines (as well as in everyday situations outside of academic settings); knowledge of the ways academic words are formed with prefixes, roots, and suffixes, the parts of speech of academic words, and the grammatical constraints governing academic words
Example: *find out*	Example: *investigate*
3. The Grammatical Component	
knowledge of morphemes entailing semantic, syntactic, relational, phonological, and distributional properties; *knowledge* of syntax; *knowledge* of simple rules of punctuation	knowledge that enables ELs to make sense out of and use the grammatical features (morphological and syntactic) associated with argumentative composition, procedural description, analysis, definition, procedural description, and analysis; knowledge of the grammatical co-occurrence restrictions governing words; knowledge of grammatical metaphor; knowledge of more complex rules of punctuation
4. The Sociolinguistic Component	
knowledge that enables ELs to understand the extent to which sentences are produced and understood appropriately; *knowledge* of frequently occurring functions and genres	knowledge of an increased number of language functions. The functions include the general ones of ordinary English such as apologizing, complaining, and making requests as well as ones that are common to all academic fields; knowledge of an increased number of genres, including expository and argumentative text
5. The Discourse Component	
knowledge of the basic discourse devices used, for instance, to introduce topics and keep the talk going and for beginning and ending informal types of writing, such as letters and lists	knowledge of the discourse features used in specific academic genres including such devices as transitions and other organizational signals that, in reading, aid in gaining perspectives on what is read, in seeing relationships, and in following logical lines of thought; in writing, these discourse features help ELs develop their theses and provide smooth transitions between ideas

Appendix 6 –Interview schedule of background interviews

Themes

1. Decision to become Greek language teacher
2. Teaching qualifications, initial education and professional development (general and regarding GAL)
3. Appointment in the profession
4. Years of experience in both monolingual and mainstream classrooms
5. Years of experience in the present school
6. Problems with which they deal in mainstream classrooms
7. Ways that they cope with these problems
8. Discussion regarding the aims of the national curriculum and their effectiveness for mainstream classrooms
9. Discussion regarding the teaching materials and their effectiveness for mainstream classrooms
10. In an ideal world how they would provide for the children who are leaning GAL

Appendix 7 - Sample of interview schedule of playback interviews _ Anna

First playback interview schedule

Useful expressions

- Could you please talk more about this issue?
- Could you please give me an example?
- Could you please explain the reasons for doing this?
- Do you always do that?
- Do you use other ways of dealing with this problem or helping these pupils?

Themes

- Group work activities and participation
- Criteria for separating the class to groups
- Criteria for assigning different texts to different groups
- How often she asks them to write a summary for the texts that they read
- Presenting language points through a diagram
- Grammar practice activity (identification of language points in texts)
- Giving the definition of unknown words
- Presentation of summaries in class
- Discussion on theatre and painting
- Asking a range of questions

Second playback interview guide

Useful expressions

- Could you please talk more about this issue?
- Could you please give me an example?
- Could you please explain the reasons for doing this?
- Do you always do that?
- Do you use other ways of dealing with this problem or helping these pupils?

Themes

- Reasons for deciding to become Greek language teacher

- Reasons for choosing to become a teacher than a researcher

- Reasons for feeling unqualified when starting teaching in monolingual classrooms

- How she overcame this issue

- Which teaching strategies she adopted in mainstream classrooms at the beginning

- Reasons for considering co-teaching remarkable

- How her Masters contributed to her teaching

- How her in-service education contributed to her teaching

- What does she mean with the expression 'teachers should teach Greek normally'

- Why she thinks teaching material difficult for GAL pupils

- Correcting grammar errors by asking them to remember the rule

- Giving examples to explain different concepts (for example, a pupil asked her if architecture is an art, and she gave examples)

- Asking questions regarding texts and pictures (for example, she mainly asked questions after the pupils read the text 'Turning my back on the future')

- She explained how pupils should handle technology

- She encouraged them to speak about their future after reading similar texts

- She gave an example (yesterday the theatre applauded) to explain metonym

- She asked pupils to brainstorm ideas regarding the title of unit 8

- She asked them to read the text 'Turning my back on the future' and then to listen to the song

- She asked them to focus on meaning while they read a text rather than the language

- She attempted to connect carrier content with everyday life

Appendix 8 – Transcription keys and data presentation conventions

Transcription Conventions

(…)	inaudible word
((laugh))	transcription of non-verbal communication
[ ]	transcription of back-channel signals
(.)	pause less than a second
(number)	number indicates seconds of pause
((italics))	comments
{ }	words that are necessary for the text to make sense
underlined	emphasis as in stress, indicated by underlining
//	final fall
/	slight fall
?	rising tone to indicate uncertainty or a question
-	cut off for interruption or self-repair

Transcription conventions adapted from Gumperz and Berenz (1993). I have used a red colour to note the words of interviewer and a black colour to note the words of the participant. This is for clarity and to save time and space. The interviewer is always myself, and all the interviews were conducted with one participant at a time. Some prosodic features are marked to shed a light on what the participants were trying to say.

Data presentation conventions

1. In interview transcripts, turns are numbered rather than lines.
2. In observation transcripts, lines are numbered rather than turns.
3. Where interview data is quoted in the body of the thesis, prosodic features removed for clarity and brevity unless they seemed to clarify participants' talk
4. To protect the anonymity or participants, the names of all teachers and pupils as well as other identifying details have been changed
5. In interview transcripts, italics represent the translation

6. Documents from the four case studies are labelled as follows:

    CS1 = 'Anna'

    CS2 = 'Elena'

    CS3 = 'Maria'

    CS4 = 'Andreas'

    CS1_int1: 12 = Interview 1 with Anna, turn 12

7. Interview transcripts and schedules, observation field notes, outline of teachers' activities, school field notes, the units of textbook that teachers used in the lesson observed, the syllabus, teacher instruction manual are included as electronic appendices in a CD attached to the inside back cover of the thesis

Appendix 9 – Example of field notes

Observation 1 fieldnotes _ Maria

Μαθητές: 18

Αλλοδαποί: 14 (έχει ένα χρόνο που ήρθαν αλλά και μαθητές που γεννήθηκαν εδώ)

Καταγωγή τους: Αρμενία, Γεωργία, Αλβανία,

Στόχος μαθήματος: Επανάληψη στις δευτερεύουσες προτάσεις

Περιεχόμενο: 2 φυλλάδια: το ένα περιέχει ασκήσεις για τις δευτερεύουσες προτάσεις, το οποίο και δεν κατάφεραν να ολοκληρώσουν – έφτασαν στη σελίδα 4, και το άλλο το οποίο το έδωσε η φιλόλογος αλλά δεν ασχολήθηκαν μαζί του, για το σπίτι κυρίως το έδωσε

Πορεία μαθήματος
- Πριν ξεκινήσει το μάθημα βλέπω πως οι μαθητές χρησιμοποιούν τη μητρική γλώσσα μεταξύ τους για να κάνουν καλαμπούρι και για να μην τους καταλάβουν οι άλλοι
- Υπάρχει από την αρχή του μαθήματος υπάρχει μια αναστάτωση, η οποία ίσως οφείλεται από την παρουσία μου γιατί τα αγόρια συνέχεια γύριζαν και με κοίταζαν και προερχόταν κυρίως από 4 αλλοδαπά αγόρια και ένα ελληνόπουλο
- Αυτή η αναστάτωση συνεχίστηκε καθ' όλη τη διάρκεια του μαθήματος και η φιλόλογος έστειλε στο διευθυντή ένα αλλοδαπό αγόρι
- Στην αρχή του μαθήματος η φιλόλογος ανακοίνωσε τον στόχο του μαθήματος που είναι να κάνουν επανάληψη στις δευτερεύουσες προτάσεις
- Για το Πάσχα τους ανέθεσε να ανακαλύψουν από μόνοι τους τα κενά τους και να τα καλύψουν μόνοι τους

- Η φιλόλογος χρησιμοποιεί τη λέξη 'λεφτά' αντί 'λεπτά' που χρησιμοποιείται σε διαλέκτους της γλώσσας και στην καθαρεύουσα και οι αλλοδαποί μαθητές δεν την κατανοούν και κοροϊδεύουν τη φιλόλογο. Αυτή απαντά πως είναι λέξη που χρησιμοποιείται στην καθαρεύουσα αλλά αυτοί δε γνωρίζουν τι σημαίνει καθαρεύουσα. Αυτό είναι ένδειξη για μη γνώσης της ιστορίας της ελληνικής γλώσσας

- Το μάθημα ξεκινάει αλλά η φασαρία επικρατεί.

- Η φιλόλογος κάθεται στην υπερυψωμένη έδρα και μόνο μια φορά σηκώθηκε για να περπατήσει ανάμεσα στα θρανία. Αυτό δείχνει μια απόσταση από τους μαθητές

- Συνεχώς τους φωνάζει να σταματήσουν να κάνουν φασαρία. Αυτό διακόπτει συνεχώς τη ροή του μαθήματος

- Είναι σημαντικό να τονίσω πως έχουν εξελληνίσει τα ονόματά τους και δεν μπορείς από το όνομα να καταλάβεις ποιοι είναι οι αλλοδαποί μαθητές. Αλλά μεταξύ τους χρησιμοποιούν το κανονικό τους όνομα.

- Η φιλόλογος σηκώνει ένα αλλοδαπό μαθητή στον πίνακα για να γράψει αυτά που λέει η φιλόλογος. Αυτός ο μαθητής σύμφωνα με την φιλόλογο παρουσιάζει υψηλές επιδόσεις σε αυτό το μάθημα
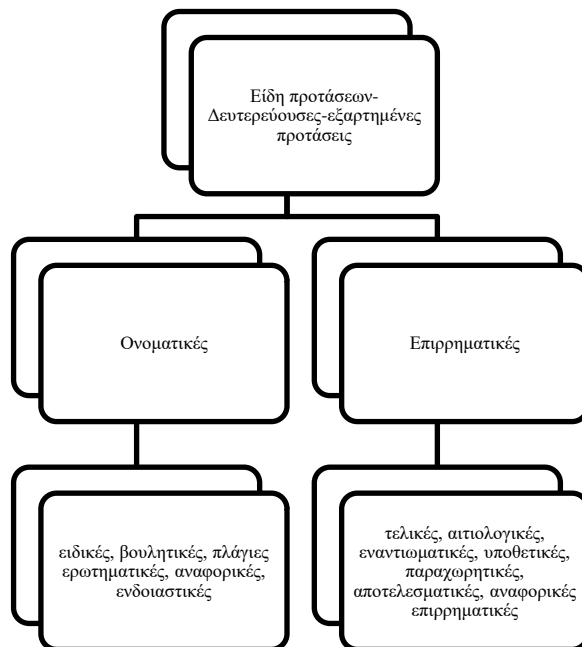
- Η φιλόλογος ρωτάει όλη την τάξη, 2-3 μαθητές σηκώνουν χέρι και αυτή υποδεικνύει ποιος θα μιλήσει. Το χέρι σηκώνουν μόνο έλληνες ή αλλοδαποί μαθητές που γεννήθηκαν στην Ελλάδα.

- Ρωτάει όλη την τάξη να επεξηγήσουν όρους, όπως δευτερεύουσες-εξαρτημένες προτάσεις. Κανείς δεν σηκώνει χέρι και κανείς δεν απαντάει. Για να τους βοηθήσει να καταλάβουν τι είναι εξαρτημένες, τους ζητά να βρουν τι σημαίνει η λέξη εξάρτηση. 2 μαθητές απαντούν χωρίς να σηκώσουν χέρι αλλά στο τέλος δίνει η ίδια τον ορισμό χωρίς να σχολιάσει τις απαντήσεις των μαθητών.

- Στη συνέχεια ρωτά όλη την τάξη να της πουν τα διάφορα είδη προτάσεων και τι εννοούμε με το κάθε είδος. Βλέποντας πως κανένας δεν συμμετέχει, ρωτάει ποιες προτάσεις λέμε ειδικές, βουλητικές, ενδοιαστικές, πλάγιες ερωτηματικές, με ποιους συνδέσμους εισάγονται και πως τις χρησιμοποιούμε στο λόγο. Κανένας μαθητής δεν έδωσε απάντηση και μετά από ένα λεπτό δίνει η ίδια τις απαντήσεις. Δεν παρακολουθεί η πλειονότητα των αλλοδαπών μαθητών, τα αγόρια κυρίως και κάνουν αφάνταστη φασαρία.

- Στον πίνακα έγραφε μόνο ο αλλοδαπός μαθητής που τον σήκωσε από την αρχή

- Διακόπτουν για άσχετα πράγματα το μάθημα ρωτώντας 'τι ώρα είναι', 'κυρία θέλω να το πετάξω'

- Πετάνε χαρτιά ο ένας στον άλλο

- Άκουσα 2 φορές κάποιος να αποκαλεί τον συμμαθητή του Αλβανό και Αλβανάκι

- Μόλις τελειώσουν τη γρήγορη απαρίθμηση των προτάσεων παραπέμπει στο πρώτο φυλλάδιο που τους έδωσε με τις ασκήσεις. Χωρίζει την τάξη σε 2 μεγάλες ομάδες. Η 1η ομάδα θα ασχοληθεί με τις επιρρηματικές προτάσεις και η άλλη ομάδα με τις ονοματικές προτάσεις

- Τους άφησε να δουλέψουν μόνο 5 λεπτά για την άσκηση. Οι μαθητές που δυσκολεύονταν δεν έκαναν την άσκηση ή όπως έλεγαν έπαιζαν λόττο. Αυτό υποδεικνύει πως δεν είχαν καταλάβει καθόλου το φαινόμενο των δευτερευουσών προτάσεων και πως ούτε τους βοήθησε και η γρήγορη επανάληψη

- Συνδυάζει τις γνώσεις της νέας ελληνικής με το μάθημα της αρχαίας ελληνικής γλώσσας συνεχώς για να εξηγήσει αυτές τις προτάσεις

- Κατά τη διάρκεια της άσκησης οι αλλοδαποί μαθητές συζητούν για το ποδόσφαιρο και βλέπουν την άσκηση σαν να συμπληρώνουν δελτίο προπό

- Μετά από 5 λεπτά, η φιλόλογος ξεκινά να ελέγχει τις ασκήσεις ρωτώντας όλη την τάξη αλλά βάζοντας μόνο τις αλλοδαπές κοπέλες που προσπαθούν χωρίς αυτές να σηκώνουν χέρι. Δεν διορθώνει η ίδια τις απαντήσεις αλλά ζητά από τους άλλους μαθητές να πουν αν είναι σωστό. Οι μαθητές όμως δεν απαντούν και έτσι δίνει η ίδια τη σωστή απάντηση ή επιβεβαιώνει ότι η απάντηση είναι σωστή.

- Αρχίζει να γίνεται μεγάλη φασαρία μέσα στην τάξη, κάποιοι αλλοδαποί μαθητές σηκώνονται χωρίς λόγο μιας και δεν μπορούν να συμμετάσχουν στο μάθημα

- Κατά τη διάρκεια του μαθήματος η φιλόλογος κάνει συνέχεια παρατήρηση στους αλλοδαπούς μαθητές που κάνουν φασαρία. Αναφέρεται στη σχολή του Πυθαγόρα που εκεί μάθαιναν να ακούνε τους άλλους ζητώντας τους να σεβαστούν τους συμμαθητές τους. η φασαρία όμως συνεχίζεται

- Μια κοπέλα από την Αρμενία που ένα χρόνο έχει στην Ελλάδα συμμετέχει στο μάθημα και απαντά στις ερωτήσεις – αυτή παρακολουθεί στο τμήμα ενίσχυσης που υπάρχει στο σχολείο και το οποίο έχει δημιουργηθεί στο πλαίσιο του προγράμματος Διάπολις. Η φιλόλογος βλέπει διαφορά σε αυτή την κοπέλα και φυσικά διαβάζει και προσπαθεί στο σπίτι της

- Οι αλλοδαποί μαθητές είτε κάθονται μόνοι τους στο θρανίο είτε με άλλο αλλοδαπό μαθητή. Οι άτακτοι της τάξης κάθονται από τη μια πλευρά εκτός από ένα ελληνόπουλο

- Δυσκολία στο να ελέγξουν τις ασκήσεις και αυτό έχει ως αποτέλεσμα να μην συνεχίζει την αυτοαξιολόγηση αλλά να ελέγχει η ίδια τις απαντήσεις και να βάζει η ίδια τους μαθητές που θα μιλήσουν

- Αν κάποιος μαθητής πει λάθος απάντηση προσπαθεί να του υπενθυμίσει τον κανόνα για βρει τη σωστή απάντηση

- Ρωτάει το είδος των προτάσεων ολικής ή μερικής άγνοιας και δεν απαντούν αρκετοί μαθητές. μόνο ένας ή δύο

- Τα ελληνόπουλα και τα αλλοδαπά κορίτσια απαντούν κυρίως (3-4 μαθητές), οι άλλοι κάνουν φασαρία

- Ο μαθητής που κάθεται στο πρώτο θρανίο μόνος του δεν μιλάει και δε συμμετάσχει καθόλου μέσα στο μάθημα. Η φιλόλογος μια φορά μόνο του απεύθυνε το λόγο αλλά αυτός δεν απάντησε

- Ο μαθητής που κάθεται πίσω του ασχολείται περισσότερο με εμένα και με τους διπλανούς παρά με το μάθημα. Η φιλόλογος δεν τον εντάσσει στο μάθημα, δεν του απευθύνει το λόγο. Μόνο του έκανε παρατήρηση μια φορά και του είπε να 'ρθει με τους γονείς του γιατί δε θα τον ξαναδεχτεί μέσα στην τάξη, όπως ακόμη δυο αλλοδαπούς και ένα έλληνα

- Αυτόν που έβγαλε έξω έκανε την ίδια φασαρία μέσα στην τάξη όπως και οι άλλοι.

- Ο άλλος που ήταν άτακτος προσπαθούσε να συμμετάσχει μέσα στην τάξη αλλά κυρίως για να κάνει φασαρία και όχι για να λέει τη σωστή απάντηση

- Τα ελληνόπουλα δεν τους μιλούν, έστω και αν κάνουν φασαρία, δεν τους λένε να σταματήσουν να μιλάνε

- Μου λέει ένας αλλοδαπός μαθητής: κυρία να γράψεις καλά λόγια για εμάς και του είπα να ακούει τη φιλόλογό τους.

- Η φιλόλογος δεν μπόρεσε να ολοκληρώσει τον έλεγχο των ασκήσεων εξαιτίας αυτής της φασαρίας. Τους ανέθεσε τις υπόλοιπες εργασίες των φυλλαδίων για το σπίτι τους.

Σχόλια

Η φιλόλογος πριν μπούμε μέσα στην τάξη στην τάξη με ενημέρωσε για την κατάσταση της τάξης. Τον αριθμό των μαθητών, την καταγωγή τους, πόσα χρόνια είναι στην Ελλάδα. Αναφέρει πως οι αλλοδαποί μαθητές, έστω κι αν έχουν γεννηθεί στην Ελλάδα αδιαφορούν, δεν ενδιαφέρονται για το μάθημα, γι' αυτό και αντιμετωπίζουν αρκετά προβλήματα. Αρκετοί από αυτούς έχουν κρατήσει και την προφορά από τη χώρα τους, όπως ανέφερε η φιλόλογος. Τα

κορίτσια από την Αρμενία που είναι 1 με 1,5 χρόνο κάνουν προσπάθεια, τα καταφέρνουν όμως μόνο στον επικοινωνιακό λόγο και όχι στον ακαδημαϊκό λόγο. Επίσης, αναφέρθηκε στη σχέση της με τους γονείς των αλλοδαπών μαθητών. Δεν μπορεί να επικοινωνήσει μαζί τους κυρίως λόγω της μη κατάκτησης της ελληνικής γλώσσας. Οι γονείς μόλις ακούσουν πως είναι άτακτοι μαθητές και δεν παρακολουθούν, η πρώτη τους αντίδραση είναι να σταματήσουν τα παιδιά τους από το σχολείο και να μπουν στη δουλειά. Αυτό δείχνει, κατά την άποψή της, πως οι γονείς οι ίδιοι δεν δίνουν κίνητρο στα παιδιά τους για να συμμετάσχουν και να βελτιωθούν στο σχολείο. Σύμφωνα με την άποψή της, ίσως αυτός είναι ένας από τους λόγους που οι μαθητές δεν δίνουν σημασία στο μάθημα.

Νιώθει πως επειδή επικρατούν οι αλλόγλωσσοι μαθητές, οι έλληνες, τα κορίτσια και οι καλοί μαθητές είναι πιο συγκρατημένοι, δεν διαμαρτύρονται για τη φασαρία. Αντιθέτως τα αγόρια όλα προσπαθούν να κάνουν φασαρία. Δεν ξέρει αν θα το εκλάβει ως αδιαφορία γενικότερα ή σαν αντίδραση που δεν μπορούν να παρακολουθήσουν το συγκεκριμένο μάθημα ή το μάθημα στο οποίο πρέπει να κάνουν επανάληψη και να ελέγξουν τις γνώσεις τους.

CS4_interview 2 transcript

Turns	Content
1.	θα σας κάνω κάποιες ερωτήσεις για την προηγούμενη συνέντευξη/ και μετά θα συζητήσουμε για το πρώτο και το δεύτερο μάθημα το οποίο παρακολούθησα// λοιπόν// μου είπατε ότι σπουδάσατε στο Αριστοτέλειο// θεωρείται επαρκείς τις σπουδές σας? *I will ask you some questions related to our previous interview and then we will discuss about the first and the second lesson that I observed. So you told me that you studied at the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki do you think that your studies were adequate?*
2.	για τις ανάγκες της δευτεροβάθμιας εκπαίδευσης (.) <u>βεβαίως</u> επαρκείς/ βέβαια αυτό (2) λίγο έτσι (2) με όση μετριοφροσύνη μπορώ/ ότι <u>φρόντισα</u> κι εγώ (.) από μόνος μου/ να <u>καλύψω</u>// με διαβάσματα/ με ενημερώσεις/ με σεμινάρια τα πάντα/ ώστε να ολοκληρωθώ περισσότερο/ και να μην μείνω μόνο στις πανεπιστημιακές σπουδές// υποτίθεται ότι [ε] από αυτά που κάναμε στο πανεπιστήμιο (.) σαν <u>θεωρία</u> ας πούμε αλλά και πράξη/ [ε] πόσα να κάνουμε στο γυμνάσιο και στο λύκειο? (5) έτσι μπορώ να πω ότι (5) ένα πολύ μεγάλο ποσοστό της <u>κάποιας</u> πληρότητας που θεωρώ πως έχω/ την απέκτησα από μόνος μου// *of course I consider them adequate for teaching in secondary education of course I have to say with as much modesty as I can that I aimed to catch up with everything by studying by going to seminars so as to learn more things and not to base only on my university studies it is supposed that what we did at university in terms of theory and practice how much to do for gymnasium and high school so I can say that the most of my knowledge which I think is complete I have developed it on my own*
3.	τι διαβάζετε δηλαδή? *for example what have you read?*
4.	γλωσσικά ζητήματα/ αφού κάνουμε Γλώσσα// (2) βιβλία γλωσσολόγων// τι λέει ο Τσολάκης/ τι λέει ο Κριαράς/ ξέρω εγώ// άνθρωποι που ασχολήθηκαν με τη γλώσσα// τα βιβλία τους/ τις προτάσεις τους// μετά (3) πολύ λογοτεχνία/ ποίηση/ μυθιστορήματα/ και τα λοιπά/ όλα τα είδη// θα λεγα από πλευράς λογοτεχνία ίσως λιγότερο να διάβασα θέατρο/ αλλά πεζογραφία και ποίηση αρκετή// με πρώτη (.) χωρίς συναγωνισμό η πεζογραφία// ιστορικά θέματα// ειδικότερα της - θα λέγαμε της νεότερης Ελλάδας/ δηλαδή από τότε από συστάσεως του ελληνικού κράτους (.) από το 1821 και μετά// στο τέλος του 19ου στην αρχή του τους Βαλκανικούς πολέμους// αυτά που δεν είχα κάνεις σαν μαθητής/ και τα αντιμετώπισα βέβαια ως καθηγητής στο σχολείο/ αυτά τα ιστορικά μέχρι και τον πόλεμο

	του 40 και τον εμφύλιο/ αυτά δεν τα είχαμε κάνει και επομένως (.) <u>παράλληλα</u> με τα σχολικά εγχειρίδια/ διάβαζα και (.) ιστορία και από άλλες πηγές// *linguistic issues since we speak about the Greek language subject {I study} studies of Linguistics for example what Tsolakis says what Kriaras says people who are on language {I study} their studies their proposes also {I study} a lot of literature poetry novels and so on {I study} all of the types of literature maybe I read less theatre but {I study} a lot of prose and poetry of course {I study} more prose than poetry {I study} historical events mainly related to the history of modern Greece that is, from the time that the Greek nation has been established in 1821 until the end of the 19th century from the Balkan wars I didn't learn these historical events when I was a pupil but I have had to teach them as a teacher so I was studying history from different sources at the same time I was studying it from the textbook of history*
5.	ωραία// τι είδους σεμινάρια παρακολουθήσατε; *nice, what kind of seminars did you attend?*
6.	σεμινάρια (.) όσες φορές η (3) υπηρεσία μας ξέρω εγώ έκανε// ή με σχολικούς συμβούλους/ ή όπου αλλού (.) στο πανεπιστήμιο και τα λοιπά// πήγα σε όσα μπόρεσα/ θα λεγα (.) περίπου σε όλα// έτσι// *I attend seminars every time when our service organized seminars or {I attend seminars} organized by school consultants or wherever at university and so on I went in as many as I could I could say that I want to almost all of them*
7.	τί θέματα θυμάστε; *do you remember the topics?*
8.	κοιτάξτε (.) θυμάμαι σε ένα σεμινάριο κάναμε/ ξέρω εγώ/ για τη λυρική ποίηση// ήταν μάλιστα ο καθηγητής (.) από το πανεπιστήμιο (.) φίλος μου/ ο Γιάννης ο - τώρα μου διαφεύγει το όνομα// ο καθηγητής [ε] γλωσσικά θέματα βεβαίως αρκετά/ και φέτος κάναμε ένα σεμινάριο για τα πολυπολιτισμικά σχολεία (.) για να δω ας πούμε και (4) ανάγκες/ ας πούμε ξέρω εγώ/ δυσλεξία και τέτοια// έτσι// και διάφορα άλλα θέματα/ τώρα από τη δεκαετία του '80 που έχω διοριστεί// *look I remember a seminar related to lyric poetry and it was presented an academic friend of mine I can't remember his name now seminars had mainly linguistic topics this year we attend a seminar for multicultural schools to understand let's say the needs for example dyslexia and such issues now we speak about seminars I have attended from the '80 when I entered the profession*
9.	το σεμινάριο για το πολυπολιτισμικό σχολείο/ τι έλεγε; θυμάστε; *what does the seminar related to the multicultural school refer to?*
10.	οι δυσκολίες της γλώσσας γενικά// και γενικά πως θα πρέπει έτσι να

	(6) αντιμετωπίζουμε/ ποια να είναι η <u>στάση</u> μας γενικά (.) απέναντι σε ένα (.) πολυπολιτισμικό στοιχείο// δηλαδή όταν έχεις μια τάξη ας πούμε (.) με παιδιά που ανήκουν σε πέντε εθνότητες/ σε τρεις/ σε δύο και τα λοιπά/ που <u>δεν</u> συνταυτίζονται οι πολιτισμοί/ έχουν τις ιδιαιτερότητές τους// εκεί χρειάζεται ας πούμε ένα πνεύμα πως το λένε (5) καλοπροαίρετα απέναντι σε όλα/ <u>όλα</u> ευπρόσδεκτα/ δεν υπάρχει κάτι το καλύτερο ή το λιγότερο// ο καθένας έχει την πρότασή του/ ο καθένας έχει την ιστορία του/ σεβαστή/ έτσι// *to the difficulties of language basically {it referred to} how we can cope with these how we can behave generally when we have multicultural class that is, when you have a class with pupils who are from five or three or two different nations and so on whose culture is different who have different characteristics you have to accept everything something is not better from the other each one has his/ her culture and history and we respect it*
11.	μάλιστα// πώς σας φάνηκε? *right what do you think about it?*
12.	το τελευταίο αυτό (.) που λέμε με το πολυπολιτισμικό? *about the last one the multicultural?*
13.	ναι// *yes*
14.	[ε] δεν μπορώ να πω/ γιατί δεν έχω συγκρίσιμα στοιχεία/ δεν ότι βρέθηκα σε κάποιο άλλο και λοιπά// θα έλεγα ότι το αντιμετώπιζα - πήρα τις πληροφορίες του σαν πρώτη φορά// ήταν κάτι που δεν - ήταν πράγματα που δεν ήξερα// ή δεν (3) είχα αντιμετωπίσει// ναι (.) το δέχτηκα ευχάριστα// είδα και άλλες <u>παραμέτρους</u>/ πτυχές του θέματος/ που δεν τις ήξερα// *I can't say anything because I didn't attend a similar seminar and I don't have a point of comparison I think that I hear the information that they gave us for the first time I hear things that I didn't know or I didn't have to cope with them yes I accept the information with pleasant I learn different aspect of this issue that I didn't know*
15.	[χμμμ] είχατε παρακολουθήσει και άλλα σεμινάρια (.) για τη διδασκαλία της Γλώσσας (.) μέσα στις μικτές τάξεις? *um did you attend any other seminars about teaching the Greek language subject in mainstream classes?*
16.	όχι/ γιατί (5) εδώ (2) στο σχολείο το δικό μας/ δεν έχουμε μαθητές που να ήρθαν ας πούμε πρόσφατα/ και να εντάχθηκαν στις τάξεις μας (.) οπότε υπήρχε <u>πρόβλημα</u> γλώσσας// στα σχολεία (.) εδώ (.) και στο συγκεκριμένο γυμνάσιο/ τα παιδιά έχουν έρθει από μωρά ας πούμε// που σημαίνει (.) ότι παρακολούθησαν <u>όλη</u> τη σχολική διαδικασία από τα νηπιαγωγεία της Ελλάδας ας πούμε μέχρι τώρα που φτάσαν στη δευτέρα γυμνασίου (.) είναι εδώ// επομένως υπάρχει <u>ίση</u> αντιμετώπιση// δεν κάνεις κάτι το ιδιαίτερο για να βοηθήσεις το (.) Αλβανάκι/ τον (.) Γεωργιανό/ ή τον (.) Ουκρανό

(…) // τους βλέπεις όλους τους ίδιους μαθητές// <u>αυτό</u> συμβαίνει (.) στα σχολεία υποδοχής όπως τα λέμε/ όταν έρχεται ένα παιδί (.) δώδεκα χρονών/ <u>βεβαίως</u> και δεν μπορείς να το εντάξεις (.) στην πέμπτη ή στην έκτη τάξη του δημοτικού σχολείου εδώ/ χρειάζεται έτσι να είναι - χρειάζεται μια αντιμετώπιση διαφορετική/ οπότε έχουμε <u>θεσπίσει</u> αυτά τα σχολεία//

no because in our school we do not have pupils who have come recently to Greece and attend our courses so that they would have problems with the language in these schools and especially in this gymnasium children have come very young meaning that they attend all the school courses in Greece they are here from nursery school to the 2nd grade of Gymnasium so you treat them as equals you do not do something else to help the Albanian the Georgian or the Ukrainian I see them as equals this is happening in the host schools as we call them when a 12 year old child have come to Greece and of course you can't enter him/ her in the 5th or the 6th grade of primary school you have to treat them differently for this reason we have established the host schools

17.	δεν υπάρχουν/ όμως αρκετά τέτοια σχολεία/ και αναγκάζονται - *there aren't however many of these schools and pupils have to*
18.	ναι// επειδή <u>πόσα</u>? - οι περισσότεροι μαθητές (.) έχουν έρθει από μικροί (.) <u>εδώ</u>// πολλά δε (.) γεννήθηκαν <u>εδώ</u>// αν σκεφτούμε ότι (.) οι οικονομικοί μετανάστες άρχισαν να μπαίνουν κατά συρροή (.) έτσι? στην Ελλάδα/ μετά το 1992/ μιλάμε τώρα ότι συμπληρώνονται είκοσι χρόνια// [ε] μέσα στα 20 χρόνια τώρα μιλάμε για παιδιά γυμνασίου/ <u>ασφαλώς</u> (.) τα περισσότερα γεννήθηκαν εδώ (…)// *yes because most of the pupils have come very young here many of them were born here if you imagine that the economic immigrants started coming to Greece after 1992 so they have come 20 years ago we speak about gymnasium pupils so the most of them were born here*
19.	[ε] είχατε βρεθεί τα προηγούμενα χρόνια σε σχολεία τα οποία είχαν τέτοια σύνθεση τάξης? πολυπολιτισμική? *in the previous years have you taught in schools where classes were this type? multicultural?*
20.	όχι (.) όχι// ήταν η πρώτη φορά/ και δεν τα γνώριζα// (…) [ε] εντάξει ήμουνα σε ένα σχολείο που είχε (2) 25 μαθητές η τάξη/ και να ήταν <u>δύο</u> ας πούμε (.) αλλοδαποί/ αλλοεθνείς// <u>όχι</u>// *no no it's my first time and I didn't know this ok I was in a school where from the 25 pupils of a class only two were foreigners*
21.	έχετε αλλάξει τον τρόπο που διδάσκεται εσείς το μάθημα (.) της Γλώσσας/ λόγω του ότι έχετε <u>αυτή</u> τη σύνθεση της τάξης? *have you changed the way you teach the Greek language subject because of the type of class that you have?*

22.	όχι/ <u>δε</u> νομίζω/ γιατί εφόσον την αντιμετώπιζαν (.) σαν τάξη <u>ελληνικού</u> σχολείου/ και (5) η διδαχή της Γλώσσας (.) υπαγορεύεται <u>και</u> από τους κανονισμούς/ και από τα εγχειρίδια/ δεν είναι κάτι που είναι <u>εντελώς</u> προσωπική επιλογή// τώρα προσωπικά μπορεί να (2) δώσω συμπληρωματικά κάτι κτλ (.) το οποίο θα έκανα ούτως ή άλλως (.) σε οποιοδήποτε άλλο σχολείο// δηλαδή να βάζεις μια άσκηση (3) δική σου/ μια εργασία στο σπίτι/ ή ξέρω εγώ συμπληρωματικά ναι// [ε] αλλά ο κορμός/ η <u>ραχοκοκαλιά</u> της διδασκαλίας είναι αυτή που υπαγορεύεται από τα βιβλία - και γενικότερα (.) να μην πω νόμους/ από τις κατευθύνεις/ από τις οδηγίες που έχουμε// *no I don't think so because I consider it as a class of a Greek school and the way of teaching the Greek language subject is prescribed by both the rules and textbooks teaching is not completely a personal choice I can give something additional which I would have done in any other school that is, to give an extra exercise for homework or for instance something additional but the basis of the teaching is what the textbooks prescribe and in general not the laws but what the directions that we have {prescribe}*
23.	έχω τις σημειώσεις που κρατούσα (.) από τα δύο πρώτα μαθήματα/ αν θέλετε να σας τις δώσω κάποια στιγμή// χρησιμοποιείτε τα κείμενα του βιβλίου/ και εστιάζετε στα συντακτικά φαινόμενα// *here are the notes that I was keeping during the first two lesson that I observed if you want I can give them to you you use texts of the textbook and you focus on their syntactic phenomena*
24.	κοιτάξτε/ στην - [ε] τα κείμενα (4) στην μεν αρχαία ελληνική γλώσσα - επειδή μιλάμε μόνο για τη νέα ελληνική/ *look the text of the Ancient Greek language subject do we speak only about the Modern Greek language subject?*
25.	ναι/ μόνο για την νέα ελληνική// *yes only about the Modern Greek language subject*
26.	δεν είναι μόνο για τα συντακτικά φαινόμενα/ <u>καταρχήν</u> χρειάζονται και οι απαραίτητες ερωτήσεις κατανόησης// γιατί (.) είναι κείμενα που βγάζουν κάποια προβλήματα της εποχής/ γεγονότα ας πούμε// [ε] αφηγούνται (.) ξέρω εγώ (.) ιστορίες διάφορες// επομένως σαν περιεχόμενο/ ενδιαφέρει και αυτό// και αναπτύσσεται αν θέλεις έτσι και η (2) κρίση των μαθητών// μπορούν έτσι (.) να διατυπώνουν προφορικά (.) έτσι (.) ένα σωστό λόγο και λοιπά// από την άλλη μεριά βέβαια (.) υπάρχουν τα (.) γραμματοσυντακτικά/ και τα <u>ετυμολογικά</u> φαινόμενα// [ε] όταν τώρα έχεις να κάνεις/ ξέρω εγώ/ αντωνυμίες/ [ε] θα τους πεις μέσα στο κείμενο/ βρέστε τις αντωνυμίες/ ξέρω εγώ// γιατί (.) αλλιώτικα (2) θα πρέπει να φέρνεις κάθε φορά μια φωτοτυπία (.) με τις αντωνυμίες <u>έτοιμες</u>/ ή με τα ρήματα/ με τα επιρρήματα/ οτιδήποτε/ και να προσπαθούν τα παιδιά να αποστηθίσουν ένα κατάλογο λέξεων ας πούμε// <u>ενώ</u> (.) όταν μπορούν και τα εντοπίζουν μέσα έτσι στο κείμενο/ μαθαίνουνε

	καλύτερα// δεν είναι θέμα (.) αποστήθισης/ είναι θέμα να το εντοπίζουνε// *I don't use them only for the syntactic phenomena first of all you have to have the appropriate comprehension questions because texts are referring let's say to some of the problems happening of our era they discuss different stories so their content is interesting in this way also you can say that the judgment of pupils can be developed so they will be able to speak correctly and so on on the other hand there are the grammatical and syntactical phenomena as well as the etymological phenomena when you have then to teach pronouns you will tell them for example to find the pronouns of the text because otherwise every time you should give them a photocopy {sheet} with either the pronouns or verbs or adverbs or whatever and children should try for example to memorize a list of words while when they can find them in the text they can learn them better the issues is not to memorize them but to find them*
27.	μαθαίνουνε καλύτερα? *they learn better?*
28.	ότι (.) όταν τους λες ότι αυτή είναι/ ας πούμε/ δευτερεύουσα αιτιολογική πρόταση/ να <u>μπορούν</u> να δουν ότι (.) ξέρω εγώ/ έχει το διότι και λοιπά ας πούμε// χρειάζεται <u>έτσι</u>// γιατί η γλώσσα [ε] είναι λέξεις/ είναι προτάσεις/ που σημαίνει ότι όλα αυτά τα πράγματα για να γράψεις ένα λόγο ή για να πεις προφορικά/ πρέπει να έχει μια <u>δομή</u>/ η δομή εξασφαλίζεται από τη γραμματική/ από τη συντακτική/ ας πούμε από το συντακτικό/ να το πω έτσι// [ε] αλλιώτικα θα ήταν ένας σκόρπιος λόγος/ βεβαίως στα προφορικά έχουμε και την περίφημη εξωγλωσσική ας πούμε (.) (…) τις χειρονομίες/ και τα λοιπά/ εντάξει// αλλά στον γραπτό λόγο (.) τα πράγματα είναι <u>πιο</u> (.) θα έλεγε κανείς σαφή// δεν εννοείται τίποτα/ δεν εξυπακούεται τίποτα/ δεν καταγράφεται (.) γκριμάτσα του προσώπου/ ή χειρονομία ας πούμε στα γραπτά// εκεί πρέπει να είσαι <u>πολύ</u> σαφής/ και διασφαλίζεται ακριβώς (.) με τους κανόνες αυτούς/ τους γραμματικούς/ και τους συντακτικούς// *for example when you tell them that this is an expressing subordinate clause {they should} be able to understand that it starts with 'because' and so on this is needed because the language is words is sentences meaning that in order either to be able to write or to speak you must produce a structured speech the structure of a speech depends on the grammar and the syntax otherwise your speech will be disconnected of course when we speak we can use paralinguistic {signs} for example gestures and so on but when we write things are more clear you cannot imply anything you cannot take anything for granted you cannot write a grimace or a gesture when you write you must be very clear and this can be insured by these grammatical and syntactical rules*
29.	άρα/ εσείς πιστεύετε ότι μέσα από το κείμενο/ μαθαίνουν <u>καλύτερα</u> τα συντακτικά φαινόμενα/ αν κατάλαβα καλά?

30.	ναι// πρέπει να τους δώσεις ένα κείμενο/ για να μπορούν μέσα να τα ανιχνεύσουν/ να τα βρίσκουν/ και επειδή – κοιτάξτε (.) θα μπορούσες να τους φέρεις ένα οποιοδήποτε κείμενο/ αλλά (.) στην συγκεκριμένη περίπτωση τι γίνεται// επειδή αυτό είναι σχολικό εγχειρίδιο/ σημαίνει (Φ.1) ότι οι συγγραφείς του βιβλίου (.) έχουν βάλει τέτοια κείμενα/ ώστε μέσα από εκεί (.) τα παιδιά να πάρουν όλες τις πληροφορίες που θέλουν/ έτσι? και να βρουν όλους - όλα τα αντικείμενα/ τα στοιχεία/ τα γραμματειακά/ τα γραμματολογικά/ τα γραμματικά/ τα συντακτικά μέσα από αυτά// είναι (.) επιλεγμένα// γιατί όταν θα πρέπει ας πούμε να παραδώσεις (.) ένα παράδειγμα να πω (.) για τα επιρρήματα/ [ε] δεν μπορεί να μην έχεις ένα κείμενο (.) με κάποια επιρρήματα παραπάνω/ δεν μπορεί να δώσεις ένα κείμενο που να έχει ένα επίρρημα μόνο// έτσι? είναι επιλεγμένα αυτά// γι' αυτό// *yes you should give them a text in order for them to be able to find {the grammatical and syntactical phenomena} and because look you could give them any type of text but in this situation we have this textbook of which the writers chose such texts so that children can find all the wanted information and all the grammatical and syntactical phenomena of the texts which were chosen because when you for example have to teach the adverbs you can't use a text without a lot of adverbs you can't use a text that had only one adverb for this reason these texts are chosen*
31.	[ε] κάνετε αναφορά και στους κανόνες της γραμματικής// *you also referred to grammatical rules*
32.	[ε] και βέβαια// κοιτάξτε// (5) [ε] λένε (.) και αυτό το λέω από προσωπική μου πείρα/ δεν το λέω ότι είναι (.) ούτε επιστημονικό συμπέρασμα/ ούτε κάτι το - έχω την εντύπωση ότι (3) αυτός που γράφει σωστά/ ορθογραφημένα/ το βασίζω σε δύο πράγματα/ πάνω σε δύο πυλώνες// ο ένας είναι ο αισθητικός/ πως έχω δει τη λέξη// κι εγώ ακόμη που είμαι καθηγητής/ πολλές φορές όταν (.) δε θυμάμαι μια λέξη/ δε διέπεται από γραμματικό κανόνα/ είναι λέξη η οποία από γεννησιμιού της γράφτηκε έτσι/ πρωτότυπη λέξη// είναι λαθεμένη - είναι λανθασμένη κάπου/ το βλέπω (.) και λέω δε μου αρέσει αυτή η λέξη έτσι/ οπότε (.) υπάρχει λοιπόν η αισθητική πλευρά// λέξεις που βλέπεις (…) διαβάζεις τόσα βιβλία/ και τόσα αυτά/ και αποτυπώνεται μέσα// αλλά υπάρχουν και οι ορθογραφικοί κανόνες// λες παραδείγματος χάριν ότι όλα τα ρήματα που τελειώνουν σε ωνω γράφονται με ωμέγα/ και τα παράγωγά τους// μπαλώνω/ μπάλωμα/ ξέρω εγώ (4) καμαρώνω/ καμάρωμα/ ξέρω εγώ/ γράφονται με ωμέγα// δεν μπορεί δηλαδή - δυστυχώς σήμερα θα λεγα ότι (.) οι μαθητές μας (3) υστερούν και στους δύο τομείς// και τους ορθογραφικούς κανόνες δεν ξέρουν/ και η αισθητική τους είναι (.) να μην πω όχι λειψή/ ανύπαρκτη// γράφουνε ότι ακούνε (.) ακουστικά// γι' αυτό και μπορείς να δεις σε ένα γραπτό να γράφουν την ίδια λέξη πέντε φορές με πέντε διαφορετικές – με πέντε

	διαφορετικούς τρόπους// εννοώ από πλευράς ορθογραφίας//
	of course look I say this from personal experience I don't say it because it is a research result or something {else} I have the impression that two things happens when someone writes correctly with correct spelling first he/ she has an aesthetic criterion that is how I have seen the word to be written for example I who am a teacher many times when I don't remember {the spelling of} a word which is not based on any grammatical rule and is a prototype word when I see it with wrong spelling somewhere I say I don't like the spelling of this word so there is the aesthetic criterion you see a lot of words when you read so many books also there are the spelling rules you know that all the verbs that have an ending '-ωνω' they are written with omega and their derivatives for example ((he is giving examples of derivatives)) are written with omega too unfortunately nowadays I will say that our pupils are inefficient in both criteria they do not know the spelling rules and they do not have an aesthetic criterion they write what they hear for this reason you can see that in the same text they can write the same word with five different ways of spelling
33.	άρα/ διδάσκετε τους κανόνες της γραμματικής/ για να τους βοηθήσουν στην ορθογραφία περισσότερο?

that is do you teach the grammatical rules to help them in spelling? |
| 34. | και βέβαια/ και βέβαια// γιατί (3) πολλές φορές βέβαια/ η ορθογραφία μιας λέξης (.) ταυτίζεται και με τη σημασία της// άμα πεις - ένα παράδειγμα/ έδωσα - ζήτησα τη χείρα (.) της τάδε δεσποινίδος ξέρω εγώ/ έτσι// και το γράψεις με οι από τη γουρούνα/ συγγνώμη (…)/ παίζει ρόλο// ή ζήτησα τη χήρα/ και αν το γράψεις με ήτα/ πήγες σε μια γυναίκα που δεν έχει τον άνδρα της/ και της ζήτησες το χέρι// λοιπόν υπάρχουν περιπτώσεις - η ορθογραφία διαφοροποιεί <u>και</u> τη σημασία της λέξης//

of course because many times the spelling of a word is connected with its meaning for example if you say I asked the hand of a miss if you write 'χείρα' ((the hand)) for example with different spelling ((he says the different ways of spelling)) the meaning will change there are times that the spelling affects the meaning of a word |
| 35. | ωραία// δίνετε και αρκετά παραδείγματα/ όταν (.) διδάσκεται τη γραμματική//

you give a lot of examples when you teach grammar |
| 36. | ναι ναι ναι// κοιτάξτε// τώρα τα παραδείγματα (3) έχουν να κάνουν με το εξής/ [ε] είναι τα στοχευμένα/ ας πούμε/ αυτά που στην προετοιμασία σου/ ξέρω εγώ/ λες θα πω αυτό κι αυτό το παράδειγμα// αλλά και τα άλλα οφείλονται (.) σε μια (.) ας πούμε (.) φυσική ικανότητα (.) να θυμάσαι εκείνη τη στιγμή/ ή να <u>φτιάχνεις</u> ας πούμε μια πρόταση που σου χρειάζεται/ δεν είναι ανάγκη να την έχεις διαβάσει κάπου/ ξέρω εγώ// και αν μου επιτραπεί να πω/ εκεί φαίνεται και η <u>αξιοσύνη</u> του δάσκαλου/ έτσι? αλλά (.) εντάξει (.) |

	χρειάζεται μια επάρκεια να καταλάβουν τα παιδιά/ γι' αυτό και μια λέξη όταν δίνεις τα περισσότερα συνώνυμα/ δίνεις και αντώνυμα/ και τα λοιπά// όσο πληρέστερα ας πούμε τη δίνεις/ τόσο καλύτερα//
	yes yes yes look during your planning you make examples you think I will say these examples but you also make up examples during the lesson to do this you need to have a natural skill to remember that moment or to make up a sentence that you need and it is not necessary to have read this sentence somewhere else if I can say you can understand how capable is a teacher from the examples that he/she makes up during teaching of course the examples must be adequate to help pupils understand for this reason when you give the most of synonyms and antonyms of a word and so on the better is for the pupils
37.	άρα (.) που εξυπηρετούν; *so how do these help?*
38.	ναι/ γιατί μπορεί με ένα παράδειγμα μπορεί να μην το καταλάβουν με ένα άλλο ίσως να το καταλάβουν// δηλαδή υπάρχει μια (4) πώς να το πει κανείς; κάτι που θέλεις να τους διδάξεις/ (…) ένα πράγμα μπορεί ένα παράδειγμα να γίνει πιο εύληπτο/ το καταλαβαίνουν καλύτερα/ από ένα άλλο παράδειγμα/ έτσι// και <u>όσο</u> πιο κοντά σε αυτούς είναι το παράδειγμα αυτό/ το καταλαβαίνουν με λέξεις που (.) τις ξέρουν και τα λοιπά/ τόσο το καλύτερο// *because they may not understand {a phenomenon} with one example but they may understand it with another one that is, when you want to teach them something they may understand it better with one example than with another one so when the example is related to their interests and it has words that they know and so on the better it is*
39.	και τους ρωτάτε στο κείμενο με τον Ψύλλο τους ρωτήσατε/ αν έχουν εμπειρία από εφημερίδες// αυτό που βοηθάει; *you also asked them in the text with Psyllo if they have had experience in publishing newspapers how does this help?*
40.	κοιτάξτε/ η γνώση είναι - δεν είναι μόνο δηλαδή γνώση από το δάσκαλο/ και από τα βιβλία/ είναι και η εμπειρική γνώση/ αυτή που ζούμε/ αυτή που βιώνουμε// [ε] νομίζω ότι κάτι (5) που υο έχουνε μάθει τα παιδιά και ταυτόχρονα το έχουνε βιώσει/ [ε] το ενστερνίζονται περισσότερο/ το κατακτούν περισσότερο/ γίνεται δικό τους// και έπειτα καμιά φορά (.) πρέπει να ξεκινήσεις και από ένα - [ε] μια αρχή// και επειδή τα μαθήματα δεν είναι <u>γκαρπόν</u> (.) κάτι να λέγεται συνέχεια/ η ίδια πατέντα ας το πούμε/ [ε] κάποτε ξεκινάω πως το βλέπετε αυτό; έχετε ζήσει κάτι τέτοιο; αν θες και (3) μιας μορφής - τρόπος διδασκαλίας// *look learning does not only come from the teacher and the books we also learn from our experiences I think that when children have learnt something that they have experienced they embrace it they learn it better also sometimes you have to start from a starting point*

	and because the lessons are not always the same you can't always say the same things sometimes I start by asking them what do you thing about this do you have experience on this? If you want, this is a way of teaching
41.	[χμμμ] [ε] τους περιγράψατε την εμπειρία σας με το σινεμά// *um you describe them your experience at the cinema*
42.	[ε] ναι// νομίζω ότι λέω κι εγώ την εμπειρία μου/ με όση σεμνότητα βέβαια πρέπει ξέρετε έχω// κι αυτό το λέω προς επίδοση αυτού που διαβάζω// λέω μια πληροφορία/ τη ζητάω από τα παιδιά/ και λέω ξέρετε (.) να σας πω κι εγώ/ να καταθέσω/ μου έγινε και εμένα αυτό/ νομίζω ότι - υπάρχει όμως κάτι// [ε] όταν λες κάτι (.) σαν δάσκαλος/ αυτό μετράει/ το επιστημονικό// το λέω/ μιλάει ο δάσκαλος// όταν τους λέω όμως κάτι σαν Αντρέας/ εκεί βάζω (.) παρένθεση/ και λέω παιδιά (.) αυτό είναι δική μου άποψη/ του Αντρέα// δεν είναι του καθηγητή// κλείνει η παρένθεση// έτσι? επομένως/ κάτι που θα τους πω βιωματικά/ δεν είναι ότι ισχύει/ επειδή το έζησα εγώ// τους λέω (.) έχω μια προσωπική εμπειρία/ σαν άτομο// *of course I think that I tell them my own experience with modesty of course you have to know that when I ask an information from the children I tell them and my own experience of course there is a difference between what I tell them as a teacher which is valid and what I tell them as Andreas which is only the opinion of Andreas and not of the teacher so something does not mean that is valid because I experience it I just tell them my personal experience as a person*
43.	ωραία// κάνετε σύνδεση και με τα αρχαία ελληνικά// *good you refer to a phenomenon in both the Modern Greek language and the Ancient Greek language*
44.	ναι το γλωσσικό μάθημα δεν μπορεί να - στη Γλώσσα μάλλον δεν μπορείς να το αποφύγεις αυτό/ και δεν <u>πρέπει</u> νομίζω να το αποφεύγεις// τώρα (2) μπορεί κάποιος να επικαλεστεί ότι είναι μια επιπλέον δυσκολία/ ότι τα παιδιά να έχουνε τώρα μπροστά τους (.) ας πούμε flash back που λέγεται/ να πηγαίνουν πότε στη μια πότε στην άλλη έτσι// ενώ πες τους πως είναι σήμερα στα νεοελληνικά (.) <u>χωρίς</u> αναφορά στα αρχαία// <u>ίσως</u> να <u>είναι</u> και αυτό ένα ίσως πρόβλημα/ μια δυσκολία/ αλλά επειδή η γλώσσα είναι <u>ενιαία</u>// ο καθηγητής μας/ ο Κριαράς έλεγε (3) είναι σαν τα ετερώνυμα κλάσματα/ αλλάζουν μόνο οι αριθμητές// λες αρχαία ελληνική γλώσσα/ λες αττική διάλεκτος/ έρχεσαι στην κοινή γλώσσα/ έρχεσαι στη μεσαιωνική γλώσσα/ αλλά από κάτω ο παρονομαστής είναι ελληνική γλώσσα/ ελληνική γλώσσα/ ελληνική γλώσσα// επομένως νομίζω ότι είναι <u>πληρέστερη</u> η πληροφορία// τώρα αν το ακροατήριο/ τα παιδιά έχουνε μεγάλα (2) γλωσσικά ελλείμματα/ και δυσκολεύονται παραπάνω/ *yes in the Greek language subject you can't avoid this and I believe that you must not avoid it someone may say that this is an additional difficulty for the children who have to use both languages at the same time but how can you tell something in the Modern Greek language without saying how it is in the Ancient Greek? Maybe it's*

	a problem a difficulty but it is the same language as our professor Kriaras told us the Greek language is like dividing fractions in which numerators changes for example we say the Ancient Greek language the attic dialect the standard Greek the byzantine Greek but the denominator is the same the Greek language so I believe that in this way you give them a full information now if the children have huge linguistic deficiencies and they have an additional problem	
45.	εσείς γιατί το (.) χρησιμοποιείται; *why do you use it?*	
46.	εγώ νομίζω έτσι/ για <u>πληρέστερη</u> πληροφόρηση// ένα παράδειγμα να σας πω που μου έρχεται στο μυαλό// λες σήμερα ξέρω εγώ/ λες (.) οι ξένοι// και το γράφει με κεφαλαίο γιατί λες ότι είναι κύριο όνομα// υπάρχει όμως και (.) νομίζω απαραίτητα πρέπει να τους πεις ότι (.) στην αρχαία γλώσσα ο ξένος ήταν επίθετο/ και σήμαινε ο φίλος από φιλοξενία// [ε] νομίζω ότι όταν του το λες έτσι/ ξέρω εγώ/ πιο συμπληρωμένα/ νομίζω ότι είναι (3) καλύτερο// έτσι; να συμπληρώνει το παιδί/ να έχει μια ολοκληρωμένη εικόνα και γνώση για μια λέξη/ για ένα όρο// *to give them a full information for example you know that a word 'ξένοι' ((foreign)) is written with a capital letter because it is proper noun but I think that it is necessary to tell them that in the Ancient Greek the word 'ξένος' was an adjective and it meant the guest I think that if you give them a full information is better because the pupil have a complete picture and knowledge for a word for a term*	
47.	ωραία// τους παραπέμπετε και στη γραμματική (.) του Τριανταφυλλίδη *nice you asked them to open the grammar book by Triantafullidi*	
48.	[ε] βεβαίως// έτσι// [ε] δεν γίνεται η γραμματική είναι/ θα λέγαμε/ οι κωδικοποιημένοι κανόνες της λειτουργίας μιας γλώσσας// χωρίς λοιπόν την ρυθμιστική γραμματική/ δε γίνεται// έτσι; υπάρχει όλη αυτή η απεραντοσύνη της γλώσσας/ λέξεις και τα λοιπά/ όπως λέει και το μικρό εγχειρίδιο της πρώτης λυκείου// [ε] όλο αυτό το θησαυρό των λέξεων/ [ε] λες τον εντάσσουμε/ στα δέκα μέρη του λόγου// [ε] δε θα πας στην γραμματική να δεις το λένε ουσιαστικό/ το λένε επίθετο/ το λένε ρήμα/ αντωνυμία/ πρόθεση/ σύνδεσμο// δε θα πούμε ότι κλίνεται; ότι κάποιες λέξεις κλίνονται/ αλλάζουν μορφή// έτσι; λέμε ξέρω εγώ το σπίτι/ του σπιτιού// λέμε τα σπίτια// αλλά το εδώ/ εδώ/ εδώ/ το λέμε πάντα εδώ// το λέγαμε και χθες/ και αύριο θα το πούμε// [ε] όλα αυτά τα λέει – μας/ πώς το λέμε/ δε μας τα διδάσκει η γραμματική/ τα λέμε εμείς/ αλλά τα έχει κωδικοποιήσει κατά κάποιον τρόπο η γραμματική// *of course grammar explains how language function we can't understand it { language} without grammatical rules as language is huge it was million words as the textbook of the 1st grade of high school says grammar informs us that all these words are split into ten parts of speech if you do not check the grammar how to*	

	understand that this is called noun this is called verb preposition conjunction or how to understand that some words are inflected they change their form ((he gives an example)) but some others don't ((he gives an example)) they always have the same form so grammar refers all these things that no one has taught us but we use them and the grammar book has written these things down
49.	άρα που τους βοηθάει; όπως τους βάλετε στο μάθημα των αντωνυμιών/ των επιρρημάτων// *so how does this help them? for example you told them to check the pronouns and adverbs*
50.	[ε] κοιτάξτε (5)/ δεν νομίζω ότι μπορείς να χρησιμοποιείς μια λέξη/ όταν δεν ξέρεις το σημασιολογικό της φορτίο// τότε φοβάμαι (.) ότι θα πάμε σε μια ακυριολεξία (.) θα έλεγα του κερατά/ για να γελάσουμε και λίγο// όταν λέμε ότι αυτή είναι αντωνυμία/ πρέπει να ξέρεις – (…) ότι το βάζουμε αντί ονόματος// δηλαδή δεν μπορεί ο μαθητής σε μια πρώτη επαφή/ <u>άλλο</u> μεθαύριο που θα τελειώσει και θα γράφει (2) χωρίς να σκέφτεται/ αυτό είναι αντωνυμία θα το βάζω εκεί// εντάξει; αλλά σε πρώτη φάση/ στην πρώτη επαφή με το [ε] ας το πούμε με το είδος αυτό του - με αυτό το μέρος του λόγου που λέγεται αντωνυμία/ μιας και μιλάμε γι' αυτές/ [ε] δεν μπορείς να μην του πεις/ τις λέμε αντωνυμίες/ για αυτό το λόγο/ λέμε ουσιαστικό/ γι' αυτό το λόγο/ το λέμε επίθετο γιατί κάνει [ε] έτσι αυτή τη σημασία// [ε] η γνώση δεν είναι - δεν προσφέρεται ας το πούμε λειψή// ακούς πολλά (.) και ότι συγκρατήσεις από αυτό// και <u>όταν</u> πια το κάνεις δικό σου/ μετά (.) δεν κάθεσαι - δεν σκέφτεσαι για να γράψεις μια αντωνυμία/ τι; είναι η αντωνυμία/ για να γράψεις ένα σύνδεσμο/ τι; είναι ο σύνδεσμος// τα γράφεις αυτά αυθόρμητα/ έτσι; γράφεις το λόγο σου/ εντάξει ωραία/ έτσι; αλλά εφόσον βέβαια (.) είναι μέσα σου πια <u>κεκτημένο</u> - κεκτημένη (.) η γνώση (.) κάθε στοιχείου (…)// *look I don't think that you can use a word without knowing its meaning if this happens I am afraid that we will start saying nonsense you have to know that we call a word as a pronoun because we can use it instead of a noun that is, pupils can't use it for the first time {if they do not know that} of course it will be different when they will finish school and they will write without thinking that this is a pronoun I have to use it that way ok? but when they first learn about a part of speech let's say the pronouns you have to refer that we call them pronouns for this reason or we call them nouns or adjectives for this reason because it is important to give them full information to be able to learn them correctly they are taught a lot of things but when they learn well something they can use it without thinking for example if you want to use a pronoun or a conjunction in your written speech you won't think what is a pronoun or what is a conjunction you will write it spontaneously of course you will write spontaneously if you have learn well the parts of speech*
51.	ωραία για παραγωγή λόγου/ τι κάνετε συνήθως για να παραγάγουν οι μαθητές λόγο;

	good what do you do in order for the pupils to produce speech?
52.	παραγωγή λόγου είναι τα πάντα// υπάρχουνε - όποιο κειμενικό είδος υπάρχει// θέλουν να γράψουν ένα (.) άρθρο? ξέρω 'γώ// θέλουν να γράψουν ένα αφήγημα? μια επιστολή? τα πάντα// δεν έχουμε αυτό στην αυτό που είχαμε παλιά (.) δύο ώρες γράφαμε έκθεση/ ξέρω εγώ// βάζεις εκθέσεις τώρα μια/ δύο παραγράφους πάνω σε διάφορα θέματα/ είτε στη γλώσσα/ είτε στα κείμενα της λογοτεχνίας//

speech production means everything there are different kinds of texts do they want to write an article? do they want to write a narrative? a letter? now we do not have to tell pupils to write an essay for two teaching hours as we did previous years you tell them to write two or three paragraphs on different topics either during a lesson of the Greek language subject or during a lesson of the Greek literature |
| 53. | για παράδειγμα/ στο έκτο κεφάλαιο/ διαβάσατε αυτό που έγραφε το βιβλίο για την επιστολή/ πως γράφουμε την προσφώνηση και τα λοιπά/

for example, in unit six you read them what the textbook was saying about how we write a letter |
| 54. | ναι/ τα παιδιά θέλουν να έχουν μια πρώτη επαφή με το κειμενικό είδος// αυτό θα το μάθουν στο μάθημά τους// εντάξει// τώρα μπορεί να υπάρχουν και πολλοί προκομμένοι/ να πάνε σε (.) ξέρω εγώ εκθέσεις κτλ και να μάθουν από εκεί// θυμάμαι όμως - να εδώ είναι η εμπειρία/ όταν εγώ πήγαινα στην τρίτη γυμνασίου <u>θυμάμαι</u> (.) το πώς? κάνουμε μια αίτηση/ μας την είχε διδάξει στην τρίτη γυμνασίου ο καθηγητής μας/ ο φιλόλογος/ *((αναφέρεται στα μέρη της αίτησης))* είχα μια πρώτη/ και μπορώ να πω ότι και τώρα/ μετά/ στην υπόλοιπη ζωή μου/ όταν χρειάστηκε να κάνω μια αίτηση/ μου ερχόταν μπροστά μου/ ας πούμε/ ο τρόπος που μου το είχε διδάξει ο καθηγητής μου/ πρώτη/ πρώτη φορά/ στο σχολείο//

yes children want to learn first about a kind of a text {that they may write} this will happen during their lesson of course many of them may be diligent and they may have a look for example at other essays and to learn from these too I remember that when I was a pupil of the 3ʳᵈ grade of Gymnasium our teacher taught us how to complete an application I can say that when I have had to complete an application in the rest of my life I always remember what my teacher taught me them |
| 55. | [ε] με ποιο τρόπο διαμορφώσατε τον τρόπο διδασκαλίας σας?

how did you adopt of your style of teaching? |
| 56. | κοιτάξτε/ είναι ένα κράμα (.) θα έλεγα των εμπειριών μου/ των προσωπικών μου εμπειριών// δηλαδή από τότε που άρχισα να λειτουργώ σαν καθηγητής/ στα ιδιωτικά σχολεία/ στα φροντιστήρια/ και μετά ας πούμε αυτό/ που θα λεγε κανείς/ η <u>φυσική</u> μου έτσι (3) να πω κλίση/ να πω/ αν θέλεις η <u>πίστη</u> μου ότι αυτό πρέπει να κάνω/ έτσι πρέπει να γίνεται/ να γίνει μια πρώτη σκέψη// |

	look it is a combination of my experiences of my personal experiences that is when I have started teaching in private schools in tutorial centres I could say firstly that I have known what I have to do without making any effort
57.	έτσι πρέπει να γίνεται; *this is what I have to do?*
58.	το δεύτερο είναι ότι είχα και εμπειρίες// διότι στη φιλοσοφική σχολή εδώ (.) ήταν το πειραματικό και είχαμε ένα καθηγητή παιδαγωγό (…)/ και μας έλεγε έτσι ορισμένα πράγματα αυτά στο πειραματικό// και το <u>σπουδαιότερο</u> από όλα/ παίρνεις/ <u>κλέβεις</u>/ στοιχεία/ χαρακτηριστικά/ από δασκάλους που ακούς// και αυτούς που είχαμε ακούσει στα γυμνασιακά μας χρόνια/ και τώρα που ακούω// όταν πάω και παρακολουθώ ένα σχολικό σύμβουλο/ ή ένα καθηγητή πανεπιστημίου σε ένα μάθημα ξέρω εγώ/ ναι// ωραία// θα το υιοθετήσω κι εγώ αυτό/ λέω από μέσα μου// είναι <u>πάρα</u> πολύ ωραίο// έτσι// χωρίς να <u>μιμήσε</u> αποκλειστικά κάποιον/ έτσι; (…) κλέβεις <u>τέχνη</u> ας το πούμε από άλλους// *secondly I had experiences because in the school of philosophy we had a professor of pedagogy who was giving us advices how to teach in the experimental school of the university and the most important is that I adopt characteristics from teachers who I have observed from school consultants or from university professors I say that I will adopt this because it is very good I do not mimic only one person I adopt let's say their teaching*
59.	για παράδειγμα/ τί είχατε πάρει; *for example what did you adopt?*
60.	[ε] (6) παραδείγματος χάριν/ ας πούμε/ λέω στα παιδιά μου να επαναλαμβάνουν το μάθημα// η επανάληψη μητέρα της μαθήσεως/ μας είχε πει κάποτε ένας καθηγητής/ το μεταφέρω αυτό// και υιοθετώ μέσα μου (.) επαναληπτικές ασκήσεις// βάζω στα παιδιά επαναληπτικές ασκήσεις// δεν είναι έβαλα μια φορά την άσκηση/ ας πούμε/ αυτή και τελείωσε// μπορεί την ίδια άσκηση/ σε άλλο/ με <u>άλλες</u> λέξεις/ να την βάλω τρεις/ τέσσερις φορές// νομίζω ότι <u>τότε</u> (…) το κατακτούν/ γίνεται δικό τους// λέω ένα παράδειγμα// και θα έλεγα πολλές φορές είναι και θέμα (.) ύφους// μου άρεσαν οι δάσκαλοι που είχαν <u>ευχέρεια</u> λόγου και τα λοιπά/ και δεν ήταν κοκοκοκο// αυτό προσπάθησα (.) αν και πιστεύω ότι είχα και έτσι φυσικό χάρισμα και αυτό/ και το λέω έτσι με πολύ μετριοφροσύνη/ [ε] να μην έχω αυτά τα ααα/ μμμ στα παιδιά/ να τους μιλώ έτσι θαρρετά/ επαναλαμβάνω/ πως πέρα από τη φυσική κλίση/ το φρόντισα <u>και</u> τεχνικά (.) να το συμπληρώνω/ (…) να το διαμορφώνω ακόμα καλύτερα// (7) εντάξει θα μπορούσα να μπω και σε άλλες τέτοιες λεπτομέρειες/ αλλά από τη στιγμή που (.) διαμορφώνεις ένα τελικό χαρακτήρα δασκάλου ως πομπού/ [ε] έχεις ξεχάσει από που έχεις κλέψει// γιατί όταν λες ότι εγώ κάνω αυτή τη δουλειά 30 χρόνια/ 33/ [ε] τι; να πω τώρα/ αυτό που είπα/ ή αυτό που έκανα/ ή/

ένα τελευταίο γιατί δε θέλω να το ξεχάσω// για τους ανορθόγραφους μαθητές/ παραδείγματος χάρη/ τους λέω αντιγράψτε/ κάθε φορά/ από <u>κάποιο</u> καθηγητή το άκουσα// γιατί να μην το υιοθετήσω/ μου φάνηκε - μου φαινόταν σωστό// βλέπω ότι είναι ανορθόγραφοι/ κάθε βράδυ αντιγράψτε από ένα βιβλίο τρεις/ τέσσερις σειρές/ και δες τις προσεκτικά/ <u>ώστε</u> τα παιδιά αυτά να μπορούνε μέσα τους/ να σχηματίζουν θα έλεγε κανείς/ όπως γίνεται στο φιλμ το αρνητικό/ την αντανάγεια της λέξης ας πούμε/ το τηλέφωνο γράφεται το τη με ήτα/ το φω με ωμέγα// γιατί άμα το γράψουν/ θα το γράψουν όπως θέλουν// θα γράψουν το τελευταίο ο με ωμέγα/ λες και είναι ρήμα/ γιατί φτάνουν μέχρι εκεί// μιλάμε για <u>τέτοιες</u> τραγικές καταστάσεις/ έτσι? αυτά//

for example I will tell my pupils to repeat their lessons repetition contributes to learning as one university professor told us I adopt this motto and I give to pupils repetition exercises that is, I don't give them an exercise once but I may give the same exercise in a different lesson with different words I may give it three or four times I believe that in this way they learn another example I have liked the style of others for instance I have liked teachers who could speak fluently I was trying to do this despite the fact that I believe that this is a natural gift I try to improve it ok I could say more details but when you are teacher who transmit knowledge you have forgotten what things did you adopt from others because I do this work for 30 33 years I can't say that I adopt this from that one and this from another one and something more because I don't want to forget it for example I tell to misspelling pupils to copy {from a text} I adopt this from a teacher why not to adopt it? I have found it useful I know that they are misspelling so they have to copy three four lines from a book every night and to look them carefully so as these children can memorize the spelling of a word ((he gives an example of how to spell a particular word)) because they make terrible spelling mistakes

61.	μου είπατε ότι κάποια πράγματα που διδάσκονται σας έρχονται έτσι/ δηλαδή? από την πείρα σας? *you told me that you teach without making any effort that is, because of your experience?*
62.	[ε] δεν είναι θέμα πείρας/ είναι και θέμα γνώσης// [ε] όταν ας πούμε (.) ενημερώνεσαι/ μαθαίνεις/ αυτό σε βοηθάει// η γνώση είναι δύναμη// έτσι? εκείνη τη στιγμή θα θυμηθείς κάτι/ εντάξει εγώ αυτό μπορεί να το διάβασα στον Καζαντζάκη ας πούμε/ δεν έχει σημασία// εκείνη την ώρα/ <u>δεν</u> ελέγχεις που? το βρήκες ή από που το πήρες? σου έρχεται όμως/ επειδή το γνωρίζεις// και (.) θα έλεγα/ αυτό δεν ξέρω αν το – νομίζω ότι το έχω ακούσει (…)/η γνώση μας (.) είναι κάτι - μια ζωντανή παρουσία στις λεπτομέρειές της/ ας πούμε ξέρω εγώ// αν θέλεις είναι και ένας γίγαντας κοιμισμένος// και όταν ερεθιστεί από κάτι/ τότε αρχίζει και ξαναθυμάται// έτσι πιστεύω ότι είναι// δεν είσαι έτοιμος/ κάποιες φορές αισθάνεσαι ότι δεν ξέρω τίποτα/ ότι είσαι σε (…) σε υπνωτική κατάσταση// αλλά

όταν <u>τσιγκλάς</u> το μυαλό σου/ λες ότι έχω να κάνω και αυτό το θέμα// έτσι/ ότι γνωρίζεις γύρω από αυτό/ σου έρχεται στο μυαλό// αλλά θέλει όμως/ και λίγη - να ενημερώνεσαι/ να διαβάζεις/ να ασχολείσαι/ έτσι? γιατί κοντά στην απεραντοσύνη της γλώσσας/ υπάρχει και η απεραντοσύνη της γνώσης//

this is not related to my experience but to my knowledge for example when you learn something it helps you {during teaching} knowledge is power when teaching you may remember things and you can use them because you know them it doesn't matter where have you learn them I believe that knowledge is like a sleeping giant and when you wake him up then he starts remembering sometimes you may feel that you are not ready {to teach} you do not remember some things but when you push yourself to remember you start remembering things related to a topic of course it is important to be informed and to study constantly because knowledge as language is endless

63.	ωραία// και κάτι τελευταίο/ σχεδιάζεται το μάθημά σας πριν μπείτε? κάνετε κάποιο πλάνο? *something else do you plan your lesson in advance?*
64.	όταν ήμουνα νέος/ (…) έκανα σχεδιάγραμμα με μολυβάκι/ <u>όχι</u> σε λεπτομέρειες/ το πολύ κανένα <u>κτυπητό</u> παράδειγμα// ή κάτι που δεν ήθελα με τίποτα να μου διαφύγει/ το σημείωνα// [ε] όσο προχώρησα και με την εμπειρία που απέκτησα/ [ε] τώρα ανοίγοντας το βιβλίο και βλέποντας ένα θέμα/ <u>καταλαβαίνω</u> περίπου/ ότι πρέπει να επισημάνω αυτό/ αυτό/ και αυτό// έτσι? δηλαδή/ θα μπορούσα να πω/ ότι <u>τολμώ</u> τώρα να μπω να κάνω ένα μάθημα/ και ας μην έχω προετοιμαστεί/ μιας και ξέρω/ έχω συνηθίσει/ και τα λοιπά/ τα κείμενα/ κάτι που <u>δε</u> θα το έκανα πριν από είκοσι χρόνια/ ας πούμε// εκεί θα έλεγα κάτσε να ρίξω μια ματιά/ και έλεγα θα πω εκείνο/ θα ρωτήσω εκείνο/ ένα σχεδιάγραμμα μέσα μου/ στο μυαλό μου έχω// *when I was young I made a plan without many details on which I might have written down a very good example or something that I didn't want to forget as the years passed and because of my experience when I open a textbook now and I read a topic I know what I have to tell them now I dare to teaching without preparing in advance since I know the texts something that I wouldn't have done before twenty years when I wanted to have a look to a topic and think what I will ask them I made a plan in my mind*
65.	ωραία// τα παιδιά που δεν έχουν τα ελληνικά ως μητρική τους γλώσσα/ μαθαίνουν τους κανόνες της γραμματικής/ τους ορισμούς/ να κατανοήσουν ένα κείμενο? *good do the children who do not have Greek as their mother tongue learn the grammatical rules the terms so that they can understand a text?*
66.	κοίτα// ένας που έρχεται από μια χώρα του εξωτερικού μεγάλος/ πέντε ή έστω οκτώ/ δέκα χρονών/ ναι δυσκολεύεται/ να μάθει τα ελληνικά// είναι σίγουρο// όπως εμείς τώρα όπως πάει άλλος στη

	Γερμανία δηλαδή έτσι? αλλά (.) όπως το ελληνόπουλο που γεννήθηκε στην Αγγλία/ και μαθαίνει άπταιστα τα αγγλικά από το νηπιαγωγείο/ έτσι νομίζω θα πρέπει (3) τη στιγμή που κάποιο παιδί <u>ότι</u> και να είναι/ μπορεί να μην γεννήθηκε εδώ/ αλλά να ήρθε μωρό/ και ξεκίνησε από το νηπιαγωγείο/ γιατί να μην μάθει την ελληνική γλώσσα? *look someone who comes for a foreign country either old or at least ten years old of course he/she has a difficulty in leaning the Greek language and this will happen to us if we go to Germany but as the Greeks who were born in England and they speak the English fluently I think that once a child either was born here or was a baby when he/she came and he/she attended a Greek nursery school why not to learn the Greek language?*
67.	τα παιδιά στην τάξη σας? *the children in your class?*
68.	άλλωστε <u>αυτή</u> είναι η γλώσσα του η επικοινωνιακή/ αυτή είναι η γλώσσα της κοινωνίας που θα μιλάει// τη δική του/ ας πούμε μητρική γλώσσα/ θα τη μάθει στο σπίτι/ θα την ακούει από τους δικούς του/ εντάξει// το να έχει το παιδί μια συνείδηση ότι εγώ είμαι Αλβανός/ και πρέπει να ξέρω και αλβανικά/ είναι ο πατέρας και η μάνα μου στο σπίτι ναι// αλλά όμως αύριο/ θα είναι ένας εργαζόμενος (4) στην Ελλάδα// <u>άρα</u> (.) τα ελληνικά ως γλώσσα/ δεν λέω την ιστορία μας/ δε λέω παραδόσεις/ σε άλλα πράγματα// αλλά τη <u>γλώσσα</u> ως επικοινωνιακό αν θέλεις - ως <u>επικοινωνιακή</u> ανάγκη/ θα πρέπει να τη μάθει// *besides this is the language of communication the language of society they will learn and they will hear their mother tongue at their home it's ok when a child is aware of his identity for example that he is Albanian he has to learn the Albanian language his parents are from Albania but when they will start working in Greece they have to know the Greek language I am not saying that they have to know our history our culture and so on but they have to know the language to be able to communicate*
69.	τα παιδιά στην τάξη σας συγκεκριμένα αντεπεξέρχονται? *do the children of your classes cope with learning?*
70.	στην τάξη μου/ τα παιδιά που είναι - για τους αλλοδαπούς μιλάμε? δε νομίζω ότι παρουσιάζουνε <u>διαφορά</u> με τα ελληνόπουλα ας πούμε/ γιατί ξέρω ότι μεγαλώσαν εδώ/ δε/ δε νομίζω// τώρα αν πω σε κάποιο κορίτσι ότι (.) ένα ελληνάκι ας πούμε/ παίρνει οκτώ/ και ο αλβανός παίρνει 7.95/ εντάξει τώρα δε μιλάμε για τέτοια// *the children of my class do we speak for foreigners? I don't think that they differ from the Greek children because I know that they have grown up here I don't think if a Greek girl takes a mark 8/20 and a Albanian boy takes a mark 7.95/20 it will be a problem this is not an issue*
71.	[χμμμ]

	uhhh
72.	κατανοούν// όταν ξεκινούν από την αρχή/ κατανοούν// αν ξέρω εγώ θα δείτε ότι (.) δε ρωτάει μόνο ένας - τα ξένα παιδιά μια λέξη// θα δείτε ακόμα και τα ελληνόπουλα να σε ρωτούν μια λέξη την οποία την ξέρει και η κουτσή Μαρία ας πούμε// δηλαδή μια πολύ απλή λέξη// άρα η <u>γλωσσική</u> ανεπάρκεια/ για να μην το πω έλλειψη που είναι χειρότερο/ η γλωσσική ανεπάρκεια δεν είναι κάτι που προέρχεται/ ή παρουσιάζεται μόνο στους μετανάστες// είναι γενικότερα πρόβλημα/ κατά τη γνώμη μου της σημερινής νεολαίας// *they understand when they have started the Greek school in young age they understand you will notice that not only the foreign children ask me {the meaning of} a word you but also the Greek children ask me {the meaning of} a very simple word so I believe that not only immigrants have linguistic problems but also today's youth*
73.	ευχαριστώ// *thank you*
74.	παρακαλώ// *you are welcome*

Appendix 11 – Observation codes

These codes emerged inductively from the lesson observation data (see subsection 4.4.2), and show the teaching activities and strategies that the focal teachers adopted in these lessons. Here, I group the teaching activities and strategies of all the focal teachers in all the observed lessons (for the teaching activities and strategies of each teacher separately, see the electronic appendices). These codes have been used not only to describe focal teachers' actual practices but also to provide recommendations for teacher education and the national curriculum.

Teaching activities

- Grammar presentation activity (whole-class activity)
- Grammar practice activity (individual activity)
- Speaking activity (whole-class activity)
- Reading comprehension activity (whole-class and group work activity)
- Listening comprehension activity (whole-class activity)
- Listening activity (whole-class activity)
- Knowledge checking activity (whole-class activity)

Teaching strategies

- Group silent reading
- Collaborative summary writing
- Group work discussions
- Question-answer sequences (whole-class)
- Exposure to extended academic texts
- Explanation of texts without pupils' contribution - lecturing
- Teacher explains language points through examples
- Pupils are expected to identify presented language points in academic texts
- Teacher analyses the structure of sentences syntactically
- Pupils are expected to identify presented language points in academic texts

- Pupils are expected to convert one language point to another one
- Teacher reads grammar rules from the textbook and grammar book without commenting
- Teacher presents grammar rules before giving examples
- Teacher presents grammar rules after giving examples
- Teacher engages pupils in multiple-choice exercise regarding language points
- Use of pictures
- Use of music
- Use of diagrams
- Use of videos
- Use of whiteboard
- Teacher connects concepts with real-life experiences
- Teacher explains texts by giving examples of real life events
- Use of informal interactive language
- Simplification of lesson content
- Simplification of teacher speech
- Teacher reads the text aloud
- Pupils listen to academic texts
- Teacher asks comprehension questions (deductive questions, plain sense reading questions)
- Teacher does not comment on texts
- Teacher asks for pupils' personal experience
- Teacher gives the definition of unfamiliar or difficult words from the text
- Elicitation strategies
- Teacher-led discussions
- Teacher checks pupils' grammar knowledge
- Teacher checks pupils' reading comprehension
- Teacher asks display questions
- Teacher asks 'information requests'
- Teacher confirms or rejects pupils' answers

- Teacher corrects pupils' wrong answers
- Teacher incorporates pupils' answers into her following questions (feedback)
- Teacher leads pupils to the correct answer
- Repetition of teacher question or pupils' answers
- Expansion of teacher question
- Repair of pupils' answers
- No use of contextual support
- Paraphrase teacher' questions, academic texts and pupils' answers
- Nominate particular pupils to answer teachers' questions
- Pupils can reply to teachers' questions without waiting for the teacher to nominate them

Appendix 12 - Interview codes

These interview codes emerged inductively from the background and playback interviews with the teachers (see subsection 4.4.3), representing the beliefs and pedagogical principles of the focal teachers. Here I put together the codes derived from all the interviews with all the teachers. These codes have been used not only to describe focal teachers' principles but also to provide recommendations for teacher education and the national curriculum.

Background interviews
- Initial education did not prepare them for classroom reality
- Initial education provided the needed subject content knowledge to teach the subject Greek
- In early teaching career: 'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1975)
- Teaching experience, in-service education and discussion with experienced colleagues can make teachers change their teaching
- GAL pupils made them change their teaching
- No change of teaching since GAL pupils went primary school in Greece
- GAL pupils who came in older age need to go to special schools that have different ways of teaching Greek
- Simplification of lesson content and explanation of vocabulary: strategy for teaching GAL in mainstream classrooms
- Learning experiences and personal preferences affect teaching decisions
- Pupils' language difficulties and needs affect teachers' teaching decisions
- The national curriculum and the textbook have an impact on their teaching decisions and practices
- Time has an impact on teachers' teaching decisions and practices
- Importance for GAL pupils to develop academic language skills to cope with curriculum demands
- Importance for GAL pupils to learn different parts of language to attain language
- Learning of language points explicitly can lead to language development

- Learning grammar rules can lead to high language proficiency

- Applying grammar knowledge in practice so that learners can understand how to use language

- Providing extended opportunities to comprehend meaning would help GAL pupils develop academic skills

- Using of language productively to learn language without focusing exclusively on language points

- Use of group work: pupils responsible for their learning, to concentrate, to engage actively in activities and to accept diversity

- Co-teaching is a strategy to cope with GAL pupils' learning needs

- A teacher alone without a help cannot teach GAL in mainstream classrooms

- Need to learn language as native speakers – same content and aims

- Attending extra language support classes

- The subject Greek needs to be taught more hours to cover GAL pupils' needs

- Inappropriateness of curriculum content

- Appropriateness of the textbook

- Difficulty of textbook language

- Writing can lead to language accuracy

- Discussion about topics that pupils are interested in to make pupils speak about them

- Teachers should have the appropriate knowledge to teach in a mainstream classroom with GAL pupils

- To bring new materials: lexica, books about immigration to help them understand their meanings

- Need to change your teaching when you have more that 65% GAL pupils in your class

- Choosing texts that promote diversity and cooperation, show the common things between different people

- Asking pupils what is happening in their country about a related topic

- When GAL pupils go to primary school in Greece, they can incorporate into the society and learn the language

- Discussions can facilitate language learning
- Language learning from their errors
- Need of a curriculum that does not force teachers to complete a syllabus and give them initiative
- Difference between interactive formal and academic formal language
- Extensive exposure to texts with a focus on meaning would lead to language development
- Extended opportunities to practise language to improve their language skills
- Error correction
- Simplification of lesson content and classroom activities
- Reading books at home and telling their impressions orally can lead to language development
- Use of text-based approach
- Use of teacher-led and elicitation approaches for transmitting new information to all pupils
- Repetition of new information so that GAL pupils understand input
- Teach language points inductively
- Satisfaction from school curriculum
- Explicit teaching of writing
- Choosing interesting topics and topics that they experienced to motivate them to write
- Experimenting to cope with the situation
- GAL pupils are not interested in learning
- Giving differentiate exercises and extra grammar exercises for supporting GAL pupils' learning
- Use of role plays: pupils like to act, they will need to play a role in the society, free dialogue in order for pupils to find the vocabulary that they need to use, to produce language, to develop self-confidence, to develop empathy, she likes theatre – use it when textbook activities prompt it and as a solution when pupils are noisy

- Games in groups: writing a story as a class, which pupil complete the sentence of the other – used it in school with Greek language majority learners
- No change of teaching approaches but of teaching strategies
- Need of curriculum change so that GAL teaching can be incorporated in mainstream classrooms
- Language improvement can occur when GAL pupils listen to what they had written
- Vocabulary learning can occur when pupils participate in discussions
- Because pupils are in Year 3 can cope with the difficulty of the textbook
- Mother-tongue teaching outside mainstream classroom to keep the connection with their culture
- Connecting their mother tongue with Greek to feel confident
- GAL pupils can learn Greek the same way as GMT pupils
- Lecture is the appropriate method for transmitting new knowledge
- Teaching language points through texts
- Focus on carrier content so that he can transmit ideas and to give opportunities to pupils to speak
- Use mother tongue only at home because Greek is the language of society
- Learning spelling through seeing and writing down words
- Pupils learn better something that they had experienced
- Listening of input can help pupils use language accurately

Playback interviews
- Exposure to comprehensible input can lead to the understanding of language functions and to the development of language accuracy
- Silent reading would help pupils focus only on meaning comprehension rather than pronunciation since GAL pupils lack of fluency
- Group summary reading can involve pupils in group discussions regarding the main ideas of texts and can prepare them for the end of year exams

- Question-answer sequences can enable pupils to express their opinion and understandings

- Question-answer sequences can help pupils comprehend academic texts

- Lecturing can contribute to the development of critical thinking and to the cultivation of pupils' character

- Lecturing can facilitate the development of carrier content knowledge and of a point of view regarding different topics

- Use of contextual support can lead to the comprehension of carrier content and language points

- Use of contextual support can lead to language production

- Use of linguistic cues will enable learners to comprehend carrier content and different concepts

- Participation in controlled practice activities can lead to the consolidation of language points

- Connecting new information with pupils' previously taught knowledge can facilitate the understanding of new information

- Active language use can contribute to the development of language production skills

- Expressing their personal experience would make pupils feel more confident to speak in class using interactive informal language

- Checking pupils' understanding and knowledge so that they can obtain the correct knowledge and ideas

- Importance of following the national curriculum and the textbook

- Focus on meaning can lead to language accuracy, production of comprehensible output and to the development of reading comprehension skills

- Focus on meaning can enable pupils to express their opinion about different topics

- Listening to academic texts can help pupils to understand how to use language accurately

- Comprehension question can facilitate pupils' understanding of carrier content and the development of reading comprehension skills

- Simplification of lesson content can lead to active participation in classroom activities

- Simplification of academic texts and classroom language would enable learners to comprehend input and to understand language points

- Engagement in less challenging activities can lead to active participation in classroom activities

- Presentation and explanation of language points can contribute to the understanding of language points, to the production of accurate spoken and written language and to the development of fluency

- Paraphrasing and simplification of teacher speech and academic texts can lead to input comprehension

- Extended exposure to input can lead to the development of listening comprehension, reading comprehension, speaking and writing skills

- Elicitation strategies can contribute to the production of extended spoken language

- No differentiation of teaching strategies

- Lecturing can result in knowledge development and understanding

- Vocabulary explanation can facilitate text comprehension

- Reading comprehension questions can check pupils' comprehension levels

- No comment on academic texts when they are easy and understandable

- Inductive presentation of language points can help pupils to learn to think and to understand language points better

- Inductive presentation of language points is the proposed methods of the national curriculum

- Listening to grammar rules would enable pupils to understand language points and complete grammar exercises correctly

- Deductive presentation of language points is easier and less time-consuming

- Use of whiteboard can facilitate pupils' understanding of language points and different concepts

- Giving the easiest texts to GAL pupils because they could not make it with difficult texts

Appendix 13 – Teaching materials _ Anna's lessons

Appendix 13A – Γυρίζω τις πλάτες μου στο μέλλον (Turning my back on the future)

ΜΠΡΟΣΤΑ ΣΤΟ ΜΕΛΛΟΝ ————————————————————

Κείμενο 4 Γυρίζω τις πλάτες μου στο μέλλον

Γυρίζω τις πλάτες μου στο μέλλον
στο μέλλον που φτιάχνετε όπως θέλετε
Αφού η ιστορία σάς ανήκει
σαρώστε το λοιπόν αν επιμένετε

Στ' αυτιά μου δεν χωράνε υποσχέσεις
το έργο το έχω δει, μη με τρελαίνετε
Το πλοίο των ονείρων μου με πάει
σε κόσμους που εσείς δεν τους αντέχετε

Μένω μονάχος στο παρόν μου
να σώσω οτιδήποτε αν σώζεται
Κι ας έχω τις συνέπειες του νόμου
συνένοχο στο φόνο δε θα μ' έχετε

Γυρίζω τις πλάτες μου στο μέλλον
το κόλπο είναι στημένο και στα μέτρα σας
Ξεγράψτε με απ' τα κατάστιχά σας
στον κόπο σας δεν μπαίνω και στα έργα σας

Γυρίζω τις πλάτες μου στο μέλλον
στο μέλλον που φτιάχνετε όπως θέλετε
Αφού η ιστορία σάς ανήκει
σαρώστε το λοιπόν αν επιμένετε

Μουσική/Στίχοι:Διονύσης Τσακνής, Χάρης και Πάνος Κατσιμίχας,
στο δίσκο Παράλληλη διαχγραφία, SONY, 1997

1. Προσθέστε τα σημεία στίξης που έχουν σκόπιμα παραλειφθεί στους παραπάνω στίχους.

2. Ποια σχήματα λόγου μπορείτε να εντοπίσετε στους στίχους του τραγουδιού;

3. Τι παρατηρείτε σχετικά με τη σειρά των λέξεων; • Είναι εντελώς συνηθισμένη; • Μπορεί να θεωρηθεί τυ-χαία; • Τι συμβαίνει, αν επιχειρήσουμε να τοποθετήσουμε τις λέξεις με άλλη σειρά (ρυθμός, ομοιοκατα-ληξία);

4. Συμμερίζεστε τα συναισθήματα που εκφράζει αυτό το τραγούδι; • Πώς θα εκφράζατε με στίχους τα δικά σας συναισθήματα απέναντι στο μέλλον;

Appendix 13B - *Το μέλλον θα είναι άλλο* (The future will be different)

Κείμενο 9   Το μέλλον θα είναι άλλο

Το μέλλον είναι ήδη –ή θα είναι– άλλο. Με αυτήν τη βασική πρόταση, υπο-νοείται ότι το μέλλον δε θα ακολουθήσει όσα υποθέτουν οι αναλυτές. Δε θα αντιστοιχεί σε εκείνα που τεκμηριώνουν οι τεχνοκράτες, μήτε σε όσα φοβούνται ή ελπίζουν οι άνθρωποι. Κοντολογίς, το μέλλον δε θα μοιάζει με ό,τι προβλέπουν οι σημερινοί.

Το μέλλον μας, λοιπόν, θα είναι άλλο. Η γενική αυτή θέση, που αρνείται κάθε πρόβλεψη, ενισχύεται από το κύριο, νομίζω, συμπέρασμα των τελευταίων δε-καετιών: Ότι δηλαδή τα μεγάλα ιστορικά ή κοινωνικά φαινόμενα πε-ρίπου αιφνιδίασαν, ακολουθώντας δρόμους μη αναμενόμενους. Και όταν κινήθηκαν με κάποια υποτιθέ-μενη συνέπεια, απέχουν πολύ από το να αποκαλύπτουν μια λογική της Ιστορίας. Σε μεγάλο βαθμό, η πο-ρεία προς το μέλλον έχει λοιπόν χαοτική υφή. [...]

Κανείς δεν μπορούσε να φανταστεί την εκρηκτική ανάπτυξη του Διαδικτύου· πολύ περισσότερο, τις προεκτάσεις που αυτή η ανάπτυξη έχει στην οικονομία ή τη διάδοση της γνώσεως – ποιας γνώσεως, όμως; Στο χώρο άλλωστε των ιδεών, ο θρίαμβος της επιστήμης κατά τον εικοστό αιώνα συνοδεύτηκε από ένα αναπάντεχο κύμα θρησκευτικών εξάρσεων, μυστικισμού και επανακάμψεως της μαγείας.

Είναι ωστόσο ενδιαφέρον ότι το απρόβλεπτο της Ιστορίας δε χαρακτηρίζει μόνο το μακρόκοσμό της: τον κόσμο δηλαδή της κοινωνίας ή των εθνών, της οικονομίας και των ιδεολογιών. Φαίνεται να ισχύει και στη μικροκλίμακα της ανθρώπινης ζωής, σε ό,τι συνιστά την καθημερινότητα και τις προσδοκίες μας. Δεν πάνε πολλά χρόνια που η θεαματική διάδοση της τηλεοράσεως είχε οδηγήσει, ειδικούς και μη, σε θρή-νους για το τέλος του κινηματογράφου. Σήμερα, ωστόσο, ο κινηματογράφος παρουσιάζει σπάνια άνθιση, τόσο σε ποιότητα ταινιών όσο και σε ανανεωμένες αίθουσες. Είναι χρήσιμο να δούμε αν την ίδια τύχη θα έχει και η πρόβλεψη που θέλει το ηλεκτρονικό βιβλίο να αντικαθιστά τις σελίδες του χαρτιού με το χαρα-

κτηριστικό τους άρωμα και τη φθορά του χρόνου. Όσο για την κινητή τηλεφωνία, είναι γεγονός ότι εισέ-βαλε στην καθημερινότητα, ανοίγοντας νέους δρόμους αλλά και ήθη στην επικοινωνία. Η διαπίστωση όμως ότι η πραγματική επικοινωνία ανάμεσα στους ανθρώπους βρίσκεται πάντοτε σε κρίση δεν απέχει πολύ από την αλήθεια. Σχηματικά λοιπόν, στην πορεία προς το μέλλον δύο άξονες εμφανίζονται διακρι-τοί: Ο πρώτος είναι η τρομακτική επιτάχυνση των εξελίξεων, τόσο στο μακρόκοσμο της Ιστορίας όσο και στο μικρόκοσμο τον ανθρώπινο ή της καθημερινότητας. Η επιτάχυνση αυτή, ενώ ως κινητήρια δύναμη έχει κυρίως την τεχνολογία, δε φαίνεται να απηχεί την κλασική έννοια της προόδου. Είναι συχνά ανεξέ-λεγκτη, κάποτε αντιφατική, και πάντως χωρίς να είναι ορατά τα επόμενά της βήματα.

Από την άλλη –ο άλλος άξονας– είναι ο ίδιος ο άνθρωπος. Μοιάζει αμήχανος ή υποτάσσεται στις εξελί-ξεις, που είναι συχνά ευεργετικές. Αλλού αντιστέκεται. Δε φαίνεται όμως, προς ώρας τουλάχιστον, να έχει αλ-λοιωθεί η βαθύτερή του φύση. Παραμένει νοσταλγός του ονείρου και μιας άλλης ζωής, αναζητεί αξίες και πρότυπα, προσπαθεί να ισορροπήσει – ενώ η περιδίνηση των πάντων χαρακτηρίζει την εποχή μας. Ο μετέω-ρος άνθρωπος: Γνώστης της κοσμικής του ασημαντότητας συνεχίζει ωστόσο να αισθάνεται τα ρίγη της ύπαρξης και της ιστορίας του. Με δυο λόγια, να δημιουργεί πολιτισμό. [...]

Στη χαοτική πορεία του ανθρώπου προς το μέλλον, οι εξωγενείς παράγοντες, που σήμερα εκφράζο-νται κυρίως από την ανεξέλεγκτη τεχνολογία και ένα στυγνό οικονομισμό, υπάρχει πιθανότητα να ισοπε-δώσουν τις εκφράσεις του πολιτισμού του, αλλά και τους εσωτερικούς του κραδασμούς. Ο μετα-άνθρω-πος, που θα δημιουργηθεί, δεν μπορεί να περιγραφεί, μήτε η κοινωνία η τότε. Θα είναι ίσως ένα μείγμα εικονικής πραγματικότητας και αθέατης εξουσίας των ισχυρών.

Αν όμως υποτεθεί ότι το τοπίο της ψυχής πάντοτε θα αναζητεί τις αξίες της αλληλεγγύης και του πο-λιτισμού, της δικαιοσύνης ή του έρωτα, τότε ο σημερινός κύκλος –κύκλος βαρβαρότητας– κάποτε θα κλείσει. Ένας καινούριος ασφαλώς θα ανοίξει. Ο καινούριος αυτός κύκλος δε θα θυμίζει εκείνους του πα-ρελθόντος, όπως θα επιθυμούσαν μερικοί ουτοπιστές. Με τον έναν ή τον άλλο όμως τρόπο, θα επαναφέ-ρει στο κέντρο του το ανθρώπινο πρόσωπο.

Γιώργος Γραμματικάκης, ένθετο «Βιβλιοθήκη», εφημ. *ΕΛΕΥΘΕΡΟΤΥΠΙΑ*, 2000

Διαβάζω και γράφω

1. Αφού μελετήσετε προσεκτικά το κείμενο 9, προσπαθήστε:
   α. να το χωρίσετε σε ενότητες
   β. να κάνετε το σχεδιάγραμμά του
   γ. να γράψετε έναν πλαγιότιτλο σε κάθε παράγραφό του
2. Συντάξτε τώρα μια περίληψη του κειμένου 9, που θα δημοσιευτεί στη μαθητική εφημερίδα του σχολείου σας, με σκοπό να συμβάλει στη διεύρυνση του προβληματισμού των συμμαθητών σας. Το κείμενό σας δεν μπορεί να υπερβαίνει τις 200 λέξεις, γιατί δεν υπάρχει περισσότερος διαθέσιμος χώρος στην εφημερίδα.

Appendix 13C - *Τέχνες και τεχνάσματα* **(Art and tricks)**

Κείμενο 3 [Τέχνες και τεχνάσματα]

Ο νους όμως για να υλοποιήσει τη σκέψη του και τις ιδέες του αναγκάζεται να μεταχειρίζεται τεχνάσματα ώστε να υπερπηδήσει τα εμπόδια της ύλης, να της δώσει μορφή και να εκφραστεί. Με τέχνασμα ο τροχός υπερνικά την τριβή, με τέχνασμα ο στρατηγικός ελιγμός υπερνικά την αντίσταση του εχθρού, με τέχνασμα μιμητικό παριστάνει η ζωγραφική τα φαινόμενα, η γλυπτική ανδριάντες. Με τέχνασμα έκλεψε ο Προμηθέας τη φωτιά από τους θεούς για να σώσει τους ανθρώπους.

Η τέχνη λοιπόν του ανθρώπου, όσο και αν αποβλέπει στο απόλυτο, αναπτύσσεται στο πεδίο του δυνατού. Γι' αυτό το έργο της δεν είναι μόνον προϊόν της φαντασίας αλλά και της τεχνικής εμπειρίας. Ο Παρθενών συντίθεται ως ναός της θεάς αλλά, για να ανεγερθεί και να κατανικήσει τη βαρύτητα, χρειάζεται τεχνάσματα στατικά και οπτικά. Αφότου όμως το πέτυχε, εκφράζει αξίες και θέλγει τους ανθρώπους. Ίδια και η ποίηση, για να εκφράσει το άφατο, χρειάζεται τεχνάσματα, μύθους, εικόνες, ποιητικές μεταφορές, μέτρα και ρυθμούς που θα αποτινάξουν τη λήθη και τη νοητική δυσκαμψία των λέξεων έτσι ώστε να τις καταστήσουν ορχούμενες, ζωντανές φωνές συμβολικές. Ο καλλιτέχνης δεν μπορεί να κάμει τίποτε περισσότερο, διότι δεν είναι ο δημιουργός του κόσμου. Είναι δημιουργός «κόσμων εν κόσμω», αλλά αυτό είναι χάρισμα μεγάλο και θαυμαστό.

Π. Α. Μιχελής, *Αισθητικά θεωρήματα*, τόμ. I, Ίδρυμα Παναγιώτη και Έφης Μιχελή, 1989

Ερωτήσεις κατανόησης

1 Ποιες είναι –σύμφωνα με το συγγραφέα– οι δύο προϋποθέσεις για τη δημιουργία ενός έργου τέχνης;
2 Ποιο ρόλο παίζουν τα τεχνάσματα στην τέχνη; • Μπορείτε να αναγνωρίσετε τεχνάσματα πίσω από τις εντυπωσιακές σκηνές ταινιών που έχετε δει στον κινηματογράφο ή στην τηλεόραση; • Ποιο αισθητικό αποτέλεσμα έχουν και ποια συναισθήματα γεννούν σε σας ως θεατές;

Appendix 13D - *Λαός και Κολωνάκι* **(People and Kolonaki)**

Appendix 13E - *Σειρήνες – Οδυσσέας* **(Sirens – Ulysses)**

Κείμενο 5 Σειρήνες – Οδυσσέας

Γιάννης Γαΐτης, *Σειρήνες – Οδυσσέας* (1980), στο *Εθνική Πινακοθήκη, 100 χρόνια, Τέσσερις αιώνες ελληνικής ζωγραφικής*, Εθνική Πινακοθήκη και Μουσείο Αλέξανδρου Σούτζου, Αθήνα 2001

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Appendix 14 – Teaching materials _ Elena's lessons

Appendix 14A – *Ρινοκερίτις* (Living like a rhino)

Κείμενο 1 Ρινοκερίτις!...

Εάν ο Ιονέσκο στο θέατρο του «παραλόγου» έγραψε τον *Ρινόκερο*, εμείς στην Ελλάδα –στη σύγχρονη Ελλάδα– παίζουμε το έργο στ' αλήθεια.

Γιατί, πράγματι, έχουμε καταντήσει μια χώρα γεμάτη από ρινόκερους. Από παχύδερμα που δεν ενοχλούνται από τίποτα, που δεν ενδιαφέρονται για τίποτα και που ζουν μόνον για την τροφή τους. Το τραγικό δε είναι ότι κάθε μέρα βλέπουμε γύρω μας τους ρινόκερους να πληθαίνουν και κάθε μέρα βλέπουμε τους ανθρώπους μας να γίνονται και αυτοί ρινόκεροι. Με μια μόνον διαφορά: στην ταχύτητα μεταμορφώσεώς τους. Γιατί άλλοι γίνονται ρινόκεροι σε λίγες μέρες και άλλοι χρειάζονται μερικά χρόνια για να μεταμορφωθούν στα παχύδερμα αυτά.

Η ρινοκερίτις αυτή –γιατί για ασθένεια πρόκειται– είναι επιδημική και μεταδίδεται από... τα «μίντια». Τα οποία έχουν κατορθώσει να δημιουργήσουν το κατάλληλο «περιβάλλον», ώστε όχι μόνον να αναπτύσσονται τα μικρόβια της ρινοκερίτιδος, αλλά και –που είναι και το τραγικότερο– να μεταδίδονται και να διαχέονται σε όλη τη χώρα. Και ενώ στα παλιά χρόνια είχαν τα λοιμοκαθαρτήρια και την «καραντίνα», σήμερα δεν υπάρχει μέρος για να «κρυφτεί» κανείς και να γλυτώσει. Γιατί τα «μίντια» –και προ παντός τα ηλεκτρονικά– περνάνε κάθε προστατευτικό φράγμα, κάθε τείχος και μεταφέρουν τον «ιό της ρινοκερίτιδος» παντού.

[...] Και φυσικά τα «μίντια» σκορπάνε αφειδώς μεγάλες δόσεις του «ιού». «Σίριαλ» –οι γνωστές «σαπουνόπερες»–, «talk shows», αγχωτικές ειδήσεις, καταστροφολογίες, σεξ σε όλες τις μορφές (ήπιο ή σκληρό), τηλεπαιχνίδια, «αθλητικές συναντήσεις», δημιουργούν το κατάλληλο περιβάλλον μέσα στο οποίο ο «ιός» αναπτύσσεται και μεταδίδεται, ενώ και ο οργανισμός των ανθρώπων εξασθενεί και γίνεται ευκολότερα ευάλωτος. Έτσι ο απλός πολίτης ζει συνεχώς σε ένα κλίμα αγωνίας, άγχους, αβεβαιότητας, βλέποντας γύρω του έναν κόσμο που του δημιουργούν τα «μίντια». Έναν κόσμο φανταστικό, που είτε τον καλεί όπως η Κίρκη για να τον μεταβάλει σε χοίρο, είτε τον απωθεί και τον φοβίζει. Και στις δύο όμως περιπτώσεις τον αναγκάζει να στραφεί προς τον εαυτό του. Όχι, βέβαια, για να ενδοσκοπηθεί, αλλά για να «κουρνιάσει». [...]

Πώς αντιμετωπίζεται, όμως, η ρινοκερίτις αυτή; Το πρόβλημα είναι όχι μόνον δύσκολο αλλά και άλυτο. Πώς θα μπορέσουμε δηλαδή να ξαναμεταμορφώσουμε τους ρινόκερους σε «ανθρώπους»; [...]

Στη ζοφερή αυτή προοπτική ένα μόνο μένει σε όσους δεν έχουν ακόμα προσβληθεί από τη «ρινοκερίτιδα». Να φωνάξουν και αυτοί όπως ο Μπερανζέ*: «Όχι, δεν θα συνθηκολογήσω! ΔΕΝ ΘΑ ΓΙΝΩ ΣΑΝ ΚΙ ΕΣΑΣ!»

* Μπερανζέ: ήρωας στο έργο του Ιονέσκο *Ρινόκερος*

(Διατηρείται η ορθογραφία του συγγραφέα)

Κώστας Βαΐλγαρης, στο *Ένας αιώνας χρονογράφημα 1899-1999*, επιμ. Βασιλική Αλμπάνη, εκδ. Καστανιώτη, 1999

Ερωτήσεις κατανόησης

1 Ποιο πρόβλημα της ελληνικής κοινωνίας ονομάζει ο χρονογράφος ρινοκερίτιδα; • Ποιοι και με ποιο τρόπο «μεταδίδουν την ασθένεια» της ρινοκερίτιδας;

2 Πώς μπορεί να αντιμετωπιστεί, κατά την άποψη του χρονογράφου, το δύσκολο αυτό πρόβλημα; • Ποια είναι η δική σας γνώμη;

3 Το κείμενο αυτό είναι χρονογράφημα. Εντοπίστε τα χαρακτηριστικά του χρονογραφήματος, αφού πρώτα διαβάσετε γι' αυτό το είδος κειμένου στο σχολικό λεξικό λογοτεχνικών όρων.

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Appendix 14B – *Μεταλλαγμένα : Τι μπορείς να κάνεις εσύ*; (Genetically modified products: What can you do?)

Κείμενο 3 Μεταλλαγμένα: Τι μπορείς να κάνεις εσύ

Τα μεταλλαγμένα προϊόντα τρυπώνουν στη διατροφή μας. Η σόγια, το καλαμπόκι και τα παράγωγά τους είναι οι κύριες πηγές της γενετικής ρύπανσης στη φύση και στα τρόφιμα. Πολλά προϊόντα όπως σοκολάτες, μπισκότα, σνακ, σάντουιτς, γλυκά, πίτες, παιδικές τροφές κτλ. μπορεί να περιέχουν μεταλλαγμένη σόγια ή καλαμπόκι ως βασικά συστατικά ή πρόσθετα. Και σαν να μην έφτανε αυτό, οι μεταλλαγμένοι οργανισμοί φτάνουν έμμεσα στο πιάτο μας σε τεράστιες ποσότητες μέσα από τις ζωοτροφές-ιχθυοτροφές, αφού αποτελούν βασικό μέρος της διατροφής των ζώων εκτροφής.

Ακόμα και αν «καθαρίσουμε» λοιπόν το σύνολο των τροφίμων από τα μεταλλαγμένα συστατικά, οι μεταλλαγμένοι οργανισμοί θα εξακολουθούν να απειλούν το φυσικό περιβάλλον και την υγεία. Για να αποφύγουμε τον εφιάλτη των μεταλλαγμένων, θα πρέπει να καθαρίσουμε το σύνολο της τροφικής αλυσίδας. Η προσπάθεια αυτή χρειάζεται την ενεργό συμμετοχή σου και την ουσιαστική υποστήριξή σου.

Για τον καθένα που δε θέλει να παίξει το ρόλο του άκριτου καταναλωτή αλλά θέλει να έχει έναν πιο ουσιαστικό λόγο στα ζητήματα που έχουν σχέση με τη διατροφή, την προστασία του περιβάλλοντος και τη δημόσια υγεία, φτιάξαμε το Δίκτυο Καταναλωτών εναντίον των μεταλλαγμένων. Ταυτόχρονα δημοσιοποιήσαμε τον Οδηγό καταναλωτών (pdf) που έρχεται να καλύψει ένα μεγάλο κενό που υπάρχει στην ενημέρωση των καταναλωτών σχετικά με τους μεταλλαγμένους οργανισμούς, τη χρήση τους στα τρόφιμα και τη σήμανσή τους. Μέχρι σήμερα, η δράση του Δικτύου Καταναλωτών έχει φέρει εντυπωσιακά αποτελέσματα. Σύμφωνα με τους ελέγχους που έχουν γίνει και όπως διαβεβαιώνουν οι ίδιες οι βιομηχανίες τροφίμων, η παρουσία μεταλλαγμένων οργανισμών σε τρόφιμα είναι πλέον σπάνια στην Ελλάδα.

Από το 2001 ξεκίνησαν και οι εισαγωγές σημαντικής ποσότητας πιστοποιημένης μη μεταλλαγμένης σόγιας με προορισμό τις ζωοτροφές. Για άλλη μια φορά η κινητοποίηση του κόσμου έφερε άμεσα αποτελέσματα. Η πίεση αυτή πρέπει να συνεχιστεί για να εξασφαλίσουμε ότι τα μεταλλαγμένα θα φύγουν μια και καλή από τα τρόφιμα και τις ζωοτροφές και ότι το μέλλον της γεωργίας δε θα έχει θέση για τα μεταλλαγμένα· η γεωργία του αύριο πρέπει να είναι βιολογική. Ας συνεχίσουμε λοιπόν.

- Γίνε κι εσύ μέλος του Δικτύου Καταναλωτών.
- Χρησιμοποίησε τον Οδηγό καταναλωτών σε κάθε σου αγορά.
- Χρησιμοποίησε την αγοραστική σου δύναμη και πες ΟΧΙ ΣΤΑ ΜΕΤΑΛΛΑΓΜΕΝΑ!
- Αγόραζε βιολογικά προϊόντα.

http://www.greenpeace.gr (διασκευή)
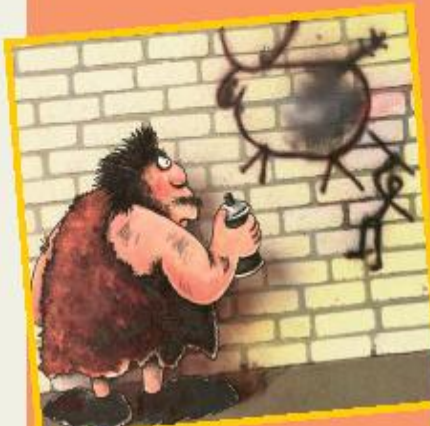
Appendix 14C – *Μαθαίνω ότι* (I learn that)

Μαθαίνω ότι

▶ Οι παράγραφοι και οι προτάσεις ενός κειμένου συνδέονται:
α. με τη χρήση συνδετικών λέξεων που δηλώνουν αντίθεση (π.χ. όμως), αιτιολόγηση (π.χ. γιατί) κτλ.
β. με τη χρήση συνδετικών φράσεων όπως: *ο κυριότερος παράγοντας, μία από τις σημαντικότερες αιτίες* κτλ.
γ. με έμμεση αναφορά στην προηγούμενη παράγραφο ή περίοδο η οποία γίνεται με:
- επανάληψη της τελευταίας ιδέας της παραγράφου ή της περιόδου
- επανάληψη του κεντρικού νοήματος της προηγούμενης παραγράφου ή της προηγούμενης περιόδου
- επανάληψη μιας λέξης ή φράσης της προηγούμενης παραγράφου ή περιόδου.
δ. με ερώτηση.

Appendix 15 – Teaching materials _ Maria's lessons

Appendix 15Α – *Ακούω και Μιλώ* (Listen and Speak)

Ακούω και μιλώ

Κατερίνα Χριστοδούλου,
Πες το με σπρέυ,
εκδ. Γράμματα, 1991

Κυριάκος Ιωσηφίδης,
Το graffiti στην Ελλάδα,
εκδ. Οξύ, 1997

1. **α.** Ποιες σκέψεις σάς δημιουργεί η παράλληλη παράθεση των δύο εικόνων;
   β. Ποια είναι κατά τη γνώμη σας τα κίνητρα των νεαρών ατόμων ή νεανικών ομάδων που γεμίζουν με χρώματα και σχέδια τους τοίχους των πόλεων;
   γ. Πού θα τοποθετούσατε τον εαυτό σας στην παρακάτω κλίμακα;

1	2	3	4	5
τα γκράφιτι με εξοργίζουν	τα γκράφιτι με αφήνουν αδιάφορο	μερικά έχουν γούστο	οι δημιουργοί τους (writers) είναι αληθινοί καλλιτέχνες που ζωντανεύουν την πόλη	προσπαθώ και εγώ να εκφραστώ μέσα από τα γκράφιτι

   • Σχηματίστε ομάδες ανάλογα με τις τοποθετήσεις σας (ομάδα 1, 2, 3, 4, 5). Κάθε ομάδα ας προετοιμάσει την επιχειρηματολογία της υποστηρίζοντας την τοποθέτησή της. • Στο τέλος, διοργανώστε ανοικτή συζήτηση στην τάξη.

Appendix 15Β – *Παλιές διαφημίσεις* (Old advertisements)

2. Βλέπετε τρεις παλιές διαφημίσεις, ηλικίας περίπου εκατό χρόνων.

ΕΘΝΙΚΗ ΑΤΜΟΠΛΟΙΑ ΤΗΣ ΕΛΛΑΔΟΣ
ΕΘΝΙΚΗ ΑΤΜΟΠΛΟΙΑ ΤΗΣ ΕΛΛΑΔΟΣ
ΕΘΝΙΚΗ ΑΤΜΟΠΛΟΙΑ ΤΗΣ ΕΛΛΑΔΟΣ

NATIONAL STEAM NAVIGATION Co LTD OF GREECE

Ενημερωτικό φυλλάδιο του Ε.Λ.Ι.Α.

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Appendix 15C – *Διαβάζω και Γράφω* (Read and Write)

Διαβάζω και γράφω

1. Ο Ολλανδός ιμπρεσιονιστής Βίνσεντ Βαν Γκογκ θεωρείται σήμερα σε όλο τον κόσμο ένας από τους μεγαλύτερους ζωγράφους όλων των εποχών. Οι πίνακές του κοσμούν τα σπουδαιότερα μουσεία και έχουν αμύθητη αξία.

   Ωστόσο, είναι γεγονός ότι ο Βαν Γκογκ στη διάρκεια της ζωής του δεν κατάφερε να πουλήσει ούτε έναν πίνακά του. Έζησε και ζωγράφιζε μέσα στην πιο σκληρή ανέχεια, βιώνοντας την απόρριψη.

   • Πώς μπορείτε να εξηγήσετε αυτό το παράδοξο;
   • Ποια σχέση βλέπετε να υπάρχει ανάμεσα στην καλλιτεχνική αξία ενός έργου και στην τιμή του στην αγορά έργων τέχνης; Οι παράγοντες που ορίζουν την αξία του είναι ίδιοι μ' αυτούς που καθορίζουν την τιμή του;
   • Συνδυάζοντας τις παραπάνω πληροφορίες με το μήνυμα του κειμένου 4, γράψτε τις σκέψεις σας για το φαινόμενο της εμπορευματοποίησης της τέχνης.
   • Τέλος, διαβάστε τα κείμενά σας στην τάξη και μοιραστείτε τον προβληματισμό σας με τους συμμαθητές σας.
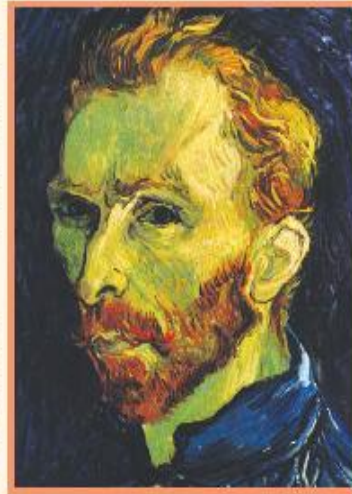
Βίνσεντ Βαν Γκογκ, *Αυτοπροσωπογραφία*, στο Ingo F. Walther, *Βίνσεντ Βαν Γκογκ*, μτφρ. Σοφία Σουλιώτη, εκδ. TASCHEN/ΓΝΩΣΗ, 2004

2. Εμπνευστείτε από τη σχολική σας ζωή. • Διαλέξτε ένα γνωστό ή έναν πρωτότυπο μουσικό ρυθμό. • Πάνω σ' αυτόν γράψτε στίχους που να αφηγούνται γεγονότα ή που να εκφράζουν τα συναισθήματά σας από τη ζωή σας στο σχολείο.

3. Περιηγηθείτε μόνοι σας ή σε μικρές συντροφιές στη γειτονιά του σχολείου σας. • Παρατηρήστε προσεκτικά δρόμους, κτίρια, τα μαγαζιά, τους κοινόχρηστους χώρους (πλατείες, πάρκα) και αξιολογήστε την αισθητική τους. • Προσπαθήστε να σκεφτείτε συγκεκριμένες παρεμβάσεις που θα βελτίωναν αισθητικά το χώρο. Στη συνέχεια συντάξτε μια επιστολή προς το δήμο ή άλλον αρμόδιο φορέα που να περιλαμβάνει τις παρατηρήσεις και τις προτάσεις σας για παρεμβάσεις και αλλαγές στο χώρο.

Appendix 15D – Multiple choice exercises

4.   Ήθελε να του πάω το φαγητό στο κρεβάτι.

    A.   ___?___ | υποκείμενο

    B.   ___?___ | αντικείμενο

    C.   ___?___ | επεξήγηση

    D.   ___?___ | κατηγορούμενο

5.   Φοβάμαι μήπως δεν έρθει το βράδυ στην παράσταση.

    A.   ___?___ | ειδική

    B.   ___?___ | βουλητική

    C.   ___?___ | ενδοιαστική

6.   Φοβάμαι μήπως δεν έρθει το βράδυ στην παράσταση.

    A.   ___?___ | υποκείμενο

    B.   ___?___ | αντικείμενο

Appendix 16 - Teaching materials _ Andreas' lessons

Appendix 16A - *[Όταν η τηλεόραση «το παίζει» σοβαρή*] **(When the television tries to be serious)**

Κείμενο 2 [Όταν η τηλεόραση «το παίζει» σοβαρή]

[Ο Νιλ Πόστμαν, ένας από τους σκληρότερους επικριτές των ΜΜΕ, μιλάει στο Θ. Λάλα (απόσπασμα από τη συνέντευξη).]

– Εσείς βλέπετε τηλεόραση;

– Ναι, βέβαια.

– Εκείνη τη στιγμή νιώθετε να αποδέχεστε αυτό που σας δίνουν; Με άλλα λόγια, παγιδεύεστε κι εσείς από τη δύναμη του Μέσου;

– Παρακολουθώ πολύ τηλεόραση, κυρίως τα αθλητικά, παλιές ταινίες και ιδιαίτερα γεγονότα τα οποία συμβαίνουν και αξίζει τον κόπο να τα πα-

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ρακολουθήσει κανείς. Όποτε όμως η τηλεόραση προσπαθεί να το παίξει σοβαρή, εγώ κάθε άλλο παρά στα σοβαρά την παίρνω. Διότι ξέρω ότι αυτό που κυρίως την αφορά, τουλάχιστον την αμερικανική, είναι να πουλήσει κοινό στους διαφημιστές. Αυτή είναι η βασική δουλειά της. Μια στις τόσες βέβαια δείχνουν και κάτι το οποίο είναι πραγματικά σημαντικό, μια δολοφονία, ένα σεισμό... Είναι καλή σ' αυτές τις περιπτώσεις, αλλά, όπως είπαμε, όλα αυτά δεν είναι πρωταρχικό της μέλημα. Από τη στιγμή που το γνωρίζει αυτό ένας τηλεθεατής όπως εγώ, μπορεί να παρακολουθεί άφοβα τηλεόραση, όμως σπάνια βλέπω ειδήσεις, διότι ακόμα και μέσα από αυτές οι τηλεάνθρωποι προσπαθούν να «πουλήσουν» τηλεθεατές στους διαφημιστές. Στο ίδιο κόλπο είναι και οι εφημερίδες· μόνο που αυτές «πουλάνε» αναγνώστες. Αν και οι εφημερίδες έχουν άλλη παράδοση. Γι' αυτό και ένα καλό ρεπορτάζ εφημερίδας το εμπιστεύομαι πολύ περισσότερο από τις ειδήσεις στην τηλεόραση.

εφημ. ΤΟ ΒΗΜΑ, 27/5/2001

Ερωτήσεις κατανόησης

1 Ποιος είναι ο βασικός στόχος της τηλεόρασης σύμφωνα με το Νιλ Πόστμαν;

2 Σε ποια περίπτωση ο τηλεθεατής δεν κινδυνεύει να παγιδευτεί από τη δύναμη της τηλεόρασης;

Appendix 16B - *Πρωταθλητές στα τροχαία ατυχήματα* (Champions of car accidents)

Κείμενο 2 [Πρωταθλητές στα τροχαία ατυχήματα!]

Μια από τις σημαντικότερες αιτίες θανάτου στη χώρα μας είναι τα τροχαία ατυχήματα, τα οποία συνεχώς αυξάνονται. Η Ελλάδα μαζί με την Πορτογαλία καταλαμβάνουν τις δύο πρώτες θέσεις ανάμεσα στις χώρες της Ευρωπαϊκής Ένωσης στον κατάλογο των θανάτων από τα ατυχήματα αυτά. Για το λόγο αυτό τα Μέσα Μαζικής Ενημέρωσης αναφέρονται συχνά στους θανάτους που προκαλούνται από τροχαία ατυχήματα και ιδιαίτερα τα Σαββατοκύριακα όλου του χρόνου και σε περιόδους εορτών στις οποίες οι αργίες διαρκούν τρεις ή περισσότερες μέρες (Χριστούγεννα, Πρωτοχρονιά, Πάσχα, Δεκαπενταύγουστο κτλ.).

Τα τροχαία ατυχήματα, όμως, δεν συμβαίνουν μόνο την Παρασκευή, το Σάββατο και την Κυριακή. Συμβαίνουν, δυστυχώς, όλες τις μέρες της εβδομάδας και οι συνέπειές τους δεν είναι μόνο οι νεκροί επί τόπου αλλά και οι σοβαρά και οι ελαφρά τραυματισμένοι. Ένας, μάλιστα, αριθμός των βαριά τραυματισμένων πεθαίνει στα νοσοκομεία (λέγεται ότι ο αριθμός αυτός είναι ίσος με εκείνον των νεκρών επί τόπου). Δεδομένου του οξύτατου δημογραφικού προβλήματος της χώρας και του γεγονότος ότι οι θάνατοι τα 3 από τα 4 τελευταία χρόνια ξεπέρασαν τις γεννήσεις, είναι ανάγκη να εξεταστούν αναλυτικότερα τα τροχαία ατυχήματα στη χώρα μας.

Πριν ασχοληθούμε με τα αίτια, θα εξετάσουμε τους βασικούς παράγοντες που εμπλέκονται στα τροχαία ατυχήματα. Οι παράγοντες αυτοί διακρίνονται σε πέντε ομάδες: τους οδηγούς, τους επιβάτες, τους πεζούς, το όχημα και την κατάσταση των δρόμων ή του καιρού.

Ο κυριότερος παράγοντας των τροχαίων ατυχημάτων είναι οι οδηγοί. Σχεδόν το 80% των τροχαίων ατυχημάτων οφείλονται σ' αυτούς και ακολουθούν σε μεγάλη απόσταση οι πεζοί. Πολύ μικρότερο ρόλο παίζουν οι δρόμοι ή ο καιρός και ακόμα μικρότερο το όχημα και οι επιβάτες. Τα αίτια των τροχαίων ατυχημάτων που οφείλονται στους οδηγούς μπορούν να καταταγούν σε τρεις βασικές κατηγορίες:

- **Επιθετική** ή επιδεικτική συμπεριφορά (παραβίαση προτεραιότητας, υπερβολική ταχύτητα, παραβίαση σηματοδότη, επιδεικτικοί ελιγμοί στη μέση του δρόμου κτλ.).
- **Προκλητική** παράβαση του Κώδικα Οδικής Κυκλοφορίας – ΚΟΚ (κίνηση στο αντίθετο ρεύμα (!), αντικανονικό προσπέρασμα, μη οδήγηση στα δεξιά του δρόμου κτλ.).
- **Απροσεξία** ή αμέλεια (απόσπαση προσοχής οδηγού, οδήγηση σε κατάσταση μέθης κτλ.).

Τόσο οι οδηγοί όσο και οι επιβάτες παραβαίνουν συστηματικά τον ΚΟΚ σε ό,τι αφορά τη ζώνη ασφαλείας και το κράνος. Η μεγάλη πλειονότητα των οδηγών και των επιβατών (σχεδόν το 80%) δε φορούσαν, δυστυχώς, ζώνη ασφαλείας ή κράνος όταν έγινε το τροχαίο ατύχημα.

Στην περίπτωση των πεζών παρατηρείται βιαστική ή απρόσεκτη συμπεριφορά ή παράβαση του ΚΟΚ. Για τους πεζούς, όμως, μπορεί να υπάρχουν ελαφρυντικά (π.χ. προβλήματα υγείας, γήρατος, έλλειψη συνοδού κτλ.). Φυσικά υπάρχει και σοβαρότατο έλλειμμα κυκλοφοριακής αγωγής, παρά τις κάποιες προσπάθειες που γίνονται τελευταία προς την κατεύθυνση αυτή στα σχολεία.

Μανώλης Γ. Δρεττάκης, «Οδηγοί: Φταίνε για το 80% των ατυχημάτων», αφιέρωμα «Τροχαία Ατυχήματα», εφημ. ΕΛΕΥΘΕΡΟΤΥΠΙΑ, 16/12/2000 (διασκευή)

Appendix 16C - *['Ήθελα να βοηθήσω το φίλο μου …]*' (I wanted to help my friend)

Κείμενο 3 ['Ήθελα να βοηθήσω το φίλο μου...]

Παρασκευή. Μου είχε ετοιμάσει ένα βασιλικό πρωινό, με κεριά στη μέση του τραπεζιού. Το ξέρω, κεριά ανάβουν συνήθως στο δείπνο, και λοιπόν;

Ανάμεσα στα κεριά δέσποζε η τούρτα μου, πρώτη και καλύτερη. Το τσάι άχνιζε μέσα στην τσαγιέρα και τα ποτήρια ήταν γεμάτα πορτοκαλάδα. Υπήρχε ακόμα και ένα μπουκετάκι λουλούδια. Ο Νταβίντ ήταν πανευτυχής με την έκπληξή του. Κι εγώ πίστευα ότι όλα θα διορθώνονταν. Ο μπαμπάς γύριζε την επομένη, θα του μιλούσα για τον Νταβίντ, θα τον βοηθούσαμε.

– Τι σκέφτεσαι, αδερφούλα;

– Τις διακοπές, θα κατασκηνώσουμε κάπου παραθαλάσσια με τον μπαμπά μου. Μπορείς να έρθεις κι εσύ. Θα τα πάτε πολύ καλά, είμαι σίγουρη, θα κάνουμε και ιστιοπλοΐα...

– Γιατί όχι; είπε με ονειροπόλο ύφος.

Το πίστευα πραγματικά ότι όλα θα διορθώνονταν.

Όλο το πρωί διαβάζαμε κόμικς, Αστερίξ και Λούκι Λουκ, τα αγαπημένα μου.

Κατά τις δώδεκα, σήκωσε το κεφάλι από το περιοδικό του και είπε:

– Αρχίζω να πεινάω, μπορείς να πας να ψωνίσεις;

Μου έδωσε λεφτά. Κατεβαίνοντας τις σκάλες, σκέφτηκα ότι θα έτρωγα ευχαρίστως μια μακαρονάδα αλά μπολονέζ, αλλά επειδή βαριόμουνα να την ετοιμάσω, προτίμησα μια έτοιμη πίτσα.

Ο ουρανός ήταν συννεφιασμένος, ερχόταν καταιγίδα. Μ' αρέσει η βροχή, τα καθαρίζει όλα.

Πήγα και παράγγειλα μια πίτσα Μαργαρίτα στον τύπο με την καντίνα «Πίτσα-Πατάτες-Αναψυκτικά» στην πλατεία.

– Έτοιμη σε πέντε λεπτά, κουκλίτσα!

Στη διπλανή κολόνα ήταν κολλημένη μια αφίσα, ίδια μ' αυτήν που είχα δει δύο μέρες πριν στη βιτρίνα του μαγαζιού. Μου ήρθε μια ιδέα.

– Τη θες πικάντικη την πίτσα;

Απάντησα ναι, την έβαλε μέσα σ' ένα χαρτονένιο κουτί και την πήρα.

Αντί όμως να πάω κατευθείαν στην γκαρσονιέρα, σταμάτησα σ' έναν τηλεφωνικό θάλαμο με κέρματα, που μάλλον είχαν ξεχάσει να αλλάξουν. Ακούμπησα την πίτσα στο ραφάκι και πήρα τηλέφωνο.

– Καλημέρα σας. Εδώ S.O.S. Ναρκωτικά. Σας ακούμε.

– Μπορώ να μην πω το όνομά μου; ρώτησα.

– Τα τηλεφωνήματα είναι ανώνυμα, δε σας ρωτάμε τίποτε. Σας ακούμε.

Έτσι τους τα είπα όλα, ότι είχα γνωρίσει τον Νταβίντ, ότι έπαιρνε ναρκωτικά. Τους ρώτησα τι έπρεπε να κάνω για να τα σταματήσει. Η φωνή στην άλλη άκρη της γραμμής ήταν πολύ γλυκιά. Μου είπε ότι έκανα πολύ καλά που τους τηλεφώνησα και ότι, αν ήθελα να βοηθήσω το φίλο μου, αυτό που μπορούσα να κάνω,

ήταν να του δώσω αυτό το νούμερο και να του πω ότι μπορούσε να τηλεφωνήσει οποιαδήποτε ώρα της μέρας ή της νύχτας. Και μου έδωσε κάποιες διευθύνσεις όπου θα τον βοηθούσαν χωρίς να τον ρωτήσουν το παραμικρό, χωρίς να του δημιουργήσουν προβλήματα.

Τα σημείωσα όλα πάνω στο κουτί της πίτσας. Είπα ευχαριστώ και το 'κλεισα. Η πίτσα κόντευε να κρυώσει, οπότε βιάστηκα να γυρίσω, αλλά δεν ανέβηκα τις σκάλες τρέχοντας, για να μη μου πέσει το κουτί. Πεινούσα.

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Appendix 16D - The grammar rule of adverbs

Appendix 16E - Practice activity

Προσπαθήστε να μεταφέρετε τις παρακάτω φράσεις στον άλλο αριθμό και βρείτε ποιες μετοχές αλλάζουν.

α. **Κατεβαίνοντας** τις σκάλες, σκέφτηκα ότι θα έτρωγα ευχαρίστως μια μακαρονάδα αλά μπολονέζ. (κείμ. 3)

β. Στη διπλανή κολόνα ήταν **κολλημένη** μια αφίσα. (κείμ. 3)

γ. Ωστόσο, στο κυνήγι των τόσο αβέβαιων προοπτικών, οι **κερδισμένοι** είναι λίγοι. (κείμ. 2)