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***Globalization, Internet and informal learning*****Abstract**

This paper examines issues related to the learning process in new learning environments, created by the modern digital reality and the Internet. The paper aims at the presentation of the effect that the technological evolution and the social transformations-especially the transition to the Information Society-have on human activity and especially on education.

**Key-words:** Globalization, internet, informal learning, ICT, university students.

**Introduction**

Our global, post-modern society is characterized by rapid developments, as information technology has penetrated all aspects of social structure and influences, transforms and causes new social phenomena. Social relations are constructed under the effect of a huge amount of information, creating a new social setting, the main features of which are the symbols, the images and the wide use of new technologies (Flouris & Passias, 2000: 498). The new social structures inevitably affect institutions, as well, and especially education, which is called to respond to the social demands, providing, studies of high quality and the required specialization.

The rising labour costs, the transition to more flexible and specialized working environments, the modernization of the primary sector of the economy and the development of the third sector services of our post-modern era, require lifelong education and a flexible educational system. Formal education by itself is not sufficient to meet the needs that arise with the rapid development of science and technology, and constant training is necessary, in order to avoid the exclusion from social, economic and political action (OECD, 1996).

The traditional, teacher-centred school, which lacks flexibility and imagination and focuses only on the curriculum and the teaching material, instead of

the student, is unable to handle the new challenges and satisfy students' needs. The teacher is now called to redefine his/her role and develop an effective model, in order to approach teaching with success, using appropriate methods and strategies. The reorientation of the educational process and the adoption of alternative forms of education, are, therefore, necessary.

Educational reform can be accomplished by incorporating the appropriate cognitive tools. The Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) are a powerful cognitive tool that can combine the teaching of the subject matter with technological and cultural changes and build the framework of the necessary educational reforms (Pelgrum, 2001). ICT can contribute to the presentation, comprehension and consolidation of information and facilitate, thus, the learning process. According to Muffoletto (1994), educational technology should not be assessed with the hardware quality as the main criterion; the assessment, instead, should be based on its comprehensive, multifaceted contribution to the teaching and learning process, which is beyond the mere hardware use. Roblyer (2004), on the other hand, argued that educational technology is a combination of both procedures and means, i.e. software and hardware. Thus, when referring to ICT, all those means that are used as teaching or communicative tools are included (Kanakakis, 1989).

The educational technology promotes discovery learning and experiential and communicative teaching, contributes to students' active participation and autonomous behaviour in the classroom, facilitates group-work, supports each student's learning pace and needs, provides motivation and enhances the consolidation and systematization of knowledge. Furthermore, it facilitates the exchange of ideas among teachers and the introduction of innovations.

It is well-known that the understanding of concepts, events and phenomena is accomplished through individuals' interaction with images, sounds and texts. The models created by ICTs contribute to interactive learning, as they permit the exchange of ideas and thoughts, through images and texts (Slavin, 1988: 344-345).

Thus, the teacher, as one main factor of educational change and reform, is called to integrate and exploit new technologies in school, in order to facilitate the learning process and structure effectively new knowledge (Selinger, 2001). He/she is required to acquire communicative and pedagogical skills, as well as technological knowledge, since communication, in general, and interpersonal communication, in specific, are the key components of the new learning environment (Raptis & Rapti, 2006).

### **Internet and Informal Learning**

Learning is a social phenomenon that has not been adequately explained and understood (Kassotakis & Flouris, 2005). Several theoretical models have been created to interpret it and to answer basic questions concerning its nature, function, principles and strategies of organization and construction (Trilianos, 2003). Thus, learning is interpreted as a process of stimulus substitution, as a test and error process (the student has the right to make errors), as the repetition of a response after reward and positive reinforcement (sound, image), as an insight, as a process of observation, imitation, and modelling or as information processing (Bigge, 1990. Kapsalis, 2006. Koliadis, 1995. Trilianos, 2003).

The prevailing theories during the last years are the cognitive and the socio-cultural. According to them, learning is accomplished through simulations, which allow collaborative learning and foster critical thinking and the representation of concepts. The socio-cultural theories emphasize learners' interaction and the symbolic construction of knowledge.

In general, learning is defined as a continuous process through which the individual combines experience, knowledge, skills, and attitudes, acquired in real life, with those formed by the learning process at school (Bigge 1990),

In other words, learning is the process of behaviour modification, as a result of an enhanced practice. This modification is accomplished after the completion of the learning process, when the individual is able to do things that could not previously. It is not only a human quality, since animals can learn, too (Kossyvaki, 2003).

Usually, we refer to formal learning, which is learning in a hierarchically-structured, chronologically-graded and established educational system (Jeffs & Smith 1999). However, two other types of learning are, also, discussed in the international literature; the informal and the non-formal learning (Bjornavold, 2002. Castillo, Alas-Pumarino & Santos, 2000. King, 1982. OECD, 2001).

Informal learning is a process characterized by interaction. The person learns through daily experiences in real life. Usually, no specific aims are set (Coffield, 2000).

Non-formal education is an organized process that takes place in a learning environment outside the formal educational system. Non-formal education has specific aims. Examples of non-formal learning are the environmental education and the training that takes place in private schools and institutions (Carron, & Carr-Hill, 1991).

In the industrial and the post-industrial era, the various cognitive tools, and particularly the application of ICT in education, enhance and promote all forms of learning. One of the applications of information and communication technologies is the Internet, a global net of interconnected computers using the protocol TCP/IP. The Internet offers an active and creative learning environment and is an important cognitive tool, which influences learners' interaction with knowledge and helps in the teaching process (Charp 1998).

Internet navigation is used for entertainment, as well as for the unsystematic or the systematic searching of information, which act complementarily to formal and non-formal learning. The Internet represents a form of informal learning, as the individual, through information searching and the use of multiple cognitive processes reconstructs and remodels the cognitive schemata and expands the range of skills (Ala-Mutka, 2009. Buerck et al., 2003).

Various communication tools, such as emails, websites, chat rooms, forums, search engines, databases, etc., support informal learning through internet use. The effectiveness of communication, the easy information access, the possibility for navigation and communication with no time limits, make the Internet a considerably effective learning environment. Internet navigation includes access to a variety of information sources, offers virtual experiences, satisfies professional needs, leisure time and social life and gives motives for creativity and flexibility.

Through virtual reality, learning processes are modified and knowledge is approached in an alternative, innovative way. Internet navigation by itself is

considered to be a learning experience, since it is a dynamic, constantly evolving informational environment (Raptis & Rapti, 2006).

Through Internet navigation, learning is accomplished as a result of a reflective and discovery process, as the product of information processing, or even as an unplanned event. Individuals are not passive receivers of information. Instead, they are actively involved in the whole process, making use of cognitive, social, mental and emotional abilities and skills.

Moreover, the Internet, through the simulated environments, the virtual worlds, the collaborative networking environments and the forums, makes possible the combination of a variety of learning methods, such as the systematic, the random, the independent, the collaborative, the lifelong, the in-distance education and the on line education. The complexity and the structure of the Internet significantly expand the learning boundaries. The visualization possibilities it provides, help in the representation of data and concepts, facilitating, thus, individuals' understanding and assimilation of the learning content.

With the increasing use of the Internet and the various communication tools, informal learning is promoted. More and more people are gaining access to knowledge and to information, search engines are being evolved and improved and the forms of interaction are becoming numerous and imaginative.

### **The research aims and objectives**

It is a fact that the 21st century is characterized by an intense and widespread use of the Internet, both in everyday life and in education. The aim of this research is to record and study university students' beliefs about the impact of the Internet on education, as a form of informal learning. In particular, the present survey mainly aims at studying the effect of the Internet on Informal learning and at identifying those aspects of education, which are based on the Internet use.

## **2. Research Methodology**

### **2.1. The sample**

The sample of the research consists of 390 university students, from all over Greece - 160 (41%) of them are males and 230 (59%) are females. The majority of the respondents are in the fourth (28.2%) and in the third year (24.9%) of studies. The 18.4% of them is in the fifth, sixth and seventh year, the 17.7% in the second year, while only the 10.5% is in the first year of studies.

Most of the students come from families of medium and high educational level. The majority of their parents possess a secondary education degree (the rate is 43.1% for the fathers and 43.8% for the mothers), while high is, also, the percentage of university and technological institute graduates (32.6% for the fathers and 26.9% for the mothers). Few parents are of primary school educational level (8.7% for the fathers and 10.5% and for the mothers).

**Table 1: Gender**

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Frequencies</b>	<b>Percentages</b>
Males	160	41,0

Females	230	59,0
Total	390	100,0

**Table 2:** *Year of study*

Year of study	Frequencies	Percentages
1 <sup>st</sup>	41	10,5
2 <sup>nd</sup>	69	17,7
3 <sup>rd</sup>	97	24,9
4 <sup>th</sup>	110	28,2
5 <sup>th</sup>	57	14,7
6 <sup>th</sup>	13	3,3
7 <sup>th</sup>	3	0,8
Total	390	100,0

**Table 3:** *Parents' educational level*

Educational level	Frequencies	Percentages	Frequencies	Percentages
	Fathers		Mothers	
Primary School	34	8,7	41	10,5
High School	61	15,6	73	18,7
Senior High School	168	43,1	171	43,8
University–Technological Institute	127	32,6	105	26,9
Total	390	100,0	390	100,0

## 2.2 Data collection

Data collection was based on an improvised questionnaire concerning the use of new technologies and the Internet, as well as their effects on the individual. Its construction was based on the international and the Greek literature on the effects of internet and on the theoretical models of learning, particularly informal learning.

The first part of the questionnaire elicits basic socio-demographic information, such as gender, year of study and educational level of parents. In the next part, there are questions concerning students' possibilities to access the Internet, the third part deals with Internet use and the fourth includes questions on the social/affective and the cognitive effects of the Internet. In the fifth part of the questionnaire, aspects of the Greek educational system are evaluated.

The questionnaire consists of closed-type questions and the responds follow the Likert scale: 1 = never, 2 = sometimes 3 = usually, 4 = Always / 1 = I strongly disagree, 2 = I probably disagree, 3 = I probably agree, 4 = I agree. Moreover, the h scale was used, where 1 = Yes, 2 = No, while to the remaining questions, multiple choice answers are provided.

## 3. Results

### 3.1. Frequency Analysis

Frequency analysis suggests that a high percentage of students (73.8%) can access the Internet at home. Furthermore, the 81.3% says that the access to University computers is easy, although the 18.7% claims the opposite. The 91.8% has Internet access at university. Moreover, the 72.6% of the sample can reach a computer at other places, apart from home and University, while a significant proportion (27.4%) cannot.

**Table 4:** *Access to a computer and Internet*

Access to a computer and Internet	Frequencies		Percentages	
	No	Yes	No	Yes
Internet access at home	102	288	26.2	73.8
Easy access to University computers	73	317	18.7	81.3
Internet access at University	32	357	8.2	91.5
Computer access in other places	107	280	27.4	72.6
Total	390	390	100.0	100.0

Furthermore, the 35.1% answers that learned to use a computer alone or with the help of a friend (16.2%) or the family (5.6%), in contrast to the 23.3%, who learned how to use a computer at school and to the 19.7%, who attended computer courses in a private school. According to the results, the 42.1% has been using a computer for more than 5 years, the 23.8% for 1-2 years, the 27.4% for 3-5 years, while the 6.7% for less than a year.

**Table 5:** *Ways of computer learning*

Ways of computer learning	Frequencies	Percentages
Family	22	5.6
Friends	63	16.2
Private school	77	19.7
At school	91	23.3
Alone	137	35.1
Total	390	100.0

**Table 6:** *Years of computer use*

Years of computer use	Frequencies	Percentages
More than 5 years	164	42.1
3-5 years	107	27.4
1-3 years	93	23.8
Less than a year	26	6.7
Total	390	100.0

As far as the frequency of Internet use is concerned, the majority of the students (64.9%) claim that they use it everyday, the 21.5% of them sometimes a week, while only the 13.6% sometimes a month or less (Table 7). 287 students (73.6%) know how to find information in a database, while 103 students (26.4%) do not.



**Table 7:** *Frequency of Internet use*

Frequency of Internet use	Frequencies	Percentages
Daily	253	64.9
Sometimes a week	84	21.5
Sometimes a month	33	8.5
Less than once a month	20	5.1
Total	390	100.0

Moreover, Internet use mostly concerns sending and receiving e-mails, looking for information relative to the university courses, looking for information about topics related to students' interests, as well as downloading music or films (Table 8).

Students sometimes communicate in chat rooms, play games and download or use software. The 25% of the respondents, however, is not involved in chat rooms, in downloading music and movies or in using software. Furthermore, most students claim that have in-distance collaboration with other persons or groups, while the 25% appears unwilling to develop collaborative networks with other people (Table 8).

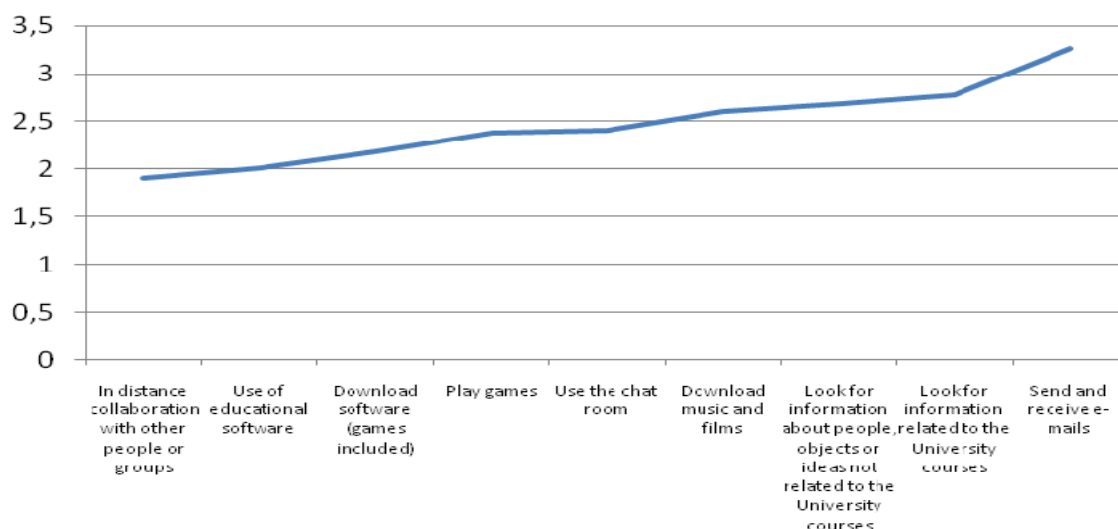
**Table 8:** *Uses of Internet*

Uses of Internet	Mean	Median	Std. Deviation	Percentiles		
				25	50	75
In distance collaboration with other people or groups	1.9	2	0.88	1	2	2
Use of educational software	2.01	2	0.8	1	2	3
Download software (games included)	2.18	2	0.95	1	2	3
Play games	2.38	2	0.91	2	2	3
Use the chat room	2.41	2	1.13	1	2	3
Download music and films	2.61	3	0.99	2	3	3
Look for information about people, objects or ideas not related to the University courses	2.69	3	0.79	2	3	3
Look for information related to the University courses	2.77	3	0.75	2	3	3
Send and receive e-mails	3.26	3	0.83	3	3	4

Note: 1=Never, 2=Sometimes, 3=Usually, 4=Always

**Diagram 1:** *Uses of Internet*

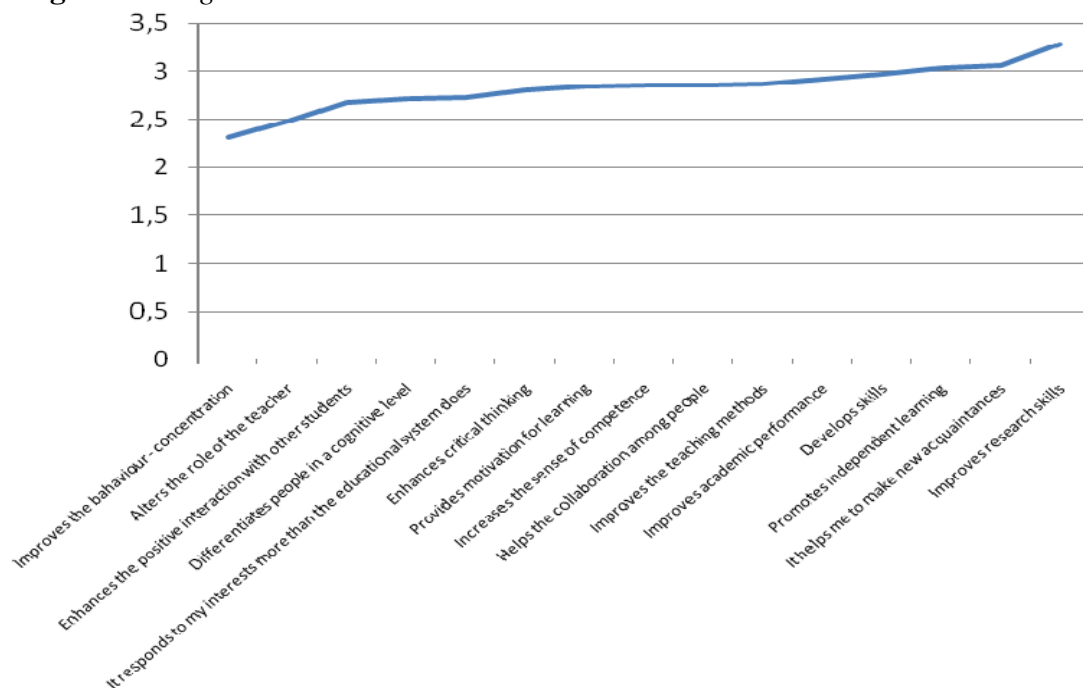




Most people probably agree that the Internet enhances the cognitive and the communicative skills of individuals (e.g. the skills related to research and academic performance or to interpersonal communication). Moreover, most of the respondents probably agree that the Internet promotes independent learning, provides motivation, improves the teaching methods and alters the role of the teacher. The respondents who probably disagree with the above statements constitute the 25% of the sample. The majority does not seem to accept that the Internet contributes to the improvement of behaviour and concentration.

**Table 9:** Means, Median, Std. Deviation and Percentiles of questions about cognitive and the communicative skills

Cognitive and the communicative skills	Mean	Median	Std. Deviation	Percentiles		
				25	50	75
Improves the bahaviour - concentration	2.31	2	0.99	2	2	3
Alters the role of the teacher	2.48	3	1.04	2	3	3
Enhances the positive interaction with other students	2.68	3	1.02	2	3	4
Differentiates people in a cognitive level	2.71	3	0.94	2	3	3
It responds to my interests more than the educational system does	2.73	3	1.01	2	3	4
Enhances critical thinking	2.81	3	0.88	2	3	3
Provides motivation for learning	2.84	3	0.97	2	3	4
Increases the sense of competence	2.85	3	0.95	2	3	4
Helps the collaboration among people	2.86	3	1.09	2	3	4
Improves the teaching methods	2.87	3	0.99	2	3	4
Improves academic performance	2.92	3	0.96	2	3	4
Develops skills	2.97	3	0.85	3	3	4
Promotes independent learning	3.04	3	0.98	2	3	4
It helps me to make new acquaintances	3.06	3	1.1	2	3	4
Improves research skills	3.28	3	0.8	3	3	4

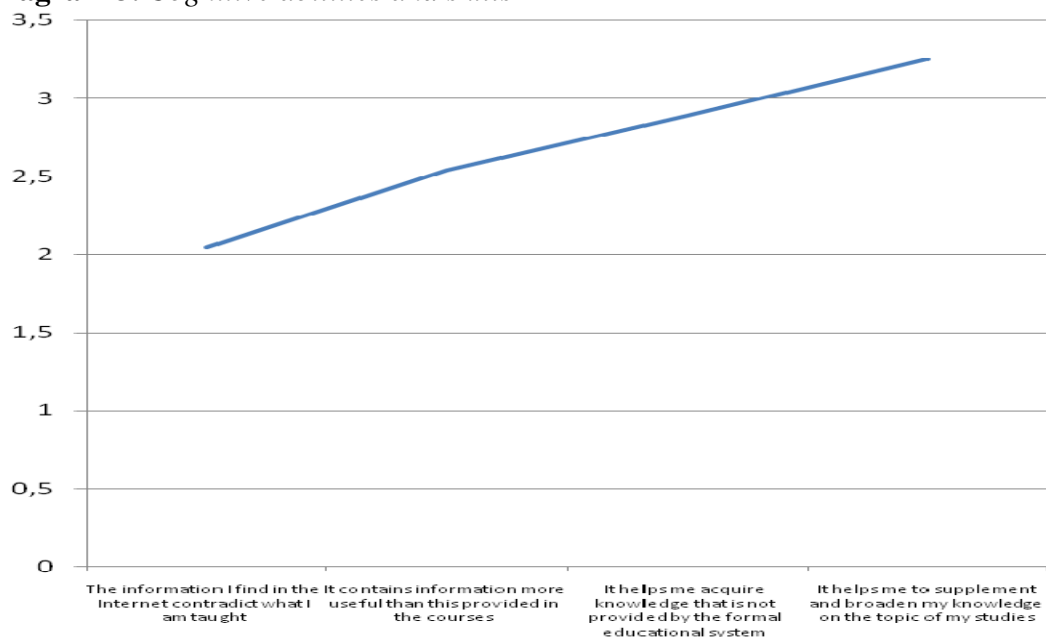
**Diagram 2.** *Cognitive and communicative skills*

As far as the effects of the Internet on individuals' cognitive abilities and skills are concerned, the majority of the students state that they "probably agree" that the Internet offers useful information that the educational system fails to provide, and, thus, supplements and broadens knowledge on an area of interest. The 25% of the respondents, though, does not accept that Internet provides really useful knowledge.

Finally, most of the students say that they "probably disagree" with the statement that the information found on the Internet contradicts what they are taught by the formal educational system. The 25%, however, claims the opposite (Table 10).

**Table 10:** *Means, Median, Std. Deviation and Percentiles of questions about cognitive abilities and skills*

Cognitive abilities and skills	Mean	Median	Std. Deviation	Percentiles		
				25	50	75
The information I find in the Internet contradict what I am taught	2.05	2	0.91	1	2	3
It contains information more useful than this provided in the courses	2.54	3	0.96	2	3	3
It helps me acquire knowledge that is not provided by the formal educational system	2.89	3	0.93	2	3	4
It helps me to supplement and broaden my knowledge on the topic of my studies	3.25	3	0.81	3	3	4

**Diagram 3.** *Cognitive abilities and skills*

## Conclusion

Nowadays, the use of the Internet is widespread and has developed a new socio-economic environment where information, innovation and knowledge have a primary role. Through the multiple provisions of the Internet there are plenty opportunities for entertainment, access to information and communication among people.

Many theorists believe that the Internet is an effective cognitive tool, as it enables the individual to search and exchange information and knowledge, to collaborate and discuss different aspects and dimensions of a cognitive area, acquiring, thus, a complete view of it.

The analysis of the present research is based on two interrelated dimensions. The first is related to the accessibility and use of personal computers and the Internet and the second to students' beliefs about the impact of the Internet on learning. According to the results, the majority of the students makes daily, intense use of the Internet and has been using a computer for more than five years.

It is remarkable, though, that a number of students, below 10%, have minimal or null contact with the Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs). The educational system fails to identify students' real needs and reproduces inequality and social exclusion. The educational policies that do not provide motivation, do not respond to youth's interests, do not facilitate the accessibility to innovative cognitive tools and do not promote the equal development of cultural capital result in the inadequate development of skills, which are necessary in our demanding post-modern society.

Students usually send or receive e-mails or search information related to the university courses or to their personal interests. A number of people, which constitute the 25% of the sample, use the Internet for communication and entertainment, while

another percentage of 25% never uses the Internet for the above reasons or to participate in collaborating networks. Apart from the frequent use of the e-mail, students use the Internet to obtain information related to the subjects taught at the University or to their general interests, while the Internet is not equally used for entertainment reasons. The Internet is a cognitive tool, which contributes to the enhancement of informal learning, defining individuals' interaction with the informative, the symbolic and the virtual content it provides.

The students, through their daily contact with the Internet, develop skills and satisfy the learning objectives they set each time. They become autonomous, direct the process of learning, and construct their own cognitive schemata.

The students themselves have stressed that the Internet enhances the development of skills, related to learning, research, academic performance and interpersonal communication, improves the teaching methods and alters the role of the teacher. There are, of course, a number of people (25%) who do not agree with the above statements, perhaps because of their own inappropriate use of the Internet or their unfamiliarity with it.

Informal learning, accomplished through Internet navigation, is supplementary to the formal and to individual's previous experience. The students claim that the Internet contributes to acquiring the knowledge that the educational system does not provide and that this knowledge is often more useful than the provided by the formal education. However, the majority of the students make clear that that the information found on the Internet does not contradict what they are taught.

To understand the Internet and its impact on learning, a deeper analysis is required, as it constitutes a complex mechanism of knowledge production. The evaluation of its quality and effectiveness, especially when used in formal education and informal learning, is a difficult task. However, it is necessary to understand its role and function into the learning process, in order to accomplish its appropriate integration and effective exploitation.

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***Language and Mathematical Models: Quotient in LT and LL Research***

**Abstract**

In this paper there are proposed two general models of a natural language construction which, we firmly believe, may result from the general way of development of any branch of Mathematics. The different steps of development of any language have been widely investigated within the frame of generative grammar but they are still to be defined and further refined and specified, as language is a natural phenomenon in perpetual evolution. Consequently, the mastery of different steps of this non-stopping process may primarily lead to a better comprehension of the parameters and the potential of the structures and finally allow us to reach reliable conclusions. Therefore, it is very important that, when mathematical models are used in LT and LL research, extra attention to be paid so that every step should be investigated for a complete development of the model. In present paper we focus on one of the suggested models, namely the Cartesian product and quotient procedure. The model is analysed and a number of applications in language teaching and learning with specific examples. The proposed model is within the scope of globalization of sciences; yet, our firm belief is that special characteristics should be preserved and the invariant elements should be consolidated.

**Keywords:** model, quotient, Cartesian product, projection, associativity, commutativity, mapping.

**1. Introduction**

Mathematicians trying to offer models to applied sciences normally focus on various aspects. In this effort some fields of mathematics were also introduced, as the *Category Theory* (MacLane, 1971). Other sciences ask for models from mathematics by specifying certain aspects, a quite extravagant situation of which is that of the mathematicians being asked to construct rather ‘complicated and complex’ models, as in Cryptography. Even more so, it is normal to order mathematical models for sciences that seem to have no connection with mathematics at first sight. Then mathematicians ‘create’ mathematics as the *Fuzzy Theory*, the *Chaos Theory* or the *Theory of Hyperstructures*. As for *linguistics*, it has always been associated with the use of mathematical models ever since it was first established as a science based on experiment and observation. Hjelmslev (1943) has considered language as a well-organized system of categories that not only can be analyzed and studied but also can be represented mathematically. Nevertheless, the demand for models applicable in linguistic theory has been more of a rush during the second half of 20<sup>th</sup> century with Chomsky’s “mathematicalization” of the language. However, this interaction between linguistics and mathematics is not new. Mathematics “owe” to linguistics at least since Panini’s times, 4<sup>th</sup> century BC. As R. Mankiewicz (2000) mentions, if Greek mathematics is based on philosophy, Indian mathematics is based on linguistics, and even more so on Panini’s and the other great Indian linguists’ work. As a conclusion, one could claim that mathematical models pouring into every field of applied sciences, including linguistics, might promote research



development, provided they are appropriately used. M. Cross & A.O. Moscardini, point out:

*"Furthermore, the motivation for modelling is that it provides a relatively cheap and rapid means of answering ill-posed questions concerning the system and the process". (Cross et al., 1985, p. 24, my underlinings)*

In this paper we propose a classification of the construction procedure and we point out some motivating examples from mathematics. Moreover, we claim that the proposed procedure does also exist in Linguistic Theory. The final implication is that some mathematical models may offer more than their creators intended to do.

## 2. Models of mathematical models

In the creation of a mathematical theory several general or specific methods, are used. However, in order to have a specific theory considered complete, one is expected to work through several stages of process, or 'steps'. Of course, all these steps should not be expected to be of equal length or of equal difficulty. In Vougiouklis et al (2000) there are suggested two general ways of development and study, applied in virtually every subject of mathematics. They are two procedures which are traced consciously or subconsciously, yet undeviatingly.

More specifically, these two procedures are as follows:

### **(I) First General Model**

We recall that for a 'complete' study in mathematics, virtually in all branches, one could identify the following steps:

- (i) The choice of the basic set of the study**
- (ii) Choice of the axioms, i.e. the basic rules of the construction**
- (iii) Construction**
- (iv) Morphisms, i.e. principal mappings transferring the structures or basic constructing elements.**
- (v) Endomorphisms, i.e. transformations and their characteristic, invariant, elements.**

### **(II) Second General Model**

Mathematicians believe that in Mathematics there are generally two inverse procedures:

- (a) the product, called Cartesian product, which is a very simple procedure and is based on the ordering of the objects, and**
- (b) the quotient, which, by contrast to the product, is a very complicated procedure and not unique.**

By following these steps in both general models, the exposition of a theory of Mathematics may be considered completed although more new constructions could be introduced and studied at every step.

The application of a certain structure as a model is an entirely different issue. Every applied science can occasionally use and -if not appropriate- reject mathematical models from every field of Mathematics; this by no means implies that the models are right or wrong but simply that they can be used or not for the specific purpose.

With present paper we propose the above models for further study within the scope of globalization of sciences as the Category Theory does. However, we persist on the step of the invariant elements because we respect all special characteristics that actually promote science and culture.



## 2.1. Language invariant as a uniform way of communication

Now let us try to elaborate on the five steps of the First General Model above:

In step (i), we have to specify the initial concepts and the set of elements to be studied. At this stage, it would be necessary to provide all possible elements to be used in every stage of application of the desired model.

In step (ii), we choose the appropriate axioms in order to build the structure, select the basic construction elements and establish the construction rules. These rules should be as limited - and appropriately selected - as possible so that they should not lead to inconsistencies, that is to say the destruction of the structure.

In the step (iii) of construction we form the structures and introduce new construction elements using proofs in every case. We test for identification of possible inconsistencies and if there are any, we return to step (ii) and redefine the axioms.

In step (iv), we define the morphisms which are the mappings transferring constructing elements from one structure to another or, more interesting, occasionally within a single structure. More specifically, by means of morphisms selected parts of a structure are transferred to another. This transferring may reveal similarities in structures which, at first sight, might have seemed to be different. In other words, at this step we study the 'motion' of structures. If we wish to explain it in terms of human senses this could be the actual transferring of a stimulus from one sense to another: For instance, *seeing* or *smelling* a rose may be 'pleasant', *feeling* or *tasting* it might prove to be rather 'unpleasant', though. Similarly, "*lemon tree's very pretty and the lemon flower's sweet but the fruit of the poor lemon is impossible to eat*". Even more so, two different realizations of the same sense may co-exist and simultaneously cancel each-other, as in the case of a jelly-fish, which is nice and smooth to *feel* but at the same time this *feeling* might cause you unbearable rash. At this step (iv), natural languages are ready to supply their users with the set of structures necessary to produce the '*Literature*' of each language.

Moreover, at this step, specific - but generally applied - mappings are investigated. An interesting example of these mappings are the *projections*, that is, any mapping  $f$  such that  $f^2 = f$ , or, in other words, if you apply twice, the result is the same as if you apply only once.

The concept of the *parameter* also appears here and plays a crucial role. Nevertheless parameters in special branches of mathematics may give a special meaning to some mappings. For example, projections may cancel some parameters in exactly the same way we 'lose' the property of height when we draw a ground-plan.

The final step (v) focuses on morphisms in the same structure such as symmetry, reduction and projection which are usually called transformations. Invariant elements stay unchanged under mappings and this is of great importance in the process of structure construction. Furthermore, the invariant elements are sub-structures of the corresponding structures. In terms of real-life experience, this could be the case of the buildings which have remained undamaged - i.e. the *invariant*- after an earthquake- the *transformation*. Or, in the case of a projection of a three-dimensional object on a plane, the invariant element is the plane itself as the property of height is actually 'lost' or cancelled.

Linguistics, as every other applied science, asks for mathematical models from every field of Mathematics. The model in quest may concern a specific language (syntax, grammar, lexis), or a model applicable to every language (universal language). Chomsky assumes that here the basic questions are principals and parameter. These two elements clearly belong to

steps (i) and (iv) respectively. Moreover, the core language is in fact the characteristic or the invariant element, so we refer to step (v).

## 2.2. Quotient as a simple mathematical model

The Cartesian product is a very simple procedure and is based on the ordering. It can be applied in several cases of objects (grammar, syntax, lexis) or on more general classes as a general model applicable to every language (universal grammar). By contrast the quotient is a very complicated procedure and not unique. With present paper we do not claim to introduce a new model but to emphasize on the fact that the two steps-Second General Model- have to be taken in order that the introduction of a new model should be considered complete.

Chomskyan Universal Grammar as a system of subtheories is actually a procedure of a product. N. Chomsky (1986) assumes that here the basic questions are the principles and parameters. Similarly, when U. Eco (1995) considers Latin and Vulgata appearing in Dante independent languages, then the pursuit of the perfect language is a Cartesian procedure.

Although it might appear to be *metalanguage*, we propose a procedure of quotient:

*“ Using a Cartesian product of subtheories, find an expanded theory; then, using a quotient, find a new theory which will actually contain the subtheories”. (Vougiouklis and Kambakis-Vougiouklis, 2000, p.490)*

The product of classes in partitions is quite widely used in the linguistic theory (see Gross, M., 1972).

Based on the respective theory form Mathematics (Vougiouklis, Th., 1995), the following are suggested:

*“...in a given structure any arbitrary partition could potentially maintain certain axioms or related weaker axioms and it is in the researcher’s hand to identify them...”. (Vougiouklis and Kambakis Vougiouklis, 2002, p.510 )*

If associativity (or commutativity) is valid, then, in a case of arbitrary partition, we obtain the so called *weak associativity* (respectively *weak commutativity*). That is to say, there are class elements which connect these classes in some kind of associativity (respectively commutativity).

Here is an example from language, actually two partitions partially arbitrary:

(a) Consider the partition each class of which contains all possible synonym words. In this partition the majority of the classes of the words are *singletons*, i.e. they consist of only one element, as the majority of the words have no synonyms. However, every partition in language is characterised by the synchronic occurrence of each item, i.e. a word may have had a synonym in the past or may have one in future, but it has not any at present.

(b) Furthermore, if we refer to an electronic lexicon, e.g. spelling-check in a computer, then the number of the elements of the majority of classes is greater because they also include all possible morphological realizations of each item such as tense, person, gender, number, case, etc (also compounds and derivatives).

An example of class- behaviour in the above partitions is the following:

*Actually thorough study offers security*

In the first partition, word classes could possibly be as follows:

<i>actually</i>	<i>thorough</i>	<i>study</i>	<i>offers</i>	<i>security</i>
<i>really</i>	<i>complete</i>	<i>research</i>	<i>gives</i>	<i>safety</i>
<i>in fact</i>	<i>detailed</i>		<i>provides</i>	
<i>as a matter of fact</i>	<i>exhaustive</i>		<i>supplies</i>	

By choosing different representatives from each class, one could obtain a number which reaches  $4 \times 4 \times 2 \times 4 \times 2 = 256$  possible combinations. Of course not all of them are

appropriate because they may be not in use or they mean something different. Yet, from a communicative point of view, they have a value as they could maintain communication, especially of the 'foreign-talk' type.

The same example becomes even more complex and complicated in (b):

<i>actually</i>	<i>thorough</i>	<i>study</i> <i>studies</i>	<i>offers</i> <i>offer</i> <i>offered</i>	<i>security</i>
<i>really</i>	<i>complete</i>	<i>research</i> <i>researches</i>	<i>gives</i> <i>give</i> <i>gave</i> <i>given</i>	<i>safety</i>
<i>in fact</i>	<i>detailed</i>		<i>provides</i> <i>provide</i> <i>provided</i>	
<i>as a matter of fact</i>	<i>exhaustive</i>		<i>supplies</i> <i>supply</i> <i>supplied</i>	

Above we have  $4 \times 4 \times 4 \times 13 \times 2 = 1664$  different possible combinations, not all of them plausible, of course.

### 3. Applications

#### (1) *Economy of space in newspapers.*

Let us suppose that we have to handle the difficult problem of economy of space in a newspaper. It is a convention that a gap at the end of a 'word' manifests the end of the specific word. This manifestation may yield the implication that we are dealing with twenty-seven rather than twenty-six letters in the English alphabet, the twenty-seventh letter being a gap or an 'empty-space'. In mathematics, 'empty space' is symbolized by '0 (zero)' which is said to have first appeared as late as mid 300 AD. Such an ingenious use of gaps virtually leads to a quotient where we have as many subsets as the number of the letters consisting the longest possible word. Consequently, if we want to economize on space we should cut the '27<sup>th</sup> letter', that is the gap at the end of each word, out. This would lead to strings of letters without gaps amongst them. This practice was quite common amongst Ancient Greeks who wrote without gaps between words maintaining in this way a better correspondence between spoken and written form, as Bauer (1988) points out. Would this ever happen, we should automatically encounter another problem: how would the end of each word be indicated? Should we possibly 'invent' a set of final letters? Yet, such a solution would be against the basic principle of economy of language. A more plausible solution would possibly be to use a set of letters which do exist, yet they are less used and only in specific conditions, that is the list of capital letters. In this case our proposal could be formed as follows:

*Abolish the empty space between words and indicate the beginning of each word using a capital letter*

That is, in terms of our proposal:

*AbolishTheEmptySpaceBetweenWordsAndIndicateTheBeginningOfEachWord  
UsingACapitalLetter*

At this point one should mention that experimentation of this kind is justified and has been quite often used in newspapers, magazines and advertisements. Another solution could

be to use different colours, the most convenient being black and gray, in turns, or any other colours provided that it would be both plausible and economic.

(2) *The partition of a written document.*

As we have already mentioned quotients are absolutely arbitrary partitions. Although this fact is hardly acceptable by the vast majority of people, its certain applications are often considered to be self-evident. Let us examine such a 'self-evident' application concerning the partition of a written document. A certain partition of a written document into sentences, paragraphs and chapters involves the author's decision, who, apparently subconsciously, creates quotients whose contents refer to separate concept units. A further creation of arbitrary quotients takes place when s/he starts typing them. Now, the automatic change of line and page are undoubtedly not only arbitrary quotients but also temporary because they are bound to change with every adjustment of the top, bottom, left and right margins, line spacing, e.g. single spaced, double spaced etc, as well as the size and type of fonts to be used. Consequently, every set of words cannot and should not be characterised according to its content. Nevertheless, we do accept this fact to such extent that we do make chapter, page and line references, that is to say we accept the arbitrary as self-evident. Besides, the arbitrary characterises all languages according to Saussure and, before him, Aristotle. To conclude with this issue we would like to point out that alphabetical indexes are based on arbitrary layout.

(3) *The compilation of school grammars.*

Another interesting case of product-quotient process in language research concerns the compilation of a school grammar. An efficient school grammar should not only contain the most commonly used and instantly recognizable types by the majority of the native speakers of that specific language, but it also should reflect the so-called educated talk and writing. Needless to say that it should not contain elements from various dialects and idiolects, as it represents the so-called grammar of the *standard* language. We all know that speakers of a language have at their disposal a number of options to make concerning almost any linguistic element including grammar, form, meaning and pronunciation. That is to say, a specific language element can be expressed in usually more than one ways by different users. In English, for example, teachers of EFL insist that the only "correct" pronunciation of <other> is [ʌ δ ə], yet NSs of English may also include variations such as [ʌ v ə], [ʊ δ ə] and [ʊ δ e r] amongst their choices.<sup>1</sup> Similarly, in Greek, the plural of the perfect tense Paratatikos is given by the official school grammar as follows: 1<sup>st</sup> person [δενό-maste], 2<sup>nd</sup> person [δενό-saste], 3<sup>rd</sup> person [δένο-ndan]. However the majority of speakers<sup>2</sup> in the north seem to prefer another form: 1<sup>st</sup> person [δενό-mastan], 2<sup>nd</sup> person [δενό-sastan]. Moreover, a widely used form for 3<sup>rd</sup> person plural in many parts of Greece is [δενό-ndousan] and [δενό-tan(e)] while speakers of standard-non idiomatic Greek- in Peloponnesus prefer [δενό-sande]. Consequently the compiler of a school grammar is faced with the construction of appropriate quotients from a number of products created by use in every case. His decision is based on many factors both within and outside the linguistic system and it takes time and hard to work to come to the appropriate quotient for each case. Furthermore, he should be prepared to receive plenty of criticism and see his quotient almost instantly expanding into products by the users of the language. A very good example of excellent work with products, is the work of the Alexandrian Dionysius of Thrace, whose work *Τέχνη Γραμματική* (*Ars Grammatica*)

<sup>1</sup> Of course, we are all aware of the fact that we need a homogeneous code in order to communicate but who can decide so easily which type is the most widely used and accepted in every instant?

<sup>2</sup> We are talking about very widely used types and not at all dialectic or idiosyncratic.

gives a concise, yet comprehensive review of contemporary (1<sup>st</sup> cent. B.C.) Greek language, only in fifteen pages and twenty five paragraphs (Robins, 1967 and 1979).

Free variation is also a case of product and quotient process, to be discussed elsewhere, as it is synonymy, too.

(4) *Rule and exception.*

We left the case of *rule and exception* last, as we would like to emphasise on it because we think that this is the most interesting application together with the compilation of a grammar in (3) above.

It has already been stated that in the first step of the First General Model we lay down the basic set of the study. This procedure can be repeatedly applied, yet to a lesser extent, during the process of the study. Consequently, it is necessary to designate a specific set each time. When the multitude of the elements is small, then we could enter every single element separately. The vowels of the English alphabet are: A, E, I, O and U (Collins, 1987) and a full description of the set is mostly and usually the case. This full description will be referred to as *the rule*, from now on. A detailed observation of the case of *the rule* in every science could lead us to the following conclusion and axiom:

*If the rule expresses the full set, it will be called an absolute rule; however, if it does not express the full set, then the issue of the exceptions emerges.*

Exceptions are usually presented as a total, without taking into account the different manifestations and special characteristics of each exception or group of exceptions. In our opinion there are more than one types of exceptions, each with their own realizations and partly or completely different from the others. We attempted a categorization of the them and we identified three different types, three different *quotients*:

(a) The first type, which will be referred to as **R+**, manifests itself when the formulation of the description of the set includes more elements which should be taken into account. For example, *the orthographic representation of the English sound [tʃ]* is always made with the cluster <ch>, except in: (i) certain French words such as ‘chalet’, ‘champagne’, ‘chandelier’, ‘chauvinism’ etc, where it is pronounced as [ʃ], and (ii) Greek words such as ‘chameleon’, ‘chaos’, ‘character’, etc, where it is pronounced as [k].

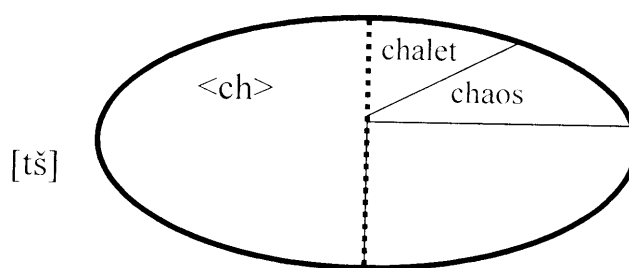


Figure 1

(b) The second type, which will be referred to as **R-**, appears when the description does not cover the full set and, consequently, there are extra elements to be added in order to cover the full range: For example, the English sound [z] is represented by the letters <z>, and under certain circumstances, the letter <s>. Moreover, it is possible to be represented by the letter <x> in initial position, usually in Greek words such as <xylophone>, <xerography> etc.

(c)



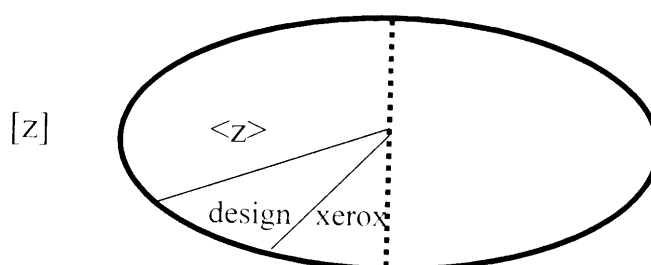


Figure 2

(d) The third type, which we will call  $R\bar{F}$ , appears whenever the formulation of the description includes more elements to be taken into account but at the same time there are extra elements to be added in order to cover the full range. For example, in *English the sound [s] in initial or/and final position* is represented by the letter <s> at the beginning, and <ss> in the final position of a word; nevertheless the letter <s> could be also pronounced [ʃ] as in the word <sure>: this is the +case in the  $R\bar{F}$  above. On the other hand, <ci> as in <cinema> and <civil>, and <ce> as in <center> and <certify> will be pronounced as [si] and [se] respectively and this is the -case in  $R\bar{F}$  above.

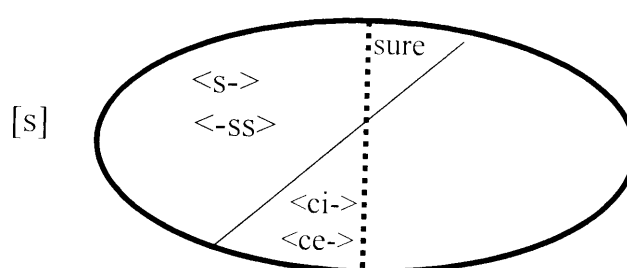


Figure 3

#### 4. Teaching implications

(a) Both of the suggested General Models could be applied wherever we have to take 'simple', short steps: the bipole product-quotient, i.e. the Second General Model, or certain steps such as the use of invariant from the First General Model because, in this way, the learners can be trained to group, to line things up and to express in a uniform way small language problems. That is to say, they will be able to recognize certain language procedures they have already subconsciously mastered, or, in other words, to be language aware.

(b) The learners should also be encouraged to master the way of discovering the above mentioned 'simple' or small models, in such a way that they would be ready any moment to extract structures or rules in order to facilitate their own learning process. Needless to say, that these structures should not necessarily be learned by heart, provided the learners know how to reach them any moment, unless, of course, the learners decide they want to memorise a specific structure. With this proposal we want to indicate that in the teaching procedure we should not provide the learners with numerous sets of prefabricated rules to be memorised – and never used. By contrast we suggest that the learners should master the actual procedure of extracting the rules themselves, when needed.

In every case these ‘simple’ and ‘small’ models put forward our point of view that even in the procedure we believe that ‘this is a wonderful world’.

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***Black Sea Synergy, stability, rule of law and the Treaty of Lisbon***

**Abstract**

*This study provides a brief overview of the aspects of the Black Sea Synergy, which are related to security, stability, endorsement of democratic principles and compliance with fundamental rights and examines how these particular areas of interest might be affected after the entry into force of the Treaty of Lisbon. Special emphasis is given on the provisions of this source of primary law, which introduce major changes in the fields of external relations and human rights protection. It is pointed out that the key innovations established by the Reform Treaty might have a positive impact on EU's relations with Black Sea Countries, as they will render the Union's external policies more coherent, visible, humanitarian and effective.*

**1. Introduction**

The Black Sea region<sup>1</sup> is a distinct geographical area rich in natural resources and strategically located at the junction of Europe, Central Asia and the Middle East. Due to the fact that this region is an expanding market with great development potential and an important hub for energy and transport flows, but at the same time an area of unresolved frozen conflicts, of many environmental problems and insufficient border controls, the European Union<sup>2</sup> has made major efforts to stimulate democratic and economic reforms, to project stability and to support development in this area through wide-ranging cooperation programmes<sup>3</sup>. More precisely, three EU policies have been put into effect in this context: the preaccession process in the case of Turkey, the European Neighborhood Policy<sup>4</sup> in the case of Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Moldova, Ukraine and the Strategic Partnership in the case of the Russian Federation<sup>5</sup>. Moreover, the EC has contributed to various sectoral initiatives of regional relevance.

In addition to these policies, the European Commission put forward in 2007 an inclusive complementary initiative, which would focus political attention at the regional level and invigorate ongoing cooperation processes. The primary task of this initiative, which is called Black Sea Synergy, is the development of cooperation

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<sup>1</sup> The Black Sea region includes Greece, Bulgaria, Romania and Moldova in the west, Ukraine and Russia in the north, Georgia, Armenia and Azerbaijan in the east and Turkey in the south. Though Armenia, Azerbaijan, Moldova and Greece are not littoral states, due to history, proximity and close ties, they are considered as natural regional actors.

<sup>2</sup> Also referred to as EU.

<sup>3</sup> See further S. Cornell at al., *The Wider Black Sea Region: An Emerging Hub in European Security*, 2006, available at : <http://www.isdp.eu/files/publications/srp/06/sc06widerblack.pdf>.

<sup>4</sup> Also referred to as ENP.

<sup>5</sup> It should be noted that Greece, Bulgaria and Romania are not covered by these policies, as they are already member states of the European Union.

within the Black Sea region and also between the region as a whole and the European Union<sup>6</sup>. This regional cooperation initiative is based on the common interests of the EU and the Black Sea region and takes into account the results of consultations with all Black Sea states<sup>7</sup>.

The main cooperation areas of the Black Sea Synergy include sectors which reflect common priorities of the cooperating parties. More precisely, the fields of cooperation, in the context of which the European Commission has formulated a number of short and medium term tasks<sup>8</sup> are: democracy, respect for human rights and good governance, managing movement and improving security, addressing "frozen conflicts", energy, transport, environment, maritime policy, fisheries, trade, research and education networks, science and technology, employment and social affairs, as well as regional development.

This article focuses on the thematic sectors which refer to democratic values, compliance to human rights standards, improvement of security and dealing with frozen conflicts, because of their particular importance. The major significance of these issues is related to the fact that political stability and observance of the rule of law are essential prerequisites for the establishment of cooperation in other fields, such as trade, economic development and environmental protection<sup>9</sup>.

The central question is the impact of the new provisions of the Treaty of Lisbon, which relate to EU external relations and human rights, on the above - mentioned areas of cooperation of the Black Sea Synergy. More precisely, it will be examined whether the recently established norms of primary EU law, regarding the more democratic character of the European Union and the enhancement of its role on the international scene, will render the implementation of the Black Sea Synergy more efficient and effective.

## 2. The implementation of the political and social aspects of the Black Sea Synergy

According to the Report of the European Commission on the first year of implementation of the Black Sea Synergy<sup>10</sup>, most of the tasks which were formulated in the 2007 Communication regarding the creation of the Synergy have started being implemented.

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<sup>6</sup> For an overview see F. Tassinari, A Synergy for Black Sea regional Cooperation: Guidelines for a European Union Initiative, Brussels, Centre for European Policy Studies, 2006, available at <http://www.ceps.eu/ceps/download/1178>.

<sup>7</sup> Communication from the Commission to the Council and the European Parliament, "Black Sea Synergy - a New Regional Cooperation Initiative", COM 2007 (160) final, adopted 11. 04. 2007.

<sup>8</sup> Op. cit. supra Chapters 3 and 4.

<sup>9</sup> See Joint Statement of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the countries of the European Union and of the wider Black Sea area of 28.2.2008, available at: [www.osce.org/item/29949.html](http://www.osce.org/item/29949.html), according to which participants agreed that "*protracted conflicts impede cooperation activities*" and *emphasized the need for their earliest peaceful settlement on the basis of the norms and principles of international law*".

<sup>10</sup> Communication from the Commission to the Council and the European Parliament, "Report on the first year of implementation of the Black Sea Synergy", COM 2008 (391) final, adopted 19. 06. 2008.

## 2.1. Democracy, respect for human rights and good governance

In particular, when it comes to democracy, respect for human rights and good governance, the principal aim of the EU was to ensure that the standards of human rights and democracy, which have been set by the Council of Europe and by the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe, are being met by all Black Sea states. The EU would have the task to support the regional organizations, which have in recent years undertaken commitments to developing effective democratic institutions, promoting good governance and the rule of law, by means of sharing experience on measures to promote and uphold human rights and democracy, providing training and exchange programmes and stimulating a regional dialogue with civil society<sup>11</sup>.

There has been an attempt to achieve this aim through the organization of a series of Black Sea Synergy civil society seminars on human rights issues, which took place in May 2008 in the Republic of Moldova. This event included recommendations to governments concerning freedom of expression<sup>12</sup> and presented standards on freedom of expression in a civil society perspective<sup>13</sup>. Participants were mainly government officials and members of civil society from the Black Sea countries.

Nevertheless, despite of the various attempts to systematize and upgrade the system of human rights protection in the Black Sea region, questions pertaining to human rights infringements, incompliance with rule of law, absence of media freedom and non - transparent economic governance have not been solved yet<sup>14</sup>. The main reason behind this problematic situation is the challenging international normative and the political environment of this geographical area, which constitute a significant constraint for the national human rights policies.

The citizens of this region, oftentimes underrepresented by governing regimes in their respective homelands, are increasingly turning away from their domestic courts and attempting to seek justice before supranational adjudicatory mechanisms. As the recent jurisprudence of the European Court of Human Rights (ECHR) reveals, Black Sea countries are often found to violate the European Convention of Human Rights<sup>15</sup>. Therefore, the respective national authorities need to improve the human

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<sup>11</sup> Op. cit supra, COM 2007 (160) final, par. 3.1.

<sup>12</sup> Op. cit supra, COM 2008 (391) final, par. 2.9.

<sup>13</sup> See further Opinion of the European Economic and Social Committee on the 'Setting up civil society organisations networks in the Black Sea region', (2009/C 27/29), OJ C 27, 3.2. 2009, p. 144.

<sup>14</sup> See further K. Liuhto, Political risk for foreign firms in the Western CIS An analysis on Belarus, Moldova, Russia and Ukraine, Pan - European Institute 18/2009, p. 87 – 88 available at:[http://www.tse.fi/FI/yksikot/erillislaitokset/pei/Documents/Julkaisut/liuhto\\_heikkila\\_laaksonen\\_1809\\_web.pdf#page=78](http://www.tse.fi/FI/yksikot/erillislaitokset/pei/Documents/Julkaisut/liuhto_heikkila_laaksonen_1809_web.pdf#page=78).

<sup>15</sup> See among other cases, Penev v. Bulgaria (application no. 20494/04), judgment of the ECHR of 7.1.2010, in the context of which the court found a violation of the right to a fair trial, because the accused had been denied the opportunity to defend himself against modified charges. Petyo Petkov v. Bulgaria (application no. 32130/03), judgment of the ECHR of 7.1.2010, in the context of which the Court found a violation of articles 3, 5 par. 1 and 3, 6 par. 2, 13 of the European Convention on Human Rights and of article 1 of Protocol n. 1 because of irregularities in the trial and detention of a man accused of a sulphuric acid attack and subsequently acquitted. Al-Agha v. Romania (application no. 40933/02), judgment of the ECHR of 12.1.2010, according to which deprivation of liberty of a foreign national pending deportation and conditions of his detention were found to breach Articles 3,

rights safeguards offered to their people, under the constant support of the European Union.

## **2.2. Improvement of border management and fight against organized cross-border crime**

Another issue of serious concern which attracted the attention of the European Union in the framework of the Black Sea Synergy was the improvement of border management and customs cooperation at regional level, given that it would increase security and help to fight organized cross-border crime, such as trafficking in human beings, arms and drugs and it would contribute to preventing and managing irregular migration. According to the European Commission successful examples, such as the EU Border Assistance Mission for Moldova and Ukraine, showed that these means could also contribute to the resolution of conflicts.

Moreover, due to the fact that important illegal migration routes run through the Black Sea region, the Commission had planned to present a Communication applying the Global Approach to Migration to eastern and south-eastern neighbors, including new initiatives on better migration managing and tackling illegal migration. Furthermore, in this context the Commission had underlined the importance of encouraging the countries in the region to develop further practical co-operation on countering cross-border crime in general, by channeling experience from other similar initiatives in South-Eastern Europe and the Baltic area. The logic behind this was that further intensified regional cooperation would enhance the performance of national law enforcement, in particular in the fight against corruption and organized crime. In order to achieve this goal Black Sea regional actors could usefully develop best practices, introduce common standards for saving and exchanging information, establish early warning systems relating to trans-national crime and develop training schemes<sup>16</sup>, based on the experience and activities of the South-East European Cooperation Initiative Regional Centre for Combating Trans-border Crime<sup>17</sup>, as well as of the Black Sea Border Coordination and Information Centre<sup>18</sup>.

According to the Commission's Report on the implementation of the Black Sea Synergy, some of the abovementioned goals were indeed fulfilled. More specifically, the European Council adopted on June 2007 Conclusions on the Global Approach to Migration, which endorsed a number of priority actions, including the

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5 par. 1, 4 and 5 of the European Convention. *Sâmbata Bihor Greek Catholic Parish v. Romania* (application no. 48107/99), judgment of the ECHR of 12.1.2010, in the context of which hindrance of a uniate church's access to court in a dispute with the orthodox church was found to constitute a violation of Article 6 § 1 and 14 of the European Convention. *Mikayil Mammadov v Azerbaijan* (application no. 4762/05), judgment of the ECHR of 17.12.2009, on the basis of which ineffective investigation into state's responsibility for suicide death constituted a violation of Article 2 of the European Convention, *Kalender v. Turkey* (application no. 4314/02), judgment of the ECHR of 15.12.2009, in the context of which the Court found a violation of Articles 2 and 6 par. 1 of the European Convention, because authorities failed to take measures to protect the lives of railway accident victims. The judgments of the ECHR are available on the website <http://www.echr.coe.int>.

<sup>16</sup> Op. cit supra, COM 2007 (160) final, par. 3.2.

<sup>17</sup> This Centre is based in Bucharest and has several Black Sea states as members or observers.

<sup>18</sup> This Centre, which is based in Burgas, provides information about illegal activities in the Black Sea region and fosters the exchange of information among coastguards.

*establishment of a Cooperation Platform on Migration in the Black Sea region.* In April 2008 the EU decided to create this platform, bringing together Member States, EU agencies, countries bordering the Black Sea and regional organizations. The aim of this platform is to provide for a focused and strengthened migration dialogue and for improving practical cooperation between Member States and the countries in the region, as well as between those countries themselves.

Moreover, the Commission is co-funding two projects against trafficking in human beings through labor market based measures and police measures respectively<sup>19</sup>.

In practice, however, the abovementioned problems are still not resolved, because as one commentator correctly points out, although "at the official level there are enough proclamations, communications, agreements on cooperation in the Black Sea region, de facto most of the projects are still on the paper or their implementation is retarded by the inability to overcome risks that exist in the area"<sup>20</sup>. Some of the problems that continue to afflict this area include transborder organized crime, illegal migration, smuggling, illicit arms trade, augmentation of terrorist attacks, threats to the safety and security of navigation, as well as drugs trafficking and trafficking in human beings. Relevant in this respect is the case of *Rantsev v. Cyprus and Russia*, in the context of which the European Court of Human Rights delivered a landmark judgment for the repression of human trafficking in a case concerning the suspicious death of a 20-year old Russian woman in Cyprus<sup>21</sup>.

### 2.3. "Frozen conflicts"

Concerning the resolution of "frozen conflicts" in the Black Sea region, the Commission had considered necessary a more active EU role through increased political involvement in ongoing efforts to address the conflicts, which took place in Transnistria, Abkhazia, South Ossetia and Nagorno-Karabakh. It had also proposed that the EU should enhance its participation and that it should promote confidence-building measures in the regions affected, including cooperation programmes specifically designed to bring the otherwise divided parties together. The European institution was of the opinion that the Black Sea Synergy could offer one means of addressing the overall climate by tackling the underlying issues of governance and lack of economic development, lack of social cohesion, of security and of stability<sup>22</sup>.

According to the European Commission, the achievements in this field are satisfactory, because this institution has continued to advocate an active EU role in addressing the underlying causes of the conflicts, in the Black Sea regional framework. Moreover, attention has been paid to promoting confidence-building

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<sup>19</sup> Op. cit supra, COM 2008 (391) final, par. 2.5.

<sup>20</sup> See H. Shelest, "*Threats to the National and European Security in the Black Sea region: Comparison of the Black Sea Synergy and Reality*", Presentation on the General Assembly of the CPMR Balkan and Black Sea Commission (BBSRC) held in Odessa, 11 June 2009, available at [www.balkansblacksea.org/.../108\\_presentation\\_hanna\\_shelest.pdf](http://www.balkansblacksea.org/.../108_presentation_hanna_shelest.pdf).

<sup>21</sup> See *Rantsev v. Cyprus and Russia* (application no. 25965/04), judgment of ECHR of 7.2010, available at: <http://www.echr.coe.int>.

<sup>22</sup> Op. cit supra, COM 2007 (160) final, par. 3.3.



measures also in wider regional context, including cooperation programmes specifically designed to bring the otherwise divided parties together<sup>23</sup>.

Nevertheless, the position of the Commission can be put into question, because, as it appears in practice the Black Sea Synergy does not seem to be effective enough for the time being. In particular, the Black Sea region still faces important threats and "frozen conflicts", which lead to an increase in the amount of the refugees and temporary displaced people in the conflicting regions<sup>24</sup>.

The existence of the aforementioned menaces in the Black Sea region proves that the EU policy in this geographic area needs to become more coherent, effective and result-oriented. This necessity for improvement might be satisfied more easily if the European institutions rely on the new provisions of the Treaty of Lisbon, which enrich the international role of the European Union, enhance human rights protection and promote democratic principles.

### 3. The Treaty of Lisbon

The Treaty of Lisbon, initially known as the Reform Treaty, was signed by the member states of the European Union (EU) on 13 December 2007, and entered into force after a long and complex ratification process<sup>25</sup>, on 1 December 2009. This Treaty implements many of the reforms included in the European Constitution<sup>26</sup> and introduces prominent changes in the structure and nature of the European Union<sup>27</sup>, as

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<sup>23</sup> Op. cit. supra, COM 2008 (391) final, par. 2.10.

<sup>24</sup> See H. Shelest, "Threats to the National and European Security in the Black Sea region: Comparison of the Black Sea Synergy and Reality", op. cit. supra., who underlines that "August events in Georgia and January 2009 gas crisis in Russian-Ukrainian relations demonstrated that the European Union was not ready to face those threats that exist in the region."

<sup>25</sup> This Treaty was originally intended to have been ratified by all member states by the end of 2008. However, this timetable failed, due to the initial rejection of the Treaty in 2008 by the Irish electorate. It finally entered into force after a positive second referendum in Ireland in 2009. See on this, M. Carbone From Paris to Dublin [on-line]: domestic politics and the Treaty of Lisbon, *Journal of Contemporary European Research* 2009, v. 5, n. 1, p. 43-60, F. Chaltiel, *Le Traité de Lisbonne peut-il entrer en vigueur ?* *Revue du Marché Commun et de l'Union européenne* 2009, n. 525, p. 77-82 and F. Chaltiel, *Le Traité de Lisbonne : de l'élaboration à la signature et la structure*, *Les Petites affiches* 2008, v. 397, n. 7, p. 5-9.

<sup>26</sup> It should be noted that negotiations to modify EU institutions began in 2001, resulting first in the European Constitution, which failed due to the failed referendums in France and Holland in 2005. After some modifications the Lisbon Treaty was proposed as an amendment of the existing Treaties. For a comparative view of the two Treaties see Organization open Europe, *The Lisbon Treaty and the European Constitution: A side-by-side comparison*, 2008, available online at: <http://www.openeurope.org.uk/research/comparative.pdf>. See also C. Reh, *The Lisbon Treaty : de-constitutionalizing the European Union*, *Journal of Common Market Studies* 2009, v. 47, n. 3, p. 625-650 and A. Berramdane, *Le traité de Lisbonne et le retour des Etats*, *La semaine juridique. Edition générale* 2008, v. 82, n. 9-10, p. 23-28, who points out that the Reform Treaty is very similar to the Constitutional Treaty in substance.

<sup>27</sup> For a discussion of the major changes brought about by the Treaty of Lisbon see F. Chaltiel, *L'Europe écrit une nouvelle page de son histoire : nouvelle Commission, nouveau traité -*

it eliminates the pillar system, alters the structure of the EU's institutions<sup>28</sup> and amends the Treaty on European Union (TEU) and the Treaty establishing the European Community (TEC), which is renamed to Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union (TFEU). The main aim of this Treaty is to reinforce the democratic principles, to promote the EU's core values and to provide the Union with the legal framework and tools necessary to meet future challenges<sup>29</sup>.

Moreover, this text of primary law brings about significant changes in the fields of energy policy<sup>30</sup>, environmental policy and climate change<sup>31</sup>, public health, civil protection, research, space, territorial cohesion, commercial policy, humanitarian aid, tourism and administrative cooperation, external relations and human rights protection. This article, however, will focus on the novel provisions of the Reform Treaty, which are related to the last two fields of action and which need to be further examined.

### 3.1. The Treaty of Lisbon and EU's external relations

In an attempt to offer greater consistency, the Lisbon Treaty adapts the EU's institutional structures into a new architecture for foreign affairs<sup>32</sup>. Under the previous legislative regime, the EU's external action was exercised by a multiplicity of actors, which tended to dilute the establishment of common and coordinated practice. The Lisbon Treaty endeavors to overcome this lack of coherence and effectiveness by reorganizing the institutional framework.

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perspectives, *Revue du Marché commun et de l'Union européenne* 2009, n. 532, p. 561-563, P. Costanzo, *Il Trattato di Lisbona (Condurre l'Europa nel XXI secolo)*, *Diritto pubblico comparato ed europeo* 2008, n. 1, p. 45-170 and B. Angel - F. Chaltiel-Terral, *Quelle Europe après le Traité de Lisbonne ?*, Bruylant, Bruxelles, 2008. See also, C. Tobler (ed.), *The Lisbon Treaty*, Europa Institute, Leiden University, Law Faculty, The Netherlands, 2008, available at <http://media.leidenuniv.nl/legacy/lisbon-treaty-summaries.pdf>.

<sup>28</sup> See J. Duch Guillot, *El Tratado de Lisboa y los cambios en la organización institucional de la Unión Europea*, *Cuadernos Europeos de Deusto* 2009, n. 40, p. 51-62 and C. Egenhofer - S. Kurpas - Louise van Schaik, *The ever-changing Union : an introduction to the history, institutions and decision-making processes of the European Union*, Brussels : Centre for European Policy Studies, 2009, available at: <http://www.ceps.eu/node/1613>.

<sup>29</sup> See A. Chilosi, *Perspectives of the ENP, and perspectives of the EU : neighbourhood, enlargement and unanimity*, *Aussenwirtschaft* 2009, v. 64, n. 3, p. 253-268 for a criticism regarding the fact that the permanence of the requirement of unanimity vote for the most important decisions, such as future enlargement, might lead to disruptive strategic behaviour in the EU.

<sup>30</sup> S. Fischer, *Energie- und Klimapolitik im Vertrag von Lissabon : Legitimationserweiterung für wachsende Herausforderungen*, *Integration* 2009, v. 32, n. 1, p. 50 – 62.

<sup>31</sup> For a critical analysis see D. Benson – A. Jordan, *A grand bargain or an "incomplete contract"? : European Union environmental policy after the Lisbon Treaty*, *European energy and environmental law review* 2008, v. 17, n. 5, p. 280-290.

<sup>32</sup> For an overview see J. L., Castro Ruano, *Las nuevas capacidades de la UE en materia de política exterior en el Tratado de Lisboa*, *Unión Europea Aranzadi* 2009, v. 35, n. 10, p. 17-24. For a critical discussion see W. Horsley, *A Treaty too far*, *The World today* 2009, v. 65, n. 10, p. 18-21.



Firstly, it inaugurates the position of a permanent President within the European Council, who is elected by qualified majority voting for a period of two and a half years - renewable once<sup>33</sup>. According to the Treaty this new post aims to improve the visibility and stability in 'the preparation and the continuity of the work of the European Council' and 'the external representation of the union on the Common Foreign Security Policy issues'<sup>34</sup>. As the creation of this position will respond to the lack of continuity in EU'S external action inherent within the six-month rotating presidency system it is possible that it will render the relations between the Black Sea states and the Union more stable.

Secondly, the new Treaty creates the position of a High Representative for Foreign Affairs and Security Policy, who will act in accordance with a Council mandate and be responsible for harmonizing and coordinating the EU's external action between the Commission and Council<sup>35</sup>. Since the High Representative will combine the roles of the former High Representative for Common Foreign and Security Policy in the Council and the Commissioner for External Relations in the Commission, he will become a significant figure with enhanced representative and participatory roles<sup>36</sup>, who might facilitate cooperation between the EU on the one hand and the Black Sea countries on the other hand.

Moreover, a new European External Action Service, composed of officials from the Council, Commission and diplomatic services of Member States, will provide back up and support to the High Representative<sup>37</sup>. Due to the complex composition of this Service EU's external affairs will be streamlined, enabling the improvement of cooperation in the context of the Black Sea Synergy as well.

This cooperation will also be facilitated, because, on the basis of the Lisbon Treaty, the European Union acquires for the first time a single legal personality<sup>38</sup>, which will enable it to become more effective on the world stage and a more visible partner for third countries and international organizations.

Additionally, progress in European Security and Defense Policy will preserve special decision-making arrangements but also pave the way towards reinforced cooperation amongst a smaller group of Member States<sup>39</sup>.

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<sup>33</sup> Article 9B par. 5 of Treaty of Lisbon.

<sup>34</sup> Article 9B par. 6 of Treaty of Lisbon.

<sup>35</sup> The High Representative is appointed by the European Council, with the agreement of the President of the Commission and the consent of the European Parliament. See article 9E par. 4 of Treaty of Lisbon.

<sup>36</sup> His activities are set out in articles 9E par. 2, 3 and 13a par. 2 of the Treaty of Lisbon. See further S. Dagand, *The impact of the Lisbon Treaty on CFSP and ESDP*, European Security Review Number 37, March 2008, available at: [http://www.isis-europe.org/pdf/2008\\_artrel\\_150\\_esr37tol-mar08.pdf](http://www.isis-europe.org/pdf/2008_artrel_150_esr37tol-mar08.pdf).

<sup>37</sup> Article 13a par. 3 of Treaty of Lisbon.

<sup>38</sup> Article 46A of Treaty of Lisbon. It should be noted however that the use of its legal personality will be restricted only to those competences that the Member States have specifically conferred to the Union. See Declaration 24 in the Lisbon Treaty, which clarifies that the Fact that the "European Union has a legal personality will not in any way authorize the Union to legislate or to act beyond the competences conferred upon it by the Member States in the Treaty".

<sup>39</sup> For an overview see G. Combarieu, *Aspects sécurité et défense du Traité modificatif de Lisbonne*, *Défense nationale et sécurité collective* 2008, v. 64, n. 3, p. 69-77. See also F. Chaltiel, *Le Traité de Lisbonne : la politique étrangère et de défense*, *Les Petites affiches* 2008, v. 397, n. 83, p. 3-13 and S.

Thus, the Treaty of Lisbon provides the European Union with new external policy tools, which might contribute to the promotion of European principles and values worldwide<sup>40</sup>, while respecting the particular interests of the cooperating States and partners, including the members of the Black Sea Synergy<sup>41</sup>. This tendency is also reflected in article 2 par. 5 of the Treaty of Lisbon, which stipulates that *"in its relations with the wider world, the Union shall uphold and promote its values and interests and contribute to the protection of its citizens. It shall contribute to peace, security, the sustainable development of the Earth, solidarity and mutual respect among people, free and fair trade, eradication of poverty and the protection of human rights, in particular the rights of the child, as well as to the strict observance and the development of international law, including respect for the principles of the United Nations Charter"*. The practical application of this article in the context of the Black Sea Synergy is considered essential, because it might guarantee the reestablishment of stability and security and ensure compliance with human rights in this sensitive region.

Another provision which could lead to the same results is Article 7a of the Lisbon Treaty, which prescribes that *"the Union shall develop a special relationship with neighboring countries, aiming to establish an area of prosperity and good neighborliness, founded on the values of the Union and characterized by close and peaceful relations based on cooperation"* and specifies that for these purposes *"the Union may conclude specific agreements with the countries concerned. These agreements may contain reciprocal rights and obligations as well as the possibility of undertaking activities jointly. Their implementation shall be the subject of periodic consultation"*.

Of particular importance is also article 10 A of the Lisbon Treaty, which states that *"the Union's action on the international scene shall be guided by the principles that have inspired its own creation, development and enlargement and which it seeks to advance in the wider world: democracy, the rule of law, the universality and indivisibility of human rights and fundamental freedoms, respect for human dignity, the principles of equality and solidarity, and respect for the principles of the United Nations Charter and international law"*. Moreover, par. 2 of this article underlines that *"the Union shall define and pursue common policies and actions, and shall work for a high degree of cooperation in all fields of international relations, in order to: (a) safeguard its values, fundamental interests, security, independence and integrity (b) consolidate and support democracy, the rule of law, human rights and the principles of international law (c) preserve peace, prevent conflicts and strengthen international security, in accordance with the purposes and principles of*

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Biscop, Permanent structured cooperation and the future of the ESDP : transformation and integration, European Foreign Affairs Review 2008, v. 13, n. 4, p. 431-448.

<sup>40</sup> See P. Koutrakos, Primary law and policy in EU external relations : moving away from the big picture, European Law Review 2008, v. 33, n. 5, October, p. 666-686, who has been critical of this view. For a discussion about the impact on the European Neighborhood Policy in particular see K. Y. Nikolov (ed.), The European Neighbourhood Policy : time to deliver, Bulgarian European Community Studies Association (BECSA) ; in co-operation with Trans-European Policy Studies Association (TEPSA), Brussels, 2008.

<sup>41</sup> See at the website of the European Union: [http://europa.eu/lisbon\\_treaty/glance/index\\_en.htm](http://europa.eu/lisbon_treaty/glance/index_en.htm).

*the United Nations Charter, with the principles of the Helsinki Final Act and with the aims of the Charter of Paris, including those relating to external borders (d) foster the sustainable economic, social and environmental development of developing countries, with the primary aim of eradicating poverty (e) encourage the integration of all countries into the world economy, including through the progressive abolition of restrictions on international trade (f) help develop international measures to preserve and improve the quality of the environment and the sustainable management of global natural resources, in order to ensure sustainable development (g) assist populations, countries and regions confronting natural or man-made disasters and (h) promote an international system based on stronger multilateral cooperation and good global governance".*

In order to fulfill the aforementioned objectives in the context of the Black Sea Synergy, the European Union will be obliged to intensify its cooperation with this regional scheme. More precisely, it will have to increase the level of political and financial support offered to the countries of the Black Sea region and to specify further the allocation and the distribution of the resources. The enhancement of the tools and mechanisms of cooperation is deemed necessary, in order to comply with the new requirements which apply to EU's external relations according to the Treaty of Lisbon.

### **3.2. The Treaty of Lisbon, human rights and democratic values**

Additional key innovations which are established by the Treaty of Lisbon and which might affect the external relations of the EU with the Black Sea Synergy can be found in the field of human rights. More precisely, article 1a of the new Treaty specifies that *"the Union is founded on the values<sup>42</sup> of respect for human dignity, freedom, democracy, equality, the rule of law and respect for human rights, including the rights of persons belonging to minorities. These values are common to the Member States in a society in which pluralism, nondiscrimination, tolerance, justice, solidarity and equality between women and men prevail".*

Moreover, the new Treaty confers the Union an extended capacity to act on freedom, security and justice<sup>43</sup>, which brings direct benefits in terms of the Union's ability to fight crime and terrorism<sup>44</sup> and to cooperate with international organizations or regional schemes, like the Black Sea Synergy, in this field.

Another important provision of the new Treaty which might eliminate the critical discussion about the level of human right protection within the European Union<sup>45</sup> is article 6 of the Treaty of Lisbon. According to par. 1 of this provision the

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<sup>42</sup> For a critical discussion of the abstract meaning of these values see P. Leino – R. Petrov, Between 'Common Values' and Competing Universals—The Promotion of the EU's Common Values through the European Neighbourhood Policy, *European Law Journal* 2009, v. 15, n. 5, p. 654 – 671.

<sup>43</sup> See article 2 of the Treaty of Lisbon.

<sup>44</sup> For a profound analysis of the development of European level efforts at crime control see E. Baker – C. Harding, From past imperfect to future perfect? : A longitudinal study of the Third Pillar, *European Law Review* 2009, v. 34, n. 1, p. 25-54.

<sup>45</sup> See indicatively A. Albi, Ironies in human rights protection in the EU: Pre – Accession conditionality and post – accession conundrums, *European Law Journal* 2009, v. 15, n. 1, p. 46 – 69, W. Sadurski, Accession's democracy dividend: The impact of EU enlargement upon democracy in the new

Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union acquires the *same legal value as the Treaties and all the rights, freedoms and principles which are set out in this legal text are recognized by the Union.*

Furthermore, the Reform Treaty reinforces the system of human right protection by providing that *"the Union shall accede to the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms"* and by recognizing that *"fundamental rights, as guaranteed by the European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms and as they result from the constitutional traditions common to the Member States, shall constitute general principles of the Union's law"*<sup>46</sup>.

The democratic principles of the new Treaty are also echoed in Article 8, which states that *"in all its activities, the Union shall observe the principle of the equality of its citizens, who shall receive equal attention from its institutions, bodies, offices and agencies"* and in Article 8 A, which stipulates that *"the functioning of the Union shall be founded on representative democracy"*.

On the basis of the aforementioned articles, the democratic values, principles<sup>47</sup> and objectives on which the Union is built will be reinforced and the human rights protection system will be enhanced. Thus, it is possible that this new multilevel system of guarantees might result in the minimization or even elimination of human rights infringements both within the European Union and within the European legal order, which encompasses the Black Sea region.

#### 4. Conclusions

The approach presented above leads to several conclusions regarding the impact of the Treaty of Lisbon on the Black Sea region.

First of all, it demonstrates that the strategic position of this geographical area is of particular importance for the EU, which endeavors to serve its interests in this field through the cooperation mechanism of the Black Sea Synergy. Apart from the provisions of economic and commercial nature, this Synergy contains essential provisions of political and social character, such as the task of restoring peace, stability and security in this region and of ensuring the effective protection of human rights and democratic principles. Nevertheless, the continuous presence of conflicts,

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member states of Central and Eastern Europe, European Law Journal, 2004, v. 10, n. 4, p. 371 – 401, A. Berramdane, Considérations sur les perspectives de protection des droits fondamentaux dans l'Union européenne, Revue du Droit de l'Union européenne 2009, n. 3, p. 441-459 and J. Barcz et. al., Fundamental rights protection in the European Union, Warszawa, Wydawnictwo, C. H. Beck, 2009.

<sup>46</sup> See also Protocol No 8 is annexed to the Treaties relating to Art. 6(2) TEU on the accession of the Union to the ECHR, OJ 2007 C 306/155.

<sup>47</sup> See U. Draetta, The democratic principles of the European Union in the Treaty of Lisbon, The Federalist : a political review 2008, v. 50, n. 2, p. 110-125. See also L. S. Rossi, How fundamental are fundamental principles? : Primacy and fundamental rights after Lisbon, Yearbook of European Law 2009, v. 27, p. 65-87 and C. Hilson, Rights and principles in EU law : a distinction without foundation? Maastricht journal of European and Comparative Law 2008, v. 15, n. 2, p. 193-215.

tensions and human rights violations in this area proves that this instrument of regional cooperation has not been effective enough in practice.

As mentioned above, however, the deficits and discrepancies of the political aspects of the Black Sea Synergy might be overcome, after the entry into force of the Treaty of Lisbon. The institutional changes introduced by the new Treaty in the domain of external relations, may render cooperation between the Union and international organizations and schemes, including the Black Sea Synergy, more efficient and transparent, as they provide for a more coherent EU external action.

A dynamic response to the current deficits can also be given on the basis of the new provisions of the Reform Treaty, which relate to the protection of human rights and which provide the Union with the mandate to root its foreign policy in positive values. In other words, the new provisions of primary law which recognize the binding force of the Charter of Fundamental Rights and grant the legal basis for the accession of the European Union to the European Convention of Human Rights guarantee that the EU's external policy will be driven by a desire to ensure peace, stability, solidarity and rule of law. Moreover, the clear reference of this Treaty to the democratic principles and values of the EU ensures that these shared values will continue to shape EU's cooperation both within and beyond its borders<sup>48</sup>.

In light of the arguments presented above, it can be shown that the new Treaty holds enormous potential for a more coherent Union in the international stage, but the realization of this scope depends also on the willingness of its member states and institutions to promote the endorsement of a humanitarian external policy. The novel changes of the Lisbon Treaty regarding EU's general principles and objectives, competences, institutions and policy procedures may have a significant bearing on future relations with third parties and with the Black Sea Synergy in particular, only if they are properly interpreted and applied. Therefore, it rests upon the European Institutions to make proper use of the innovative rules of the Lisbon Treaty, with the aim of bringing significant positive developments in the quality of governance within the different countries of the Black Sea region, thus contributing to the overall prosperity, stability and security in the area.

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<sup>48</sup> See Eurostep Briefing N. 43, The Lisbon Treaty's provisions on external relations: Institutional reforms and the place for development, October 2009 available at: <http://www.eurostep.org/wcm/dmdocuments/BP%2043%20EAS.pdf>



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***Turkification of the toponyms in the Ottoman Empire and the Republic of Turkey\****

**Abstrac**

Toponyms represent persistent linguistic facts, which have major historical and political significance. The rulers of the Ottoman Empire and the Republic of Turkey realized the strategic importance of the toponyms and carried out consistent policies towards their distortion and appropriation. Aiming to assimilate the toponyms of the newly conquered territories, the Ottoman authorities translated them into Turkish from their original languages or transformed the local dialectal place names by the principle of contamination to make them sound like Turkish word forms. Other methods of appropriation included the etymological misinterpretation and renaming and displacing the former toponyms altogether. The focus of the present article is the place name transformation policies of the Ottoman Empire and its successor, the Republic of Turkey. The decree by the Minister of War Enver Pasha issued on January 5, 1916 with the orders to totally change the “non-Muslim” place names is for the first time presented in English, Armenian and Russian translations. The article also deals with the artificially created term of “Eastern Anatolia” as a substitute for Western Armenia, the political objectives of the pro-Turkish circles as well as the consequences of putting the mentioned ersatz term into circulation.

**Keywords:** Toponyms, Ottoman Empire, Republic of Turkey.

In August 2009, during his visit to Bitlis, a formerly Armenian city in the Eastern part of what is now Turkey, Turkish President Abdullah Gul said publicly that the original name of the present-day Gyouroymak province was “Norshin”, which, he claimed, was in Kurdish<sup>1</sup> statement should not be considered as a slip of the tongue; it represents traditional Turkish policies of Turkification and Kurdification of original Armenian toponyms. Norshin is purely an Armenian toponym both by its components “Nor”+”shen”, which mean “a new settlement”, and its pattern to form place names. All toponyms (villages, settlements, residential areas, etc.) with the component “shen” are indisputably Armenian as Martunashen, Vasakashen, Getashen, Vankshen, Hamshen, Verishen and the like.

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\* This is an updated version of L. Sahakyan’s article, which was first published by the ARARAT Center for Strategic Research in Armenian and Russian, respectively on September 18, 2009 (<http://blog.ararat-center.org/?p=284>) and November 19, 2009 (<http://blog.ararat-center.org/?p=331>).

<sup>1</sup> Kadir Konuksever, “Kürt açılımı ve Kürt isimleri”, *BBC Türkçe*, 12 Ağustos, 2009 ([www.bbc.co.uk/turkce/haberler/2009/08/090812\\_kurdish\\_names.shtml](http://www.bbc.co.uk/turkce/haberler/2009/08/090812_kurdish_names.shtml)).

It should be noted that, besides being linguistically stable phenomena, toponyms are valuable also as bearers of historical information. As such, they can have an effect on current ethno-political conflicts, if applied with the aim of distorting and manipulating the historical evidence. This truly strategic significance of the toponyms has not gone unnoticed: the ruling circles of the Ottoman Empire and those of its successor state, the Republic of Turkey, as once again confirmed by the recent reports in the BBC and the Turkish media<sup>2</sup>, have devised and implemented consistent policies to falsify the origins and appropriate, through various ways and methods, the Armenian toponyms in the territory under their control.

The Turkish tribes who settled in various parts of Armenia in the 11-15<sup>th</sup> centuries and later the Ottoman authorities were changing original Armenian place names in several ways. First, they were translating their meanings into Turkish such as Tantsout (*place with a lot of pear-trees*) into Armoudlou, Aghbyurashen (*a village of springs*) into Kyankendi, Karmrik (based on the word *karmir*, meaning “red” in Armenian) into Kezelja, Tsaghkadsor (*a ravine of flowers*) into Darachichek, etc.

Second, some Armenian toponyms, which had already been transformed somewhat from their original shape under the influence of local dialects, were converted to sound like a word with Turkic roots and pronunciation, thus utilizing the principle of contamination. Thus, Armtick (meaning *roots* in Armenian) was turned to Armoudi, Odzounkhach (*a cross+snake*) to Ouzounhach, Kyourpaghat (a title which goes back to Latin “curator palatii,” which was given to especially Armenian governors by the Byzantine Emperors) to Gyurbaghdi, Karhatavan (settlement where stone in cut) to Karadivan, Jeghopourkents (*place with a lot of walnut-trees*) to Chopurgentz<sup>3</sup>, etc.

Third, a widely spread method of distortion was to give new names to old settlements in an attempt to bury their ethnic affiliation in oblivion<sup>4</sup>. Even Christian Armenian sanctuaries were given new names. Thus, the famous Armenian monastery Varagavank was renamed Yedikiliseh (meaning *seven churches* in Turkish), while the Holy Echmiadzin, the center of Armenian Church, where the Supreme Armenian Catholicos resided, was turned into Ouchkiliseh (*three churches*). According to our estimates, several dozens of settlements have been named by the word “kiliseh” or “Gharakiliseh” (*black church*) in both Western and Eastern Armenia.

Fourth, the attempts to give Turkish etymological explanations to the Armenian toponyms represented yet another method of Turkish appropriation campaign. Such faulty experiments were carried out, in particular, by Evliya Celebi, the Ottoman court historian of the 17th century, whose interpretations have often served as basis for modern

<sup>2</sup> Muradoğlu A., Ahi Mesut ve Norşin., Yeni şafak, 11.08.2009. Enver Alper Güvelin, Norşin: Psikolojik eşğin aşılması, Yeni şafak, 16.08.2009.

<sup>3</sup> For more details refer to L. Sahakyan's *The Toponyms and Demography of Bardzr Hayk Provinces of Baberd, Sper and Derjan in the 16<sup>th</sup> century Ottoman Register Books* [Bardzr Hayki Baberd, Sper, Derjan gavarneri teghanunnern u zhoghovrdagrutyune XVI dari osmanyany ashkharhagir matyannerum] published by “Lousakn” Publishers, Yerevan, 2007, pp. 235-237, 250, 251, 259, 261.

<sup>4</sup> Sahakyan L., *Toponyms and Demography*, op. cit., pp. 83-84.



Turkish scholars. Here is an example. In his Book of Travels (Seyahatname), the old Armenian place name Bayberd or Baberd (which through dialectal and foreign lexical influences has undergone sound changes and consequently was pronounced as Baybourd) is etymologically explained as “bay” (meaning rich in Turkish) + “yourd” (settlement in Turkish)<sup>5</sup>. In fact, this name includes two ancient Armenian components Bay + berd, which respectively mean a den or an impregnable shelter and a stronghold or a fortress. As an ancient fortress, Baberd was mentioned by Movses Khorenatsi as early as in the 5th century<sup>6</sup>. Place names with the ending “berd” have been scattered throughout all Armenia, as Tsamakaberd, Amberd, Vzhnaberd, Kharberd, Baghaberd, etc.<sup>7</sup>

Evliya Celebi went further to “reveal” that the original Armenian river name of Jorokh is a distorted form of the Turkish Joui-rouh, which according to him means “the river of the soul”<sup>8</sup>. In fact, the name “Jorokh” originates from the Armenian verb “tsorel”-“tsorogh” (flowing) in which the initial “ts” has been transformed to “j” through sound interchange, a phenomenon peculiar to the Armenian language, as in “tsanatsel > janachel”, and “tskhni > jkhni”<sup>9</sup>. Evliya Celebi links to the Persians the name of the town Zarishat<sup>10</sup>, which was actually built by the Armenian royal dynasty of the Orontids (570 BC - 200 BC). He derives the town name of “Akn” from the name of a Byzantine princess “Egin”<sup>11</sup>; however, “Akn” is a purely Armenian word meaning “eye”, “spring” or “pit”<sup>12</sup>. In the place name of “Pertek”, which is a dialectal deformation of the original “Berdak” (a small fortress), Celebi tries to find the Mongolian equivalent for the word “eagle”<sup>13</sup>.

It is irrefutable that all the above-mentioned toponyms and others in Armenia have been recorded in historical sources far too earlier than any Turkic or Kurdish elements appeared on the Armenian Highland, which they gradually did only from the 11th century onwards.

The “corrections” introduced by Celebi were by no means innocent etymological verbiages, but pursued the far-reaching goals of Ottomanizing the newly occupied territories. Evliya Celebi was a state official, who also participated in Ottoman

<sup>5</sup> Celebi, Evliya: *Foreign Sources about Armenia and Armenians*, vol. 4, Turkish Sources, vol. 3, [*Otar akhbyurnere Hayastani yev hayeri masin*, h. 4, *Turkakan aghbyurner, Evliya Celebi*] translated into Armenian from the original with a foreword and commentaries by A.Kh. Safrastyan, published by the Arm SSR. Academy of Sciences, 1967, p. 127.

<sup>6</sup> Movses Khorenatsi, *The History of Armenia [Hayots patmutyun]*, Yerevan, 1999, p. 104.

<sup>7</sup> For a detailed etimological analysis of Baberd, see L. Sahakyan’ s above mentioned monograph, pp.130-131.

<sup>8</sup> Celebi, Evliya: *Foreign Sources...* [*Otar aghbyurnere...*], vol. 4, p. 127.

<sup>9</sup> Ajaryan, H.: *Armenian Etymological Dictionary [Hayeren armatakan bararan]*, vol. 2, Yerevan, 1973, p. 469. See also *New Wordbook of the Haykazyan Language [Nor bargirk haykazean lezvi]*, vol. 1, Yerevan, 1981, State University Publ. House, p. 1026.

<sup>10</sup> Celebi, Evliya: *Foreign Sources...* [*Otar akhbyurnere*], vol. 3, p. 120.

<sup>11</sup> Ibid, p.155.

<sup>12</sup> Ajaryan, H. *Armenian Etymological Dictionary [Hayeren armatakan bararan]*, vol. 1, Yerevan, 1971, State University Publ. House. 106-108.

<sup>13</sup> Celebi, Evliya: *Foreign Sources ...[Otar akhbyurnere ...]*, vol. 4, p. 157.

expansionist invasions. Thus, his etimological explanations had clear geopolitical motives.

Around the middle of the 19th century Turkish authorities decided not only to distort or change the names of Armenian provinces, regions and villages, but also to eliminate altogether the name Armenia. This policy was pursued especially after the Russo-Turkish war of 1877-1878, when the Armenian Question was included into the agenda of international diplomacy and European powers started exploiting it to derive various concessions from Turkey.

The government of Sultan Abdul Hamid II substituted the name Armenia with such terms as Kurdistan or Anatolia, fallaciously. Starting from 1880 the name Armenia was forbidden to be used in official documents<sup>14</sup>. The Sublime Porte thus wanted to make everyone believe that the Armenian Question did not exist: if there was no Armenia, then there was no Armenian Question.

The historians are familiar with the plan of solving the Armenian Question with the assistance of England put forward by Kyamil Pasha, the pro-British Ottoman Grand Vizier and Commander-in-chief during the reign of the Sultan Abdul Hamid II:

“If in Europe we have warmed a serpent (i.e. the Balkan peoples - L.S.) in our bosom, we should not do the same in Asian Turkey. Common sense tells us to do away with all these elements that can pose the same threats to us in the future and become the cause and a tool of foreign interference. Now, today, at least Britain’s interests demand that our territories in Asia Minor be safe from foreign meddling and all sources that may give others a pretext to meddle in our affairs. *We, as well as the British not only do not recognize the word “Armenia”, but we must smash to smithereens all jaws which dare to pronounce that word.* To reach our sacred goal it is therefore imperative and the state law demands [from us] to make any suspicious elements unfit, sweep forever from the face of the earth this Armenian nation, to annihilate them recklessly and for good” (the emphasis is mine - L.S.)<sup>15</sup>.

By deliberately distorting them, the Ottoman authorities were ascribing Armenian and Greek place names to a Turkish or Kurdish origin. At that stage, the Kurdish ethnic factor was used by the Ottoman rulers, for the Kurds were not yet viewed as a threat to the Ottoman Empire. Taking advantage of their religious fanaticism, in the 1890s Sultan Abdul Hamid, who was also known as “the father of the Kurds” (Bavê Kurda)<sup>16</sup>, organized the Armenian massacres through the Hamidiye regiments formed by Kurdish brigands and the regular Turkish army soldiers.

During Abdul Hamid’s reign all Turkish and Kurdish resettlements were given new names, which were the names of nomadic tribes or various Ottoman sultans such as

<sup>14</sup> *Modern History of Armenia in the Works of Foreign Authors* [Novaya istoriya Armenii v trudax sovremennix zarubezhnix avtorov], edited by R. Sahakyan, Yerevan, 1993, p. 15 (in Russian).

<sup>15</sup> Tserents, “National Survey: The Ottoman Monarchy, Turkish Armenians and Russian Armenians” [“Azgayin tesutyun, Osmanyanyan Inknakalutyun, tachkahayk yev rusahayk”], *Pordz, Tpkhis*, 1897, N VII-VIII, pp. 204-205. *Modern History of Armenia in the Works of Foreign Authors*, p.17 (in Russian).

<sup>16</sup> Frat N., “Vulpes Vulpes Kurdistanica,” *Günlük*, 17.8.2009, ([www.gunlukgazetesi.com](http://www.gunlukgazetesi.com)).

Hamidiye, Reshidiye, Aziziye, Mahmoudiye, etc. This policy became especially manifest during the reign of the Young Turks in 1908-1918.

The government of Young Turks also attached great importance to the changing of “non-Muslim” place names. They replaced many toponyms, some named after the Ottoman Sultans, with their own names such as Enveriye, Shevketiye, Mahmoutshevket-Pasha and the like<sup>17</sup>. The “Resolution About the Resettlement of Refugees” (“İskân-I Muhacirin Nizamnamesi”), a document adopted on May 13, 1913<sup>18</sup>, served the specific Young Turk policy of total Turkification. The next step was made by Enver Pasha, the Young Turks’ Minister of War, on January 5, 1916<sup>19</sup>.

Enver Pasha’s decree sent to the Turkish military-political authorities demanded that all place names of Armenian, Greek, Bulgarian and other non-Muslim origins in the Ottoman Empire be transformed into Turkish ones<sup>20</sup>. Below is the translation of his Decree (**Emirname**):

### DECREE

1. *It is important to change into Turkish all names of provinces, regions, villages, mountains and rivers belonging to Armenian, Greek, Bulgarian and other non-Muslim peoples. Making use swiftly of this favorable moment, we beseech your help in carrying out this order.*
2. *Cooperating with military commanders and administrative personnel within the boundaries of your jurisdiction, respective lists of name changes should be formed of provinces, regions, villages, etc. and be forwarded to military headquarters as soon as possible. After being studied and approved, these lists of proposed changes should be sent to the Ministry of the Interior and the Communications Ministry for generalization and implementation.*
3. *It is imperative that the new names reflect the history of our hard-working, exemplary and praise - worthy military. The glorified events of our present and past war experiences should, by all means, be mentioned. In case this is not possible, names of those who had highly moral principles and who have fallen rendering invaluable services to their country should be remembered; or names should be found that are appropriate to the given area’s specific crop, product, trade or geographical situation.*

<sup>17</sup> Frat N., Ibid.

<sup>18</sup> Ayşe Hür, “Tez zamanda yer isimleri değiştirile,” *Taraf*, 01.03.2009.

<sup>19</sup> Modern Turkish historian Aishe Hyur, by the way, writes that the measures taken to systematically change non-Turkish names were sped up during World War I (“Bin Yerin İsmi Değişti, Hangi İsim Hangi Dile ait?”

[www.kenthaber.com/Haber/Genel/Dosya/gundem/28-bin-yerin-ismi-değişti](http://www.kenthaber.com/Haber/Genel/Dosya/gundem/28-bin-yerin-ismi-degiшти)).

<sup>20</sup> Başbakanlık Osmanlı Arşivi, Dâhiliye Nezâreti, İUM, nr. 48/17, lef: 2. M. Şükrü Hanioglu, Enver Paşa, DİA, XI, İstanbul, 1995, ss. 261-264. A. Yüksel, *Doğu Karadeniz Araştırmaları*, İstanbul, 2005, ss. 21-22.

*Last but not least, teachers at schools in different parts of our Fatherland should find appropriate topics to teach about the given territory's glorious history, climate, crop, trade and culture. It should be borne in mind that any sudden change of a conventional name into an inconvenient or improper one may bring about the continuation of using the old name by the population. Therefore, new names should be chosen taking all this into consideration. In case such principles cannot be observed, then Ereghli, for example, should be turned into Erikli or Erakli, Gallipoli into Veliboli in order to maintain the roots of old names.*

*Enver, Deputy Commander-in-Chief,  
23 Kanun-i Evvel, 1331 [=5 January 1916]*

Inspired by Enver's decree, the prominent military officer Huseyin Avni (Alparslan) Bey, the author of several articles about the Turkish language and culture, wrote: "If we want to be the owner of our country, then we should turn even the name of the smallest village into Turkish and not leave its Armenian, Greek or Arabic variants. Only in this way can we paint our country with its colors."<sup>21</sup>

As we see, he even goes a step further than his minister by suggesting that Arabic place names also undergo changes. Enver Pasha's decree mentioned only "Armenian, Greek, Bulgarian and other non-Muslim peoples". This testifies to the fact that during the Ottoman period, when the Sultan was considered the spiritual head (Caliph) of all Muslims, the Arabic and Kurdish toponyms were not yet regarded as threatening to the authorities. However, it should be remembered that the overwhelming majority of the names of places where the Kurds moved in Western Armenia were Armenian in origin with, at times, some aspects of local dialectal or foreign linguistic influences. After the Armenian Genocide, these toponyms have been attributed to Kurds.

During the war, the Armenian, Greek, Bulgarian and Aramaic toponyms were the first to be turned into Turkish<sup>22</sup>. A few examples will suffice to illustrate this process: in Bursa, the Antranos caza was turned into Orhanelli, Mikhalich was renamed Karajabey, the village Dimitri into Touran, the Rum village in Chorum into Yeni (new) Chamlejay; in Hamshen, the Armenian toponyms of Yeghnahovit (Elevit) was turned into Yaylakyolu, Vardanots into Gyullyu, Hamshen-i Sufla into Srakoy, Metsahor into Kaptanpasha<sup>23</sup>, etc.; in Baberd, Aryutska (from the Armenian aryuts=lion) was renamed Gyokpnar, Ashotka into Gyujenjirdere, Balahor into Akshar, Tandzut into Bughdayli, Ishkhandzor into Devtash<sup>24</sup>. Numerous examples could be added to this

<sup>21</sup> Tirebolulu H. [Huseyin Avni] Alparslan, *Trabzon İli Lâz mı? Türk mü?*, Giresun, 1339. s. 17.

<sup>22</sup> "Aramaic Toponyms in Turkey - A Demand of the Aramaean Diaspora", Open Letter to Mr. Beşir Atalay, Interior Minister of Turkey, made public by J. Messo, President of the Syriac Universal Alliance, Stockholm, 18 May, 2009,

<http://www.americanchronicle.com/articles/view/103515>; "The Turkification of Cyprus and the Oring of History," [www.kypros.org/CyprusPanel/cyprus/Cproblem.html](http://www.kypros.org/CyprusPanel/cyprus/Cproblem.html).

<sup>23</sup> Hoşoğlu K., "Köylerin Eski İsimleri", Eski İsimler Hakkında bilgiler, Rize Halk Eğitim Yayınları, 2001.

<sup>24</sup> Sahakyan L., *Toponyms and Demography*, op. cit., pp. 136-272.

list. But a few months later, on June 15, 1916 the Ottoman Military Headquarters disapproved of these changes, arguing that on the new maps these new names were causing confusion in military correspondence<sup>25</sup>.

Having been deprived of its original population, Western Armenia continues to lose, along with many other historical and cultural values, its centuries-old Armenian place names. They are being declared as Kurdish or Turkish. Haroun Tuncel, a Turkish historian, has admitted that “One cannot find in Turkey a scientific work that would deal with the origins of ancient toponyms for the simple reason that the person undertaking such an arduous task should be knowledgeable of the local dialects of several languages, including Persian, Arabic, Armenian, Zaza, Kourmanji, Assyrian-Aramaic, Sumerian and Akkadian... for any name considered Kurdish may well be either Sumerian, Akkadian or Turkish and any name considered Turkish may be either Arabic, Armenian or Akkadian in its origin”<sup>26</sup>.

In an article, titled “28,000 toponyms were changed. Nobody knows which one comes from which language”<sup>27</sup>, Ş. Türker has included among Kurdish names such indisputably Armenian toponyms as Van, Antep (Aintap)<sup>28</sup>, Kharpet (Kharberd), Erzingan (Erzinjan<Erznka), Chermig (Jermuk), Kaghzman (Kaghzvan), Dersim, Tekor, Gerchanis (Kerchanitz, Kirchanitz), Palin (Balu), Jolemerk (Joulamerk), Gogsin (Koksi), Kers (Kars), Poulour (Blour), Pertak (Bertak), Gheghi (Keghi), Chermen (Jerme), Qop (Kop), Chemishgezek (Chemeshkatsag), Terjan (Derjan), Kemah (Kamakh), Ispir (Sper), Zaroushat (Zarishat), Artemetan (Artamed), Erdish (Arjesh), Zedkan (Zatkan), Tatos, Egin (Akn), Toukh, Keban (Kapan), Siverek (Sev Averak), Jirmik (Jermik), Sert (Sghert), Erkhvan-Argouvan (Argavan), and even Erzeroum (Erzroum< Erzen-el-Rum<Artsen-el roum), Kilis (which is a distorted version of the word “Yekeghetsi”, meaning Church), etc.<sup>29</sup> It remains a mystery why and how the Muslim Kurds came to name their settlements Church (Kilis)?

The process of “nationalization” of toponyms was continued by the Kemalists, who were the ideological successors of the Young Turks. It gained momentum during the Republican period. Starting from 1923 the entire territory of Western Armenia was officially renamed “Eastern Anatolia”<sup>30</sup>. After the Kurdish rebellions in 1925, 1927 and 1936 in eastern part of the Republic of Turkey, the Turkish authorities started renaming the Kurdish and Zaza settlements as well. As early as 1935, the Interior Minister Shukru Kayan put forward a draft resolution to rename Dersim into Tunceli. It is worth noticing that in February 2009 Sharafettin Halis, a deputy in the Turkish Parliament from the Democratic Society Party (DTP), proposed that Tunceli be granted its former name of

<sup>25</sup> Aktar A, “Yer isimlerini Türkleştirme...”, *Taraf*, 23 Ekim, 2009.

<sup>26</sup> Türker Ş., “28 bin yerin ismi değişti, Hangi ismin hangi dile ait olduğu bilinmiyor!”, *Vatan*, 16.08.2009, [www.esoyl.com/2009/08/30/28-bin-yerin-ismi-degisti](http://www.esoyl.com/2009/08/30/28-bin-yerin-ismi-degisti).

<sup>27</sup> Türker Ş., *op. cit.*

<sup>28</sup> The original toponyms are given in parentheses.

<sup>29</sup> Türker Ş., *op. cit.*

<sup>30</sup> *Soviet Armenian Encyclopedia*, vol. 1, [Haykakan sovetakan hanragitaran], Yerevan, 1974, p. 373. Also *A Concise Armenian Encyclopedia*, vol. 1, [Haykakan hamarot hanragitaran], Yerevan, 1990, pp. 192-193.



Dersim; he argued that people cannot forget this name as it has become sacred for them and was used both in their daily lives and in their songs, tales and novels. The proposal was, however, labeled a “manifestation of separatism” by the Turkish Minister of Justice<sup>31</sup>.

In 1940, the Turkish government issued a circular letter (No. 8589) which called for changing into Turkish all toponyms in foreign languages or with foreign roots, but the outbreak of World War II temporarily impeded its implementation.

A special article devoted to the changes of toponyms was included in the 1949 Provincial administrative law (II Idaresi Kanunu). Furthermore, a “Specialized Organization for Renaming Toponyms” (“Ad Değiştirme İhtisas Kurulu”) was initiated in 1957. This organization renamed 653 settlements in Erzurum, 169 in Adana, 366 in Erzinjan (Yerznka), 224 in Adyaman, 70 in Moughla, 88 in Afion, 70 in Eskishehir, 297 in Moush, 374 in Aghre (Ararat), 279 in Gaziantep (Aintap), 24 in Nevshahir, 99 in Amasia, 167 in Giresoun (Kirasoun), 647 in Nighdeh, 193 in Ankara, 343 in Gyumushkhaneh, 134 in Ordou, 168 in Antalya, 128 in Hakkari, 105 in Rize, 101 in Ardvin, 117 in Hatay (Alexandretta/Iskenderun), 117 in Sakaria, 69 in Ayden, 185 in Sparta, 110 in Balekesir, 112 in Ichel, 392 in Siirt (Sghert), 32 in Bilejik, 21 in Istanbul, 59 in Sinop, 247 in Bingyol (Byurakn), 68 in Izmir (Smyrna), 406 in Sivas (Sebastia), 236 in Bitlis, 398 in Kars, 19 in Tekirdagh, 182 in Bolou, 295 in Kastamonu, 245 in Tokat (Eudokia), 49 in Bourdour, 86 in Kayseri (Cesaria), 390 in Trebizond, 136 in Bursa, 35 in Krklareli, 273 in Dersim, 53 in Chanakkaleh, 39 in Kershehir, 389 in Shanli Ourfa (Ourha), 76 in Chankere, 26 in Kojayeli, 47 in Oushal, 555 in Chorum, 217 in Malatia, 156 in Zongouldak, 20 in Edirne, 647 in Mardin, 555 in Diarbekir, 83 in Manisa, 383 in Elazegh (Kharberd), and 105 in Kahraman Marash<sup>32</sup>.

After research work on 75.000 toponyms, the “Specialized Organization” changed 28.000 names, among which 12.000 were village names. According to H. Tunçel’s estimates, 12,211 villages were renamed during the period of 1940-2000, which constitutes approximately 35 per cent of the villages<sup>33</sup>.

The Turkish historian Ayse Hyur writes that during the reign of the Democratic Party ugly, humiliating, insulting or derisive names, even if they were Turkish, were subjected to changes. Village names with lexical components meaning red (kizil), bell (çan), church (kilise) were all changed. To do away with “separatist notions”, the Arabic, Persian, Armenian, Kurdish, Georgian, Tatar, Circassian, and Laz village names were also changed<sup>34</sup>. From 1981 to 1983, the names of settlements on the Eastern and Western parts of the Black Sea also underwent changes.

Bilir, the author of “Let Tunceli Be Named Dersim”, in an article published in the August 19, 2009 issue of “Bir Gun” daily, writes that, besides giving new names to the

<sup>31</sup> Bilir O., “Tunceli, Dersim Olsun” Tekilfini Ekimde yeniden,” Bir Gün, 2009, 19 Agustos. Refer also to [www.birgun.net](http://www.birgun.net)

<sup>32</sup> Bilir O., *Ibid*.

<sup>33</sup> Tunçel H., “Türkiye’de İsmi Değiştirilen Köyler”, *Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, Fırat Üniversitesi, 2000, cilt 10, sayı 2.

<sup>34</sup> Türker S., “28 bin yerin ismi değişti...”, Vatan, 16 Agustos, 2009.



settlements, the Turkish authorities altered also the phonetic pronunciations of those old names to make them sound like Turkish words, as, for instance, Chinchiva to Shenyuva. This method of changing a toponym, as has already been mentioned previously, was suggested by Enver Pasha as early as 1916: "...change Ereghli into Erikli or Erakli, Gallipoli into Velipolou in order to maintain the old name roots"<sup>35</sup>. This phenomenon, however, has deeper roots. Similar cases of Ottomanization-Turkification of Armenian toponyms were present in the 16th century Ottoman Geographical Registers<sup>36</sup>. It is ironic to note that in the ongoing process of turning the so called Kurdish toponyms into Turkish ones some toponyms have been restored to their imaginary old Turkish versions, which are actually ancient and medieval Armenian place names. Thus Pertag (Berd+ak) has been renamed Pertek, allegedly its old Turkish name, Esper (Sper)>Ispir, Erdekhan>Ardahan, Shakh>Shatak, Kers>Kars, Zedkan>Elishkirt, which is the phonetically deformed variant of Alashkert<Vagharsh+a+kert, Geghi>Keghi, in both of which we have the word Gyugh-Gegh meaning village, Guinguim>Vardo, etc.<sup>37</sup>

Gul's statement in Bitlis about Norshin<sup>38</sup> had controversial repercussions among the country's various political parties. Devlet Bahçeli, the leader of the opposition National Movement Party in particular, criticized Gul for it. Prime Minister Erdogan responded reminding Bahçeli that Manazkert, for example, was an Armenian toponym. "Are you more patriotic than Alparslan? Mustafa Kemal didn't change the name Ankara when he made it the capital of the country. The name Ankara is of Latin origin. Are you saying you are more patriotic than Mustafa Kemal?" asked Erdogan<sup>39</sup>. We believe this admission by Turkey's Prime Minister should be attributed to the Turkish authorities' desire to evade an awkward situation and show the world that they are democratic and open-minded. Besides, the statement might have been made to deter the Kurdish territorial claims.

Modern Turkish historiography has greatly contributed and supported this systematic program of changing, distorting and appropriating "non-Muslim" toponyms in Turkey. Upon the publication of the works of chroniclers and archival materials of the earlier period of the Ottoman Era, Turkish historians have made use of their rich stock of falsifications and have distorted Armenian toponyms en masse<sup>40</sup>.

Armenia or Ermenistan have been coarsely and retroactively replaced by "Eastern Anatolia". The following highlights one such example. In his "Jihan Numa" Kyatib Celebi, a famous Ottoman chronicler of the 17th century, had a special chapter, titled

<sup>35</sup> See Yuksel A., *Doğu Karadeniz Arastırmaları*, İstanbul, 2005, s. 21-22.

<sup>36</sup> For the details, see Lusine Sahakyan, *Toponyms and Demography of Bardzer Hayk Provinces of Baberd, Sper and Derjan in the 16th century Ottoman Register Books* [Bardzr Hayki Baberd. Sper, Derjan gavarneri tekhanunnern u zhokhovrdagrutyune XVI dari osmanyany ashkharhagir matyannerum], pp. 77-108.

<sup>37</sup> Bilir O., "Tunceli, Dersim Olsun" Tekilfini Ekimde yeniden," Bir Gün, 19 Augustos 2009. Refer also to [www.birgun.net](http://www.birgun.net).

<sup>38</sup> Muradoğlu A., "A. Mesut ve Norşin..", *Yeni Şafak*, 11.Ağustos, 2009. Enver Alper Güvelin, "Norşin: Psikolojik eşğin aşılması", *Yeni Şafak*, 16.08.2009.

<sup>39</sup> "Erdoğan Bahçeli'ye yeni sert sözlerle yüklendi", *Hürriyet*, 10 Kasım, 2009.

<sup>40</sup> See Sahakyan L., *Toponyms and Demography*, op. cit., pp. 71-108, 130-135.

“About the Country Called Armenia”. When, however, this book was republished in 1957 its modern Turkish editor H. Selen changed this title into “Eastern Anatolia”<sup>41</sup>. The fact, however, is that Armenia together with its boundaries was unequivocally mentioned in the works of Ottoman historians and chroniclers. An excerpt from the said chapter of Kyatib Celebi’s *Jihan Numa* illustrates clearly the falsifications of modern Turkish historians:

*“Hamdullah says. The Armenia vilayet consists of two parts -Greater and Lesser. ...Greater Armenia extends well into Iran and is known by the name of Touman Akhlat. It borders the Lesser Armenia, Rum, Diarbekir, Kurdistan, Azarbaijan<sup>42</sup> and Aran. Its length covers the area from Erzen-el-Rum (Erzurum) to Salmas, while its width - from Aran to the end of Akhlat vilayet. Its capital is Akhlat. In my opinion Greater Armenia at present consists of the Van and Erzurum vilayets, while Lesser Armenia - of Adana and Marash eyalets. In the Takvim-el-Bouldan<sup>43</sup>, the following cities are mentioned in Armenia: Elbistan<sup>44</sup>, Adana, Arjesh, Azarbaijan, Bitlis, Barda, Bilekan, Tiflis, Akhlat, Debil, Sultaniye, Sis, Tarsus, Malatia, Van, Vostan, Moush, Erzen-el-Rum and Malazkert”<sup>45</sup>.*

While Celebi mentioned only part of the territory of Armenia<sup>46</sup>, the fact that the Ottoman historian admitted the existence of Armenia as a country speaks for itself.

Armenia is referred to by other Ottoman authors of the 17th century as well. The official court historian Evliya Celebi mentions it as Armenistan<sup>47</sup>. Munejjim Basi<sup>48</sup>, another Turkish historian of the same century, also wrote about the vast country of Armenia, including into it the cities of Kherd Bert (i.e. Kharberd - L.S.), Erzinkan, Moush, Egin (Akn), Melazjerd (i.e. Manazkert), Bitlis, Akhlat, Arjesh, Vostan, Shirvan and the capital Debil (i.e. Dvin)<sup>49</sup>. From the descriptions of these historians, it becomes evident that in the 17th century official Ottoman historiography recognized the existence of the occupied Greater Armenia, and acknowledged it by its internationally accepted name of Armenia (Ermenistan), while Cilicia with its Adana and Marash eyalets was

<sup>41</sup> For details refer to A. Papazyan’s *Turkish Documents about Armenia and Armenians (XVI-XIX cc)* [*Turkakan vaveragrere Hayastani yev hayeri masin (16-19-rd darer)*], Yerevan, 1999, p. 125.

<sup>42</sup> Azerbaijan - Atrpatakan, a province of Iran.

<sup>43</sup> “*Takvim-al-Buldan*” is the Statistical Data-book of Abul Fida, an Arab historiographer and geographer. It served as a source book for Kyatib Celebi (*Turkish Sources about Armenia, Armenians and Other Trans-Caucasian Peoples* [*Turkakan aghbyurnere Hayastani, hayeri yev Andrkovkasi myus zhoghovurdneri masin*, vol. 2, Yerevan, 1964, p. 258).

<sup>44</sup> Elbistan-Albistan, a town in Cilicia in the Zeytun caza of the Marash province.

<sup>45</sup> *Turkish Sources...* [*Turkakan aghbyurnere...*], vol. 2; Kyatib Celebi, *Jihan Nyuma*, pp. 29-30.

<sup>46</sup> Refer also to A. Papazyan’s *Turkish Documents about Armenia and Armenians (XVI-XIX cc)* [*Turkakan vaveragreri Hayastani yev hayeri masin (16-19-rd dare)*], pp. 112-114, 121-122].

<sup>47</sup> Evliya Celebi, *Kniga puteshestviya*. Predislovie A. P. Grigoreva. Primechaniya i komentarii A. Grigoreva, A. D. Jeltakova. Vipusk 2., Izd. “Nauka”, Moskva, 1979, p. 102 (in Russian).

<sup>48</sup> Refer to Munejjim Basi: [*Turkish Sources...*], vol. 2, p.183.

<sup>49</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 199-200. In Arabic and Turkish sources the toponym Dvin has been distorted and written in various ways like Debil (refer to vol. 2 of *Dictionary of Toponyms of Armenia and the Adjacent Regions*, Yerevan, 1988, p. 68) Douin, Dabil, Adabin and Douviy (refer to S. Vardanyan’s *The Capitals of Armenia* [*Hayastani mayrakaghaknere*], Yerevan, 1995, p. 109.)

recognized by them as Lesser Armenia. Thus, in the 17th century when the Armenian Question was not as yet included into the agenda of international diplomacy, the terms Anatolia or Eastern Anatolia were never used to indicate Armenia. Furthermore, the “Islamic World Map” of the 16th century<sup>50</sup> and other Ottoman maps of the 18th and 19th centuries have clearly indicated Armenia (Ermenistan) on a specific territory as well as its cities<sup>51</sup>.

Armenia (ناتسـنـمرا) and Anatolia (لوطانای) are clearly differentiated in the map published in Istanbul in 1803-1804 (see Map 1)<sup>52</sup>. The Ottoman authors were using the term Armenia till the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. One example is Osman Nuri, the historian of the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, who mentions Armenia repeatedly in his three-volume “Abdul Hamid and the Period of His Reign.”<sup>53</sup>

It is more than obvious that the Ottoman historians and chroniclers in contrast to the modern Turkish ones, knew very well Armenia’s location and did not “confuse” it with Anatolia (see Map 2).

The word Anatolia means “sunrise” or “east” in Greek. This name was given to the Asia Minor peninsula approximately in the 5th or 4th centuries B.C. During the Ottoman era the term Anadolou included the north-eastern vilayets of Asia Minor with Kyotahia as its center<sup>54</sup>. The numerous European, Ottoman, Armenian, Russian, Persian, Arabic, Georgian and other primary sources did not confuse the term Armenia with Anatolia. This testifies, inter alia, to the fact that even after the loss of its statehood the Armenian nation still constituted a majority in its homeland, which was recognized by Ottoman occupiers as well.

Therefore, it is very sad to witness today certain Armenian historians of the Diaspora and even diplomats and analysts in Armenia, who have started to substitute the term “Western Armenia” with that of the ersatz “Eastern Anatolia”. These people have willingly and submissively undertaken the task of enacting Abdul Hamid’s decree of

<sup>50</sup> “The Islamic World Map” was drawn in the 1570s. Its diameter is 28.5 cm, and it is kept in the Bodleian Library, Oxford, manusc. Var.317 f9v-10r (Refer to R. Galchian’s “Armenia in World Cartography”, Yerevan, 2005, p.148).

<sup>51</sup> The Second Map of the “Mediterranean Region” (reprinted in R. Galchian, *ibid.*, p. 228).

<sup>52</sup> “Asian Turkey” was printed in 1803/1804. Size: 72x54 cm, British Library, London-OIOC 14999, vol. 2 (2), f.18. The second map in “The Mediterranean Region”, size: 80x58 cm, British Library, London-OIOC 14999, vol. 2 (2), f. 5., “The Ottoman Country”, published in 1867, size: 42x29 cm, The British Library, London - Maps 42.d.1, f.2 (Refer to R. Galchian’s monograph, *ibid.* pp. 226, 246).

<sup>53</sup> *The Turkish Sources [Turkakan aghbyurner]*. Vol. 4. Transl. from the original by A. Kh. Safrastyan and G. H. Santurjyan. Yerevan, 1972, pp. 126, 131, 133, 136, 165, 167, 172, 175, 180, 184, 188, 190.

<sup>54</sup> *Soviet Armenian Encyclopedia [Haykakan sovetakan hanragitaran]*, vol.1, Yerevan, 1974, p. 373. For details about Turkish attempts to change the place name of “Western Armenia” with that of “Eastern Anatolia” see Zograbyan L. N., [Orfografia Armyanskogo Nagoriya], Yerevan, 1979, p. 14-15. See also E. Danielyan’s article titled “Issues of Ancient Armenian History in Historiology” [“Hin Hayastane patmutyan hayetsakargayin himnahartsere patmagrutyan mej”], published in *Patma-banasirakan Handes* (Historico-Philological Magazine), 2003, N3, pp. 30-37, as well as his article titled “Armenia and Armenian Geographical Names: A Scientific Assignment to Protect the Armenian Natural and Historical Environment” [Hayastann u haykakan teghanunnere, hayots bnapatmakan mijavayri pashtpanutyan gitakan arajadrakn], published in VEM, Yerevan, 2009, N1, pp. 13-15.

1880. Incredibly, some Diasporan historians are even using the term “Anatolia” to indicate the entire Armenian Highland<sup>55</sup>.

Even if this ersatz term of Eastern Anatolia has somehow been put into circulation in Western scientific circles under the influence of systematic Turkish lobbying and falsifications and at times also due to the lack of knowledge, it is unacceptable for us, because the substitution of Western Armenia with the term “Eastern Anatolia” would mean voluntary renunciation of our homeland, rejection of our centuries-old historical and cultural heritage, denial of the Armenian Genocide, burial into oblivion of its consequences and, last but not least, rendering support to the Turkish negationist position towards the rights of the Armenian nation to Western Armenia<sup>56</sup>.

## Conclusion

The Turkish authorities realize that Armenian toponyms are the product of a civilization spanning several millennia civilization and vivid witnesses of the indigenous presence of Armenians in Western Armenia. The extermination of the native population, however, did not stop with the Armenian Genocide; it was followed by the destruction of Armenian historical and cultural heritage, including the Armenian toponyms.

The policy of Turkification of toponyms in the Ottoman Empire and the Republic of Turkey has gone through several stages:

1. Up to the end of the 19th century, Turkish officials and historians - although they were appropriating and changing the place names of occupied territories - they still continued to use the names “Armenia” or “Ermenistan”.
2. After the Russo - Turkish War of 1877-1878, when the Armenian Question became an international issue, the Turkification of Armenian as well as other Christian toponyms has been carried out more consistently.
3. This process intensified during the Young Turks and the Kemalist regimes, when a full-scale Turkification policy of toponyms targeted all non-Turkic nations.
4. Finally, during the present fourth stage, decades after eliminating Western Armenia of its native Armenian population, the Turkish authorities, fearing the potential threat posed by the Kurdish factor, have started to reshape their policy by partially restoring the original Armenian names of certain settlements in order to counter their Kurdish variants. However, they try to ascribe Turkish roots to these Armenian toponyms.

All this demonstrates that falsification of toponyms has been and still remains an important constituent part of Turkish demographic policies.

Toponyms are not only linguistic facts, but also accurate and objective historical evidence. The ancient Armenian place names are explicit and emphatic linguistic evidence, which reveal the entire truth about the true native owners of the Armenian

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<sup>55</sup> Ronald Grigor Suny, *Looking Toward Ararat: Armenia in Modern History*, Bloomington, Indiana University Press, 1993. *The Armenian People from Ancient to Modern Times*, vol. 1, New York, St. Martin's Press, 1997, pp. 22, 26, 37. Ayvazyan A.: *The History of Armenia as Presented in American Historiography*, a critical survey, Yerevan, 1998, pp. 37-40.

<sup>56</sup> Refer to Armen Ayvazyan's “Western Armenia vs. Eastern Anatolia”, *Europe and Orient* (Journal of the Institute Tchobanian, Paris), No. 4, 2007.

Highland. This is why the protection, maintenance and restoration of Armenian toponyms have invaluable strategic significance today.





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***Mediation in the multicultural language classroom: An investigation into the perceptions of Greek adolescent students***

**1. Introduction**

The concept of mediation is central to the Social Interactionist school of psychology reflected in the works of both Vygotsky (1962, 1978), and Feuerstein (1980, 1991). However, while for Vygotsky mediation refers to the use of “symbolic tools” among which language is the most important for Feuerstein mediation refers to the intervention of “a significant other” in the learning process. In his theory the way in which the significant adult interacts with the child plays a central role in his/her cognitive development. Where Feuerstein has not been so clear is what the child’s part is in the interactive mediated process. He is even less clear on how learners as mediates perceive this experience at different developmental periods such as childhood and adolescence.

Research on mediation in classroom contexts so far has focused only on the teacher as mediator (Chin, 1990; Deligianni, 1999; Warren, 1995; Williams and Burden, 1997); little research has been carried on the learner, particularly in multicultural contexts.

The present small-scale study focuses on the learner and mainly on the adolescent learner in the Greek multicultural educational context taking into consideration the particularities it bears for both teachers and students.

Extended research on adolescence (Erikson, 1968; Kimmel et al., 1995; Marcia, 1993; Urdan & Pajares, 2001) confirms that the most important aspect in this transitional phase marked by biological, intellectual, and psychological changes is identity formation, a multifaceted process that reaches at a crucial point in late adolescence.

Being mainly informed by the interpretive research paradigm the study is concerned with understanding how adolescent students perceive the features of mediation in their school context. Moreover, it aims to investigate any school and gender differences in students’ perceptions in two distinct Greek Senior High Schools and how mediation is implemented by teachers in the adolescent classroom. Finally, it attempts to make students’ voices heard through the issues they raise and to problematize the way mediation theory is transplanted in the EFL context so far. It argues that in the critical period of adolescence mediation process should be different and focus more on the students’ identity development.

My specific research questions were:

1. How do Greek adolescent students perceive the features of mediation in their school context?
  - a. What are the similarities and differences in the adolescent students’ perceptions according to type of school?
  - b. What are the similarities and differences in the adolescent students’ perceptions according to gender?
2. According to adolescent students’ perceptions which specific features of mediation

are *actually implemented* by their teachers?

3. What *other features* adolescent students perceive to be important for mediation in their school context?

## 2. Literature review

### 2.1 Mediation in educational psychology: the sociocultural approach

Mediation theory originates mainly in Social Interactionism, a school in educational psychology which combines the constructivist (Bruner, 1960, 1966; Kelly, 1955; Piaget, 1966, 1972) and humanistic thoughts Erikson (1963, 1968; Maslow, 1968, 1970; Rogers, 1969, 1982). The main premise of Social Interactionism reflected in the works of Vygotsky (1962, 1978) and Feuerstein (1979, 1980, 1991) is that learning occurs in a social context through interaction with other people.

In particular, Vygotsky's views on thought and language (Vygotsky, 1962) that have been elaborated into the sociocultural theory by recent researchers (Lantolf & Pavlenko 1995; Donato & McCormick, 1994) in the area of language learning. Psychological activity from the very beginning of development includes a sociocultural character. Children, do not discover on their own logical rules; children who master their own psychological processes do so, through tools given by a culture (Kozulin, 1994) Adults, and more competent peers, *the significant others* in Feuerstein's terms introduce symbolic tools to the child and teach him/her how to use it. Still, the role of *the significant other* is not fully elaborated within the Vygotskian framework. This theoretical gap is filled with Feuerstein's theory of learning which assigns a major role to a human mediator.

### 2.2 Feuerstein's theory of learning

In contrast to Vygotsky's mainly theoretical work Feuerstein's theory arose from practical needs. He worked in Israel with groups of severely impaired children in their ability to learn due to traumatic war experiences and with immigrant children from culturally different countries. Refusing to accept that these children are mentally retarded and incapable of learning Feuerstein approached the phenomenon as an outcome of deprived teaching of the appropriate learning skills and strategies. He developed for this purpose his theory of learning which is epitomized into four components: the Structural Cognitive Modifiability, the Mediated Learning Experience, the Instrumental Enrichment and the Dynamic Assessment (Feuerstein, 1980, 1991).

**Structural Cognitive Modifiability** epitomizes Feuerstein's overall philosophy that a person's cognitive structures are indefinitely modifiable. This radical view of lifelong cognitive development contrasts with the traditional view of intelligence as a 'fixed', mysterious and time-limited quality (Galton, 1869; Jensen, 1972) a position that impedes the true potential of every human being. Over many years of clinical work Feuerstein came to believe that children's intelligence appears to have enormous plasticity and flexibility and it can be modified by the appropriate intervention of significant adults. Structural Cognitive Modifiability is the theoretical framework on which, Mediated Learning Experience, Instrumental Enrichment and the Learning Potential Assessment Device are based.

**Instrumental Enrichment** is a cognitive intervention program that can be applied both individually and in classroom settings. It is content - free in nature and is built on Feuerstein's notion of a cognitive map which is a representation of the key factors involved in performing any mental act. Its main purpose is to enhance the learning potentials and cognitive functioning of the students teaching them to learn how to learn (Williams and Burden, 1997).

**The Learning Potential Assessment Device (LPAD)** refers to a set of instruments in which assessment is a dynamic rather than a static process with goals and procedures different from those of static assessment of the IQ tests. Assessment in Feuerstein's paradigm is permeated by the principles of Structural Cognitive Modifiability and is interlinked with the learning process and not separated by it. Its aim is to develop the students' metacognitive strategies at the same time as they are being assessed.

#### **Mediated Learning Experience (MLE)**

In the Social Interactionist School, the Vygotskian 'paradigm' of learning is based on the notion that a child as a member of a particular sociocultural group appropriates learning tools characteristic of that group. Education in its broader sense is a process by which the child accepts instruction within his/her Zone of Proximal Development. This is an "area" within which the child's functions are in a state of cognitive development. The emphasis is placed on the constructive activity of the child who uses 'psychological tools', those symbolic mediators (signs, symbols, formulae, texts, graphic organizers) to learn (Vygotsky, 1978, 1986). In contrast, the Feuerstein 'paradigm' of learning places emphasis on the notion of Mediated Learning Experience and the role of the educator as a mediating adult in the learning process.

Human mediators are important figures in the child's learning. The way these *significant others* intervene shapes the child's experiences and cognitive development which in turn construct his/her own view of the world. Feuerstein's approach to learning is child-centered similar to the ones developed by Piaget and Vygotsky but in his model the human mediator is assigned a pivotal role. He actually modified Piaget's model of Stimuli – Organism- Response (S-O-R) (Piaget 1966, 1972) to his own model of Stimuli- Human Mediator- Organism- Human Mediator- Response (S-H-O-H-R). The Human Mediator influences both the input and the output of the learning experience and his/her culture, intention and relationship with the mediator affect both the selection of stimuli and the output of learning (Feuerstein & Kaniel, 1989: 168).

It is worth noting that Feuerstein's ideas have been criticized for the emphasis he gave to the powerful adult, and for the fact that he did not pay so much attention to the learner's contribution to mediation (Williams & Burden, 1997: 97), although he advocated that the ultimate goal in his 'paradigm' of learning is to contribute to the cognitive development of the learners in such a way that they become independent and self-regulated (Feuerstein, 1991).

Following Feuerstein Mediated Learning Experience is a special quality of interaction between a learner, a task and a mediator and it is permeated by twelve features which he calls parameters. Of these twelve, the first three **critical parameters** - intentionality and reciprocity, meaning and transcendence are universal and necessary conditions for an interaction to qualify as mediation. They are considered responsible for what human beings have in common: structural modifiability. The other nine parameters are task dependant and context dependant.

## Intentionality and reciprocity

In MLE the specific content of the interaction is shaped by *the intention to mediate to the mediatee*, not only the particular stimuli, activity or relationship, but also to share this intention. In the classroom context it is important the teacher to present in a coherent way the tasks conveying clear instructions to the learners so that the learners realize what is expected of them. At a deeper level, this modality of interaction creates in the student awareness of the learning process and of the didactic principles underlying it. This orientation, once internalized, becomes the steering power towards more efficient learning, and in turn, leads to higher levels of modifiability (Feuerstein et al., 1991).

## Meaning

Mediation of meaning addresses the *energetic dimension of interaction*; it answers the questions of why, what for, and other questions related to the casual and teleological reasons for something to happen or to be done. In educational contexts it comprises a vital role of the teacher to convey the significance of the task and the learning experience in a way that has personal relevance and meaning to the student. At a deeper level it endows the student with the “need” to look for the “meaning” in a wider sense of the term, in all aspects of life (Feuerstein et al, 1991).

## Transcendence

The meaning of transcendence is *going beyond the goals of interaction* which is considered among the most important characteristics of mediation (Feuerstein et al., 1991). In classroom contexts the mediation of transcendence makes students aware of the more general learning value of a task widening the primary goals of interaction t by including more remote, and often more important than the primary ones.

## Feeling of competence

Research in educational psychology suggests that the most successful learners are those who feel competent (Feuerstein et al., 1991, Hamachek, 1988; Maslow, 1968, Rogers, 1969; Smith et al., 2005). However, the feeling has to be reflected in the views of others and in the interpretation given by them to one’s behavior. If children develop a negative image of themselves they will easily become low achievers (Williams and Burden, 1997). Here, the teacher’s role as mediator is crucial to mediate to the child the feeling of competence and a positive self-image.

## Control of behavior

‘Control of behavior’ is based on cognitive and metacognitive components. It has to do with taking control of one’s learning and it is associated with the notion of learner training to which it provides a strong theoretical underpinning. The notion of learner training (Ellis and Singlair, 1989; Dickinson, 1987; Ellis, 1991) refers to *teaching learners how to learn* so that they are equipped with life-long skills and strategies which will make them self-regulating and autonomous learners. The following three

features of mediation foster this notion of control of learning behavior: goal setting, challenge and awareness of change.

*Goal setting.* Mediating to the student the search for and choice of a goal enriches and articulates his/her life as a learner (Feuerstein et al., 1991). In addition it adds an organizing principle and mobilizes the necessary tools for the materialization of the chosen goal. Teachers as mediators need to encourage and help learners to set their own realistic and even short-term goals which is particularly important for adolescents being in a process of ‘becoming’ (Urdan and Pajares, 2001).

*Challenge.* The importance of challenge in life as an internal drive and motivation is commonly recognized. Following Feuerstein (1991) the mediation of challenging behavior should be considered the goal of education in general and enrichment in particular for all programs aiming to prepare the individual for adapting to the novelty and complexity of our world. Mediation of challenge facilitates the completion of identity formation, the most important phase in adolescent development (Erikson, 1968; Marcia, 1993).

*Awareness of change.* The belief in modifiability may become a potent determinant of change in the individual. Teachers as mediators need to foster the belief in change and the willingness to monitor and assess the changes in oneself. Self assessment and monitoring are metacognitive strategies which involve learners in reflecting on the learning process (Brewster et al., 1992). The absence of belief in change makes “the educational system anemic, manifesting at best a passive accepting approach” (Feuerstein et al., 1991).

### Positive thinking

Cognitive therapists believe that individuals can switch focus, redescribe and change their outlook to a more positive dimension (Barnes, 1999). At its simplest, learning to dispute negative beliefs, and redescribe adverse events more positively, has the effect of changing how we feel. Positive perceptions are commonly associated with hope, tenacity and academic success. Negative perceptions are associated with passivity, low motivation and giving up easily. (Seligman, 1990). This aspect of mediation is a precursor to the mediation of the feeling of competence in the sense that unless having the firm belief that *something is possible* makes the involved person become committed to the search for ways to turn the possible into a materialized experience.

The three last features of mediation are concerned with **fostering social development.**

#### *Sharing behavior*

Sharing behavior reflects the need of the individual to go out of his own self in the direction of participating with others and make others participate with him/her. It is culturally bound, even though according to Maslow (1968) and Feuerstein (1991) it exists as an individual need at a very early stage of development since childhood.

#### *Individuation*

Individuation represents the need of the person to become an articulate, differentiated self as opposed to the “other” with whom he/she yet shares him/herself. The process of individuation is enhanced by the feeling of belonging and acceptance which is generated by the mediation of sharing. The teacher- mediator’s role is to recognize that learners are unique individuals who have their own contribution to make and have



the right to develop at their own paces. This is particularly important at the developmental phase of adolescence (Hamachek, 1992).

#### *Feeling of belonging*

The feeling of belonging has comprised a primitive need of the human beings since life appeared and still is, although in modern technological societies the individual's right to privacy is highly stressed. More traditional societies give it a higher priority (Feuerstein et al, 1991). In adolescence the need of belonging is exhibited into the influential role that peer relationships and peer groups play into adolescents' lives. Being *accepted* by the general peer group and having friendships has been related to adolescents' emotional and academic development (Urdan and Pajares, 2001).

### **2.3 Previous studies of mediation. A critical review**

In my view, the research done into the mediation area that occurs in language teaching focused mainly on the teacher's perceptions and practices and not on the learner.

Warren (1995) evaluated teachers' performance as mediators in language classes. In her words:

“one of the most important findings of the investigation was that successful teaching of the tasks did not depend simply on their design. It also depended on the Mediated Learning Experience, that is, on the way the teacher mediated in the classroom” (Warren, 1995: 182).

Williams and Burden (1997) investigated teachers' perceptions of the various features of mediation and also actual classroom practices. Chin (1990) carried a pilot research with 50 primary teachers in Taiwan and her findings highlight that the features of mediation are perceived differently within different cultural contexts.

Shehatah (1998), in a small-scale research study in Saudi Arabia, found that teachers do believe in the importance of many aspects of mediation even if they do not always use them in the EFL classroom. She suggested that Teacher Education programs could take this into consideration (Shehatah, 1998: 157). A similar study carried by Deligianni (1999) in Northern Greece showed that there is a discrepancy between what the majority of the teachers think of the features of mediation and their actual classroom practices.

Focusing on the learner Brainin (1995) examined several cognitive curricula and in particular how Feuerstein's Instrumental Enrichment (Feuerstein et al., 1991) can be used with low functioning pre-adolescents and adolescents in remedial educational settings. Her findings proved that Feuerstein's statement of what failed to occur adequately in the natural settings can still occur in the planned learning context. Instrumental Enrichment and all the programs surveyed gave special importance to the teacher's role as mediator of the student's learning. Brainin brought the question of the quality of pedagogy to the forefront: “in intervening to engage students' awareness of their own thinking and learning, the teacher has indeed, no place to hide” (Brainin, 1985: 127).

Gray and Feldman's (2004) study gave another perspective to the notion of mediation assigning the human mediator's role to the adolescent student. Their research of 196 naturally occurring interaction sequences between adolescents and much younger students in a radical alternative school, the Sudbury Valley School in Massachusetts proved that free age mixing can offer the opportunity for adolescents to

act as mediators. However, they argue it is doubtful if the concept of the Zone of Proximal Development could be applied in conventional school settings where there is student segregation according to age and thus, both parties are deprived of a valuable resource for development and education. In addition, a major obstacle in conventional schools are the group structure, the mandatory curriculum, which, along with the group structure, greatly restricts students' abilities to initiate topics and thereby reduces students' motivation (Gray and Feldman, 2004: 112). The researchers concluded that in certain respects, and under some conditions, adolescents may be even more effective as mediators to young children than teachers or other *significant others*.

### 3. Methodology

Although the data collection techniques come from both positivist and interpretive approaches, this small-scale study was carried out mainly informed by the interpretive paradigm since it is "primarily concerned with human understanding, interpretation, intersubjectivity and lived truth" (Radnor, 1994). The study had three aims: to understand how adolescents perceive mediation (Chin, 1990; Deligianni, 1999; Feuerstein, 1991; Warren, 1995; Williams and Burden, 1997) within two Greek Senior High Schools; to trace any school and gender differences in the students' perceptions of mediation and to investigate how mediation is implemented by teachers- mediators in the adolescent context. Grouping particular I wanted to "give a voice" to the students in an educational context that seems to neglect it and also bring into surface *other* features of mediation students perceived as important.

The research lasted from November 2006 until January 2007 and covered two different Senior Comprehensive High Schools in the area of Rodopi, Thrace, North Greece. School A (SA) is a small village Multicultural Comprehensive and School B (SB) a large city Comprehensive (Appendices 1 and 2). The two schools are distinct in terms of population, cultural origin and socio-economic stratum of the students attending each school.

#### Participants and procedures

Sixty five adolescent students were asked to participate in the study: 25 from School A and 40 from School B. 33 participants were female and 32 were male. They were in Year 2 (ages 16-17) and Year 3 (ages 17-18) at the time of the study. All participants filled in an anonymous questionnaire to ensure confidentiality. The two semi-structured interviews were conducted with different groups from each school, each group consisting of three girls, aged 16 to 17 years old. This was caused by the unwillingness of male students to participate during their Christmas holidays. The interviews took place in different days in comfortable surroundings outside school so that adolescents would not feel pressurized. Both sets of interviews lasted for 30-35 minutes each. The Greek language was preferred in order to facilitate participants express their views without any inhibition. The interviews were recorded, transcribed and translated into English.

## Methods

The data collection techniques were separate survey questionnaires and group semi-constructed interviews. The Student Mediation Questionnaire used is adapted from Williams and Burden (1997: 87) Teacher Mediation Questionnaire which was also used in earlier studies (Chin, 1990; Deligianni, 1999; Shehatah, 1998; Warren, 1995). A second part was added to the Questionnaire with the form of an open question in order to elicit qualitative data (Appendix 3). In order to further understand recurrent issues which seemed to contradict the overall picture emerged from the analysis of quantitative data of the questionnaire, two group interviews based on the questionnaire data (Appendix 4) were conducted with one group of students from each school.

## Limitations and ethical considerations

This is a small-scale study and as such it does not claim generalisability. It rather aims to shed light to the adolescent students' perceptions of mediation and to the parallel issues that emerged from the analysis of the results in the Greek educational context.

As far as the questionnaire is concerned, time was a serious constraint to pilot and distribute it to a larger sample. In addition, after analyzing the data a bigger sample would appear be necessary to reach some generalizations referring to the differences in students' perceptions according to school (small vs. big, rural vs. inner city school) and gender. Moreover, the data collection techniques could be richer. Classroom observations for a term could offer valuable data on teachers' implementation of the features of mediation and students' responses to them. With regard to the interviews more group interviews with participants of both gender would offer to my investigation the male participants' views, thus making it more complete than the present one.

I had also to take into consideration previous researchers' practical and epistemological concerns as to how participants respond to us based on who we are in their lives as well as the social categories to which we belong, such as age, gender, class and race. The issue could be more complicated when there is social distance and we do not share membership with our study groups (Miller and Glassner, 1997). Interviewees may ignore or they may purposely mislead us in their responses. Being a Head Teacher at the time of the study and a power-figure often negatively associated by adolescents could function as a limitation or a challenge for them. I tried to overcome the social distance issue and any possible misleading interview outcomes by establishing familiarity and trust with all the interviewees, being clear as to the purposes of my research, by assuring confidentiality and not being judgmental to their responses.

The issue of validity was a further issue when using group interviews. Cohen et al. (2005) identify 'bias' as the main cause of invalidity. Being at the same time a member of the context I was researching I tried to prevent my own biases and beliefs to affect the students' attitude and to seek answers that support my preconceived notions.

## 4. Results and discussion

The results of the study are presented in three parts. First, the data related to adolescent students' perceptions of mediation according to school and gender. Then, students' perceptions of the implementation of mediation by teachers and last, what other features of mediation students perceive as important in their context.

### 4.1. Students' perceptions of mediation by School

This section presents and discusses the results related to my first research question how adolescent students perceive mediation according to school.

#### 4.1.1. Critical parameters of mediation

There appeared to be a differentiation by school of the critical parameters of mediation among the students' perceptions (Table 1). In School A the majority of the students value the critical parameters as very important with the highest rate for intentionality and reciprocity (88%). In School B it is equally valued high but with a considerable lower rate. Mediation of meaning and transcendence are perceived quite differently in the two schools. In School B the majority of the participants perceive them as quite important or neutral. As student A postulates on the mediation of meaning:

*"I believe it is of not such importance and can become a little boring if Ts tells every time what is the significance of every task we do. Some things are obvious"*

**Table 1: Comparison of Critical Parameters by School**

(n=65)

	<i>Very important</i>		<i>Quite important</i>		<i>Neutral</i>		<i>Not v. important</i>		<i>Not important</i>	
	SA	SB	SA	SB	SA	SB	SA	SB	SA	SB
Intentionality and Reciprocity	88%	65%	12%	30%	0	0	0	5%	0	0
Mediation of Meaning	52%	22.5%	28%	32.5%	12%	22.5%	12%	17.5%	0	5%
Transcendence	60%	22.5%	20%	32.5%	16%	30%	4%	10%	0	5%

#### 4.1.2. Parameters reinforcing mediation

In School A (Table 2), the majority of students value more the parameters of mediation fostering the notion of taking control of one's learning (Williams and Burden, 1997) with the highest rates for control of behavior, goal setting and positive thinking (68%) and the lowest rates for challenge and awareness of change (40%).

An interesting point is that 'challenge' had the lowest rates in both schools. Student A of School B explains :

*“....it [challenge] has to do with students’ goals. In the 3rd Comprehensive [SB] students have already set their personal goals .....and they focus on these goals”*

There is also a differentiation in students’ perceptions with regard to the parameters of mediation relating to social development. In School B they are valued more than in School A with the highest rate for belonging (57.5%).

To quote student A of School B :

*“...I believe it is very important because if you don’t have this feeling of belonging you cannot function properly, you cannot make any real progress if you lack this feeling of classroom community”*

and Student B from the same school expresses on sharing behavior:

*“it is very important teachers to encourage sharing behavior in the classroom and not only for learning purposes.”*

A possible explanation for these differentiated perceptions may be the population as well as the social, cultural and economic stratum of each school (Appendix 2). Students of School A coming mainly from working-class and agricultural families seem to be more school and teacher-dependent. A typical comment is a plea for a more learner-centered teaching in the state school: *“teachers should understand that not all the students are able to attend private language schools”*. This contrasts with the comment of one of their peers in School B: *“.. a lot of things in the English class are considered “easy” for the students because they go to a “frontistirio”*. These students come mainly from middle and upper- class families who can resort to private tuition.

**Table 2 : Comparison of Parameters Reinforcing MLE by School**  
(n=65)

	<i>Very important</i>		<i>Quite important</i>		<i>Neutral</i>		<i>Not v. important</i>		<i>Not important</i>	
	SA	SB	SA	SB	SA	SB	SA	SB	SA	SB
Feeling of competence	48%	35%	24%	27.5%	20%	12.5%	4%	20%	4%	5%
Control of behavior	68%	62.5%	12%	25%	20%	7.5%	0	5%	0	0
Goal setting	68%	45%	12%	27.5%	20%	20%	0	7.5%	0	0
Challenge	40%	27.5%	28%	40%	20%	12.5%	8%	17.5%	0	5%
Awareness of change	40%	42.5%	36%	32.5%	12%	12.5%	8%	10%	8%	0
Positive thinking	68%	62.5%	12%	25%	20%	7.5%	0	0	0	5%
Sharing behavior	44%	50%	36%	27.5%	16%	12.5%	4%	10%	0	0
Individuation	28%	50%	28%	35%	24%	5%	20%	5%	0	5%
Belonging	52%	57.5%	28%	22.5%	8%	10%	8%	10%	0	2.5%

In addition, the implementation of the National Curriculum appears to have different impact on the students’ well being and need for social development. In School B, a big, prestigious but highly competitive city school participants feel more *“pressurized by the system”* and alienated as being in *“a factory machine”*. The adolescents’ needs for belonging, expressing their uniqueness as identities and sharing with others are considered more important compared to their peers in School A, who share closer relationships in their school community and social context. It appears that the results confirm Feuerstein’s view (1991) that more traditional societies give



sharing behavior, individuation and belonging a higher priority, although in modern technological societies the individual's right to privacy is highly stressed.

## 4.2 Students' perceptions of mediation by gender

This section presents and discusses how female and male adolescent students perceive the parameters of mediation.

### 4.2.1. The critical parameters of mediation

Overall, there is not much differentiation in students' perceptions of the critical parameters of mediation according to gender (Table 3). Both male and female students value more the mediation of intentionality and reciprocity. They perceive it as very important with rates of 75.7% and 71.8% accordingly for each gender. However, the rates are very low for the other two critical parameters and in particular for the mediation of meaning. It is worth noticing that transcendence is the only parameter where the rating of male students is higher than their female peers. Female student B confirms this view of transcendence:

*"...Perhaps because we are not so interested in analyzing the reasons why we learn what we learn".*

**Table 3: Comparison of Critical Parameters by Gender**

(n=65)

	<i>Very important</i>		<i>Quite important</i>		<i>Neutral</i>		<i>Not v. important</i>		<i>Not important</i>	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Intentionality and Reciprocity	75.7%	71.8%	21.2%	25%	0	0	3%	3.1%	0	0
Mediation of Meaning	36.3%	28.1%	33.3%	28.1%	9%	28.1%	21.2%	9.3%	3%	3.1%
Transcendence	36.3%	37.5%	21.2%	34.3%	30.3%	18.7%	9%	6.2%	3%	3.1%

### 4.2.2. Parameters reinforcing mediation

Table 4 presents students' perceptions of the parameters reinforcing mediation by gender. Female students seem to prioritize the parameters of mediation related to taking control one's learning. The majority perceive them as very important with the highest rates for control of behavior and positive thinking (69.6%) and the lowest rate for challenge. On the contrary, male students appear to value more the parameters of mediation fostering social development with the highest rate for 'belonging' (62.5%).

Female student B emphasizes:

*"...Being a Lyceum student is so demanding and can be at times so frustrating that if you do not develop a positive thinking you cannot manage."*

And another female student C remarks on the male students' perceptions of the feeling of competence:

*“...Perhaps boys feel it is embarrassing ....that they are becoming vulnerable if they accept help (female student B, SA)*

**Table 4: Comparison of Parameters Reinforcing MLE by Gender**

(n=65)

Interestingly, male students valued the parameters related to social development more than female students. I interpreted these indications as reuting from maturation process during adolescence.

In the words of female student B:

*“ I think **boys are not so much interested in school**...at least at this age they are interested more in other things...in having fun for instance or in having affairs”*

This may be an indication that females experience maturation process at a deeper level than their male peers. Indeed, there is evidence in research that girls tend to mature more rapidly than boys in their identity achievement (Kimmel and Wieder, 1995) and that concerns about beliefs, occupational goals and about interpersonal relatedness play different roles in the identity formation of male and female adolescents ( Christopherson et al.,1988)

#### **4.2. Implementation of mediation in the adolescent classroom**

This section discusses the results related to my second and the third research questions, what are the adolescent students' perceptions of their teachers' implementation of mediation and what other features of mediation are important in their school context.

##### **4.3.1. Perceptions of teachers' implementation of mediation**

The analysis of the data revealed a *different* classroom reality. According to the participants' perceptions not all the features of mediation are implemented by their teachers.

In both schools the critical parameters of mediation are implemented with the exception of intentionality and reciprocity. Student A of School A observes : :

*“ ... I also believe it is very important and perhaps students characterize it so because it is often **absent**”*

Students' perceptions concerning the parameters reinforcing mediation are rather negative. They feel disappointed by the frequency and the quality of their teachers' implementation. Indicatively student A of School A notes on competence:

*“Usually it[ feeling of competence]**does not happen** because there are many students in the classroom.. Some times it happens usually in the beginning of the school year”*

Implementation of the other parameters of mediation in the classroom appears be either “*an urge of the moment*” or, it is totally absent.

Student A of School B confirms the above views commenting on control of behavior:

*“ ... Well, some times teachers give us instructions to look in the sources but this is not happening with a guided and a responsible way for the*

students...*they just leave us alone...without making us realize the value of learning how to learn*"

and student B of School A emphasizes on positive thinking:

*"...it is very important, but at least in my class this is not happening...for instance weaker students do not persist in their efforts when they find some difficulties, which means that **nobody taught them** how important it is in life to keep on trying and not give up"*.

Similar feelings permeate students concerning the parameters fostering social development. Student C of School A points out on sharing behavior:

*"It [sharing behavior] means that students learn to be more receptive, tolerant and open minded as characters. But this principle of cooperation is **not encouraged** in the present school system, at least not at Lykeio"*

The lack of proper teacher training in the adolescent context may be considered one cause for the insufficient implementation of mediation. It is an implication that Teacher Education programs should seriously take into consideration. Another may be the structure of the exam-oriented curriculum which subjects students to severe levels of anxiety and transforms classrooms to *"factory machines"*. Students undermine any other school subject that does not serve the exam purposes. *"We feel so much pressurised by the system"* is a repeated and a prevailing emotion among adolescents while schooling should be a source of positive experiences and a process of inner development.

The perceived implementation of mediation is closely related to the constructed images students have of their teachers as mediators. Teachers are portrayed incomplete as professionals, emotionally detached, very often biased and as if being embodied to an impersonal educational system. The above view is best summed up by student B:

*"Teachers do not care so much on everyone's individuality, most of them are indifferent to the problems we face as adolescents"*

Students seem to challenge and be sceptical of their teachers' role as mediators. An issue to problematise here is as to what extent these perceived images reflect objective realities and teaching practices or they are constructed through the *lens* of adolescence, a period characterised by active uncertainty and contradictions, a state of *identity diffusion* according to Erikson (1968). Indeed, there is evidence on research that during adolescence students often report a level of mistrust in teachers and a lack in meaningful communication with them assigning a major role in peer relationships. (Wentzel and Battle, 2001). Interestingly, results also implicate that adolescents expect from their teachers to act as *a significant other* but not with the sense Feuerstein (1991) introduced as a person who intervenes in the learning process selecting, changing, amplifying and interpreting both the stimuli that come to the learner and the learner's responses. Adolescents' perceptions of their teachers as mediators are closely related with issues of identity formation process, which I will discuss in the following section.

#### 4.3.2. Other features of mediation students perceive as important

The analysis of the qualitative data highlighted some additional features of mediation adolescents perceive as equally important. These perceptions are expressed around central issues students raise as follows:

*a) Mediation in the adolescent classroom should focus more on the students' identity development*

Aspects of identity development as *individual differences*, *social awareness* and *critical thinking* appear to be of prior concern for adolescent students and should not be ignored in the mediation process. Student A of School B draws attention to the absence of any care for personal growth in the current teaching practice:

*"I think that "different" than the norm students, or the gifted ones are squeezed in the Greek Comprehensive Lykeio"*

and student B stresses the need to foster social awareness:

*"Teachers should try to make students think and speak more on social issues in the classroom".*

*b) The role of the teacher as mediator is pivotal in the adolescent classroom and should also focus on students' identity development*

Although adolescents have been very critical to their teachers' attitudes expressing often disappointment they expect the teacher - mediator to have qualities of a *pedagogue*. To quote student A:

*"I believe it is important the teacher to educate the kid so that he could become a better person and also to inspire him some social values".*

*c) The implementation of mediation in the adolescent classroom should be pervaded by the values of Humanistic approaches of learning.*

Students claim for a more student-centered teaching which emphasizes on the teacher-student rapport *"the relationship between student and teacher I think as the most important"* but also involves the whole person *"students need creativity"* and minimizes criticism *"there shouldn't be belovéd ones in the classroom"*.

Research highlights identity formation as the most important phase in adolescent development (Erikson, 1968; Marcia, 1980). Identity refers to the organization of the individual's drives, abilities, beliefs, and history into a consistent image of self. It involves deliberate choices and decisions, particularly about work, values, ideology, and commitments to people and ideas (Marcia 1980, Penuel & Wertsch, 1995). According to Erikson (1968) if adolescents fail to integrate all these aspects and choices, or if they feel unable to choose at all, role confusion threatens. An issue to problematise here is whether Feuerstein's mediation theory and the way it is "transplanted" into the TESOL area (Chin, 1990; Deligianni, 1999; Warren, 1999; Williams and Burden, 1997) is valid in late adolescence with all developmental phases that characterize this transitional period.

Also, central to the developmental psychology of both Vygotsky (1968) and Feuerstein (1991) is the idea that the secret of effective learning lies in the nature of the social interaction between two or more people with different levels of skills and knowledge (Williams and Burden 1997). However, adolescent students' perceptions reveal that this nature of interaction between teacher - mediator and adolescents-mediates seems *"mutilated"* or fragmentary and incomplete

In addition, although I do not deny the validity of Feuerstein's main philosophy in structural cognitive modifiability (Feuerstein et al. 1991) and its implementation through mediated learning this was sprung and developed out of particular needs, in a particular era and with particular age groups (children). Results of my research and my teaching experience with adolescents so far make me adopt the view that with this particular age group a different form of mediation is needed.

Last, the implementation of mediation in the Greek adolescent context should not ignore students' voices against the social inequalities the curriculum creates in the classrooms. The current curriculum favors the flourishing of a system of "*parapaedia*"<sup>1</sup> thus establishing a highly competitive climate instead of a classroom ethos with serious psychological impact on adolescents' well-being.

Student B words express a prevailed feeling among participants:

"...the system itself imposes that you have to **carry on alone** and you have to **count only on your self** if you want to succeed..."

## 5. Conclusion

An important omission from previous research on mediation theory in the EFL classroom (Chin 1990, Deligianni 1999, Warren 1995, Williams and Burden 1997)) is that it does not focus on the role the learner as mediator plays in the interactive process. In this study, adolescent students' perceptions of mediation appear to be affected by the existing differences related to the area a school is situated, the population and the socio-economic and cultural stratum of each school as it happened with School A and School B of my research. In School A the critical parameters of mediation are valued highly while in School B students seem to prioritize the importance of the parameters fostering social development. Although male participants seemed to value more the features of mediation fostering social development compared to their female peers, in the main gender did not appear to influence so much adolescent's perceptions of mediation in their context and of their teachers as mediators.

However, the data reveal a rather disappointing situation as to the implementation of mediation by EFL teachers in the classroom. According to the students' perceptions the implementation of mediation appears to be either limited as with the case of the critical parameters and superficial as with the parameters concerning taking control of one's learning or totally absent as with the parameters fostering social development. In addition, adolescents raise important pedagogic issues and though they are critical towards their teachers' role as mediators they acknowledge the importance of teachers in their lives as *significant others*. They argue for a *different* quality of mediation in their context closer to issues concerning identity development and they claim for a *different* teacher-mediator rapport, more sensitized to the critical phases they go through.

The over-riding impression of this study is that the theory of mediation is not perceived so influential by adolescents at least under the present conditions of the teaching of English in the Greek Senior High School. It would appear that mediation theory seems to neglect adolescents' worries and concerns and the psychological phases they go through. In the adolescent English language classroom that often looks an arid place, where creativity, critical thinking and social awareness are absent or implemented in fragments mediation theory needs to re-establish itself and focus more on principles and parameters that foster the development of adolescents' identity and their "fragile" process towards maturity.

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<sup>1</sup> Parapaedia, refers to bad quality private education in parallel with state education.



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## **APPENDICES**

### **APPENDIX 1**

#### **1.1. *The Greek Comprehensive Senior High school. A critical review***

The Greek Comprehensive Senior High school [Eniaio Lykeio] belongs to the category of upper secondary non-compulsory education. The duration of studies in an Eniaio Lykeio is three (3) years, unless it operates as an Esperino (Evening school), in which case it is four (4) years.

Within the recent educational reform named 'Education 2000' the role and structure of this type of school have changed. In theory, it comprises an autonomous educational stage in its own right and not only a preparatory stage for Tertiary education as it was previously considered to be. The general objectives of the Comprehensive Senior High are:

- to offer general education of a high level to all the students
- it develop the students' aptitudes, creative and critical thinking
- to equip the students with the necessary knowledge and skills to pursue their studies at tertiary level.
- to cultivate students' skills which will after specialization of training, facilitate their access to the labour market

Studies at the Comprehensive Senior Highschool are structured into three grades and students' ages attending the school range from 15 to 18 years old. The 1<sup>st</sup> grade operates as an orientation year with a general knowledge curriculum which is common to all students. The 2<sup>nd</sup> grade includes three "directions" of studies: Theoretical, Science and Technology. In the 3<sup>rd</sup> grade the curriculum includes the same "directions" but Technological direction operates in two courses: i) the Technology and Production course and ii) the Information Science and Services course (the Ministry of National Education and Religious Affairs Website. Retrieved January 24, 2007, from [http://www.ypepth.gr/en\\_ec\\_page1531.htm](http://www.ypepth.gr/en_ec_page1531.htm)).

The concept of evaluation epitomizes the overall philosophy of the recent educational reform but in practice it is implemented only through students' subjection to tests and national exams at the end of each academic year. This exam oriented curriculum fosters a highly competitive school environment and urges the majority of the students to attend private schools named 'frontistiria'<sup>2</sup> which have the purpose to help students cope with the demands of the school subjects. The dramatic increase of the number of 'frontistiria' over the last years depicts the social and psychological problem this system has created. Private tuition costs a lot of money to the students' families and subjects adolescents to work overload and feelings of burn-out.

Moreover, the implementation of the current school curriculum in the adolescent context seems to ignore the contemporary trends and practices in pedagogy such as humanistic, social interactionist and sociocultural approaches to learning,

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<sup>2</sup> An etymological analysis of the word frontistirion > φροντιστήριον=care for, attend to

learner autonomy and the potential of education as a means of empowerment. Also, it underestimates student's cultural diversity and individual differences.

Furthermore, the curriculum seems to ignore the 'voices from the classroom'. That is, the feeling which a significant number of teachers have developed through their teaching experience that the pedagogic objectives of cooperative learning and cultural understanding in the classroom have been lost or put aside. Instead, there is a strong tendency towards competitive classrooms, in which students attempt to prove to themselves, to their classmates, and to the teacher too that they are the best-prepared, the first, or the fastest ones.

## **1.2. The place of English in the Senior High school curriculum**

The teaching of English as a foreign language in the state secondary education of Greece dates back to the early 60s along with French which had already been introduced much earlier. At present, English is a compulsory subject at all three levels of the State Education: primary, secondary and tertiary levels.

According to the Senior High school curriculum English is taught for three hours per week in the 1<sup>st</sup> grade, and two hours per week in the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> grades. The choice of the course books, grammar books and supplementary readers for each grade is made by the teachers themselves according to the students' level, aptitudes and interests. Teachers select from a given bibliography that has been approved by the Ministry of Education and Culture. Students do not sit National Exams for English and this has a serious impact on the status of the subject in the curriculum and the importance adolescents perceive it has for their academic achievement.

## **APPENDIX 2**

### **Description of the schools participated in the study**

#### **2.1. Description of School A**

School A refers to the *Comprehensive Senior Highschool of Xylagani* in the Prefecture of Rodopi, Thrace, Northern Greece. The school can be described as a typical multicultural school and a case of an educational establishment which dramatically changed under the impact of the educational reform in 2000. Small schools in the Greek rural areas fell gradually *into decline* in terms of population and popularity among the students. Indicatively, the population of the school in the academic 1998-1999 was 170 students and in 2005-2006 the total number of the students was only 31. The school is highly technologically equipped but this is not enough to prevent the students' flow towards more popular city schools.

Students come from the agricultural area of South Rodopi which covers five villages with the nearest of them at a short distance from the city of Komotini and the rest of them being more isolated. A common characteristic of the area is the multicultural and multi ethnic origin of the population. Indigenous Christian - Orthodox and Muslim families live together with immigrant families originated from the Balkan peninsula or the countries of the Baltic (ie Russia, Ukraine, Armenia). This comprises the multicultural and multilingual stratum of the school which follows the same curriculum as city schools. In the year this research was



conducted 9 students attended the 1st grade, 7 students attended the 2<sup>nd</sup> grade and 15 students attended the 3<sup>rd</sup> Grade. Twelve secondary teachers of all high school subjects were employed in school.

### 2.1. Description of School B

School B of the study refers to the 3<sup>rd</sup> *Comprehensive Senior HighSchool of Komotini*. The school comprises a typical city middle and upper class multicultural city school. The school consisted of 350 students at the time of the research, segregated into three grades according to age with each grade subdivided into 4 classes of 25-30 students. The school is highly technologically equipped and is considered one of the most prestigious in the area due to the high success rate students have at the University Entrance exams each year. The majority of the students come from middle and upper class families of the Christian Orthodox and the Muslim communities of the city. Very few students come from working class families and especially immigrant families from the Balkan peninsula or the countries of the Baltic (ie Russia, Ukraine, Armenia). Thirty five secondary school teachers covering every school subject of the curriculum were employed to teach in school.

## APPENDIX 3

### Students Mediation Questionnaire

#### Part A

You will read below 12 things that your Teachers could do when teaching the English language. Think and decide **how important you believe** they are. Please tick the box that is **closer** to your beliefs.

#### Personal information

Age:

Sex:

School:

5	Teach you the strategies you need to learn very English effectively	Very important	Quite important	Neutral	Not very important	Not at all important
1	Give you a task to do your own goals					
6	Teach you why you are learning					
2	Help you do set challenges					
7	Explain to you how to develop strategies to meet these challenges					
3	Help you to evaluate your own progress in your ability to learn					
4						

9	Help you to see that if trying there is always a solution to a problem					
10	Teach you to work and co-operate with other students					
11	Help you to develop as an individual					
12	Make you feel that you belong to the classroom community					

### **Part B**

Please mention any other thing(s) you believe they are important:

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*Thank you for your co-operation and contribution.*

### **APPENDIX 4**

#### Questions for the Students Group Interviews

##### **Question 1- on intentionality and reciprocity**

*According to the questionnaire results most of the students believe it is Very Important that the Teachers give clear instructions when they assign you a task . What do you believe on this? Would you like to comment?*

##### **Question 2 - on mediation of meaning**

*Concerning the mediation of meaning there are differences in students' perceptions. In Xylagani Students think it is Very Important to be told about the value of a*

particular activity whereas Students in Komotini perceive it as Quite Important or Neutral. What is your opinion on this? Can you explain?

**Question 3- on mediation of transcendence**

Students of two schools perceive the mediation of transcendence differently. Students in Xylagani believe it is Very Important while the Students in Komotini perceive this as Quite Important or Neutral. Why do you think this is happening? Can you elaborate on this?

**Question 4- on the feeling of competence**

- What do you believe on the idea that your Teachers promote and reinforce the feeling of competence through tasks and activities? Do your Teachers do so? How do you feel about it?

-And what is happening with the students that are not high achievers and they feel they have low confidence? How do the teachers treat them?

**Question 5- on control of behaviour**

A central point in the theory of mediation is the skill to learn how to learn. All students in both schools have the view that it is Very Important. Is this happening at your school and how? What do you think?

**Question 6 - on goal setting**

Now about the mediation of goal seeking, goal setting and goal achieving behavior. The majority of the students in both schools have the view that this feature is Very Important or Quite Important. Do your teachers foster this in their teaching practice?

**Question 7- on challenge**

Students' answers concerning the mediation of challenge, show that there are different perceptions in the two schools. The majority of the students in Xylagani believe that it is Very Important or Quite Important whereas in the Lyceum of Komotini the majority of the Ss believe it is Quite Important or Not Very Important. What is your opinion on this? How do your teachers promote challenge in the classroom?

**Question 8 - on awareness of change**

As far as the mediation of the awareness of change is concerned the majority of the students in both schools believe that it is Very Important or Quite Important that the teacher helps you evaluate your own progress. What are your views on this?

-How do you think this could happen? Do your Teachers foster the notion of change and evaluation in the classroom? Do you take part in your evaluation?

**Question 9 - on positive thinking**

Do you believe it is important that your Teacher develops in Students a positive thinking fostering as a philosophy of life together with a search for an optimistic alternative without giving up? How does your teacher do this?

**Question 10 - on sharing behavior**

*In both schools Ss believe that mediation of sharing behavior is Very Important. Is this happening at your school? Do your Teachers promote co-operation in learning?*

**Question 11 - on individuality**

*All students agreed that mediation of individuality is Very Important. I would like your own views on this. How do you perceive individuality at your age? Do your teachers respect students' individuality?*

*-What about culturally different Students? Our area is multicultural. How do Teachers deal with it in the classroom?*

**Question 12 - on belonging**

*Students perceive differently the mediation of belonging in the two schools. What are your views on this? Do you think it is important that your Ts nurture a sense of belonging to the classroom community? Do your teachers do this?*

**Question 13 - on students' perceptions of the parameters fostering social development according to gender**

*Questionnaire results show that male students think the parameters of mediation fostering social development are more important than those related to the control of one's learning. Would you like to comment on this?*

**Last general question:**

*Would you like to add anything else you believe it is important?*

**APPENDIX 5**Students Group Interviews- A sample transcription

**Interview with students from School B [3<sup>rd</sup> Comprehensive Senior Highschool of Komotini], conducted on 28<sup>th</sup> December 2005**

**Question 1**

**INT.** *According to the questionnaire results most of the students believe it is VI that the Ts give clear instructions when they give you a task to do. What do you believe on this? Would you like to comment?*

**S1.....**That it is very important because if the T gives wrong instructions the S would be misguided with the effect to do the task in a wrong way.

**S2 ....**Yes, I also believe it is very important and perhaps students characterized so because it is often absent ... There is so much pressure on them to cover the expected material from the syllabus and to meet the dead lines so that many times Ts do not explain clearly and Ss have to guess... It is very important Ts to give clear instructions from the beginning so that Ss have adequate time to understand and raise further questions if they have any.

**INT.** *So, you believe that there is kind of a “gap” to fill in here from the part of the Ts.*

**S2.** Yes, I believe there is a gap, and if Ts realize it would save teaching time to all of us, because there shouldn't be a need to extra clarification in the following lesson to tasks and issues that have been introduced in a previous lesson.

## Question 2

**INT.** *Concerning the mediation of meaning there are differences in students perceptions.. In Xylagani Ss think it is VI whereas Ss in Komotini perceive it as QI or Neutral. What is your opinion on this? Can you explain?*

**S2...**I believe it is of not such importance and can become a little boring if Ts tells every time what is the significance of every task we do.

**S1.** I agree. Some things are obvious.

**INT.** *Why do you think there is this difference in Ss perceptions in the Lyceum of Xylagani? Could you give any explanation?*

**S2.** I do not know if Ss in the Lyceum of Xylagani go to a “frontistirio”. In my school a lot of things in the English class are considered “easy” for the Ss because they to a “frontistirio” and they are more conscious on the use and the structure of the English language. Maybe this is the reason.

**S1.** Sure, students here know already most of the things from the “frontistirio”. So, there is no need for the T to emphasize on the meaning of every task.

## Question 3

**INT.** *Carrying on with the 3<sup>rd</sup> question which is related to the mediation of transcendence, there is also a differentiation in the Ss answers according to school. Ss in Xylagani believe it VI contrasted with the Ss in Komotini who perceive it as QI or Neutral. What is your view on this? Why do you think this is happening?*

**S1.** It is the same as the above answers.

**INT.** *Could you elaborate on this?*

**S2.** Perhaps, because we are not so interested our selves in analyzing the reasons why we learn what we learn. We feel so much pressurized by the system and we lack of time to sit down and think how each task or subject is going to help us in the future. Perhaps this is the reason.

**INT.** *...that is you realize sort of a passive attitude from the students, is that you mean or is it something else?*



**S2.** Yes, this is exactly what I mean. We are not interested in finding why each subject is going to help us in the future, we lack time to do so on our own or with our teachers.; we are here just to cover the materials, we are not have time to think and to be critical ....this is how education works in Lykeio and I don't see why it could be a different case with English as a subject.

#### Question 4

**INT.** *What do you believe on the idea that your Ts promote and reinforce the feeling of competence through tasks and activities? Do your Ts do so? How do you feel about it?*

**S1.** Most of the times our Ts reward us with a good grade or with a “well done” that they say but in general they are not so helpful in this issue. For instance when the student is not so good and does not feel so much self confidence because of low grades, teachers do not help him in this.

**INT.** *And what is happening with the students that are not so high achievers? That they feel they have low confidence? How do the teachers treat them?*

**S2.** Now in the Lyceum I attend, there are students with different levels but the students themselves are not so much interested in the subject of English, because they do not sit national exams for it so the students that feel weak they just do not participate in the lesson and Teachers do not care so much to reinforce their self-confidence because they receive a negative attitude. In the High School, things were better, because we had segregated classed according to the students' level so Teachers had more time and energy to boost the weaker students' feeling of confidence. They gave them supplementary materials, and extra work and they encouraged them to carry on their efforts with positive remarks. In Lykeio, students focus on the subjects of the Direction they chose to attend for which they are going to sit national exams and there is no interest in the subjects of General Education. This is a reality which I experience myself.

#### Question 5

**INT.** *Fine, lets move on. As I have told you a central point in the theory of mediation is the skill to learn how to learn. All students in both schools, boys and girls, have the view that it is very important. Is this happening at school? What is do you think?*

**S2.** No, I do not believe this is happening. Learning how to learn for me is learning how to reach information myself, even to learn how to use a dictionary, which is not happening.

**S1.** I also believe it is important, to be trained how to have access to sources but, this is not happening. Probably because Teachers believe that we will learn everything we have to know by their teaching in the classroom or they have the notion that we do not need to know any further than the coursebook or they think that we know everything from the “frontistirio” so we need no extra knowledge.

**INT.** *So, what you say refers to the way the lesson is being taught, am I right? Do your teachers teach how to use any other sources of material apart from the coursebook?*

**S1.** Yes, I refer to the way the lesson is done. If you mean to teach us how to use materials from other sources ie the internet, or the libraries, no most of them they do not.

**INT.** *But as far as I know your school has a good school library and PC laboratories with internet connection. Is that right?*

**S2.** Yes, but I think that the students themselves are not so willing to learn how to use other sources, most of them are negative to the idea of learning how to learn; it takes time and as I mentioned before they feel so much the time pressure as they are oriented to the national exams. I also believe that a lot of things should change in the curriculum. A different teaching methodology should be established. There is no space now for critical thinking to foster, which is important when you look into sources, there is not enough time. I think that the students do appreciate it is very important but they have no time to do it when studying in the Comprehensive Lyceum and these things take much of your already pressing time and energy. I also believe that there are some teachers that wish to integrate innovations in their teaching but they feel they are impeded by the Ministry's general curriculum directions and maybe some of them feel they have not the appropriate training to do so.

**INT.** *I see....*

### **Question 6**

**INT.** *Now about the following question, the mediation of goal seeking, goal setting and goal achieving behavior. The majority of the students in both schools have the view that this feature is VI or QI. Do your teachers do this in their teaching practice?*

**S1.** No, I do not believe this is happening. Most of the teachers are indifferent for the students' goals, their dreams, for each person's goals. They just do their lesson and leave.

**INT.** *Can you elaborate on this? Why do you think this is happening?*

**S1.** Maybe they believe that students are capable of setting their own goals and they do not need help, maybe they do not know how to do it, maybe they do not have the time to help each one separately or they just receive negative feedback from students; they see that students are not so interested in the English subject so they adopt a negative attitude too.

**S2.** Yes, I believe that the students' goals in Lykeio are far more a personal issue and they have mainly to do with succeeding in the National entrance exams for the universities, with entering the School one has chosen, so they don't have to do with English as a school subject. Most of the teachers are aware of this so they do not interfere or they just feel disappointed by the students' negative attitude because as I mentioned the students' goals are very different and utilitarian from the

comprehensive and quality of knowledge they are going to gain while attending the Lyceum . However, teachers should show us how to set goals related with the use and usefulness of the English language which probably most students do not realize at the moment but they will in the future. ....for instance the usefulness of the language as a means of global communication through the internet, later for our studies , for people communication when traveling or for better job qualifications, things that most of us theoretically know but we do not realize their significance right now.

**INT.** *You are right, the notion that we all belong to a global community and can communicate, share ideas ...*

**S2.** Definitely, that English language is not only a subject to get a Pass grade but it a life long instrument of communication among people and it is so wrong that students set goals only regarding the national exams, I believe this is so disorientating for their ongoing life as adults, that they set goals only for utilitarian purposes.

### Question 7

**INT.** *Students answers concerning the mediation of challenge, the search for novelty and complexity show that there are different perceptions in the two schools. The majority of the students in the Lyceum of Xylagani believe that it is VI or QI whereas in the Lyceum of Komotini the majority of the Ss believe it is QI or Not VI. What is your opinion about this?*

**S1.** Probably it has to do with the fact that in Xylagani, students are more dependant on teachers, probably because it is a village and the mentality of the people is different, I mean they appreciate more the teachers' work or probably because not all students can afford or do go to "frontistiria" so that teachers there set challenges for them instead of school.

**INT.** *I see, this an interesting point you make ...*

**S2.** Or, maybe as I said before it has to do with students' goals. In the 3<sup>rd</sup> Comprehensive Lyceum students have already set their personal goals which have to do with the National University entrance exams and they focus on these goals. The competition among students is demanding and very high, especially for the prestigious Schools, so students feel that seeking challenge in the subject of English that does not count for their assessment and their immediate future would mean extra work and extra time that they cannot afford.

### Question 8

**INT.** *Lets move now to the mediation of the awareness of change. The majority of the students in both schools believe that it is VI or QI the teacher to help you evaluate your own progress. What are your views on this?*

**S1.** It is very important because it helps you to see at what level of progress you are and you need to try more. It would be helpful to evaluate your progress in the other subjects too.

**INT.** *OK. How do you think this could happen?*

**S1.** Definitely with the help of the teacher

**INT.** *Could you be more specific?*

**S1.** Probably to reflect on your image in the classroom.

**INT.** *That is....?*

**S2.** Probably with a form of a class diary or a progress diary; the teacher could ask you to reflect and write on your daily progress so when you read it you could see where you met difficulties and discuss it, but I don't think that many students would like this idea or would take it seriously at our age.

**S1.** Or it could be with the use of a questionnaire. The teacher could construct and give in a questionnaire to the students lets say every term or more so that she could see where they feel weak and help them.

**INT.** *Yes that would be a good idea. Could you think of any other ways? Do your Teachers do this?*

**S1.** No, I cannot think of any other ways, I have never bothered to think of evaluation as my responsibility. We are used to the teacher as being the evaluator.

**S2.** Yes, usually the teacher evaluates our progress. Of course we write tests, we take exams but the teacher gives the final grades; we do not have a word in the way our evaluation is being conducted. I have never thought about it actually. We know that we have to take the exams and we just sit for the exams. Now that I think about it we depend on the tests and the exams in Lyceum, but I guess that is how the system works. We are all aware of it.

**INT.** *Are you critical about your teachers' evaluation ?*

**S2.** I do not think we are. If we like the grade it's ok. If not, we cannot do anything else but try harder next term. All we care is to reach the grades we need to enter the School we're interested in or to pass the class. Usually we are not interested to reflect or to be critical on our progress evolution.

**INT.** *That's interesting .....*

## **Question 9**

**INT.** *Do you believe it is important that your Ts develop in Ss a positive thinking fostering as a philosophy of life together with a search for an optimistic alternative without giving up ?How does your teacher do this?*

**S2.** I believe it is very important the T to develop this in Ss, keeping also in mind that school life is also a means of social development...Being a Comprehensive Lyceum student is sometimes so demanding and can be at times so frustrating that if you do not develop a positive thinking you cannot manage.

**INT.** *And how can a T help a Ss that is not a high achiever to develop a positive thinking?*

**S1.** The T should devote more time and effort to find a way to foster positive thinking in weaker Ss and strengthen the Ss self-confidence. But this is something that very few Ts get into trouble to do. Most of them the do the lesson in a common way for all students regardless Ss levels and real needs.

**S2.** I do not agree with this. Actually I remember a teacher of mine who from the very first days of her teaching researched and identified the weaker Ss and paid more attention to them in every lesson or after the lesson by asking even the shy ones if they met any difficult points and she gave help wherever she could. I think we cannot generalize here, it would not be fair; I think it depends very much on the Teacher and her beliefs.