Organization of English Language Teaching and Leadership Impact in Non-Governmental Centres

A Comparative Study between Stockholm and Thessaloniki

Master’s Thesis

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Abstract
The significance of the English language is unquestionable in today's globalized era and, as a consequence, the importance of its teaching starting from a young age doubtless. Formal teaching occurring at educational centres such as private and public schools is one side of learning; there is, however, the non-formal aspect which gains increasing support and it refers to the private tuition delivered in non-governmental centres in Europe. Sweden and Greece, two European countries, have adopted this kind of learning presenting, nevertheless, a number of differences as well as similarities regarding the organization of teaching English as a foreign language in non-governmental centres and the overall practices of leadership that affect not only the organization of teaching, but its practitioners as well, the teachers.

The study took place in three non-governmental educational centres, one in Stockholm and two in Thessaloniki and the participants were leaders of the centres or head teachers and English teachers. The qualitative approach to research was employed and the data was collected through literature review, semi-structured interviews in all three centres and observations in two of the three, one in Stockholm and one in Thessaloniki, due to availability. The sample of the research, being small, does not allow for generalizations of the practices of the centres in the two countries. The data collected and transcribed produced five themes that contributed to the analysis and discussion of the findings: the organization of English language teaching taking into consideration the subthemes of comprehensible instruction, negotiation of meaning, content area instruction and sensitivity as well as the ideology and approaches based on which teaching is carried out; the aims of the teachers and the leaders concerning the students and the centres as well as each participant’s personal development; the collaboration or lack of it among the personnel of each centre; the impact of the leadership on teaching and on choosing materials; and, lastly, the already acquired qualifications of leaders and teachers and the ones necessary for recruitment in each centre.

The findings demonstrated great differences among the centres of the two countries and between the two countries with the main dissimilarity being the aim of the non-governmental institution’s existence and the ages that usually enrol. In Stockholm, the aim of such centres is not merely one and it depends on the students’ needs and wants. The usual enrolling ages are people over the age of twenty. On the contrary, in Thessaloniki, the purpose of enrolment is mainly the attainment of a foreign language certificate and students enrol starting at the age of eight. Collaboration among the teachers seems a common phenomenon in Thessaloniki, however, this is not always the case in the centre examined in Stockholm. In addition, the
leadership style employed does not greatly influence the teaching and materials of the teachers in the Stockholm centre, however, a greater influence is demonstrated as became evident by the interviewees in the two centres in Thessaloniki. Lastly, the main qualifications of the teachers in all the centres is a Bachelor’s degree and most of them seem to have been further educated through acquiring teaching licenses, diplomas and certificates on the practices and methodological approaches of English teaching, along with staying up to date with any news that reflects on their teaching through seminars and conferences.
Acknowledgments
There are a number of people that I would like to thank, the support of whom was a considerable contribution to the implementation of this thesis. First and foremost, I would like to express my sincerest gratitude to my supervisor, Dr. Christine McNab, for her patience, guidance and constructive feedback throughout the whole process of the research and writing of this thesis. I would also like to extend my appreciation to all the professors of the Institute of International Education for imparting their knowledge and expertise throughout my two years of studying at Stockholm University. A great thanks to Student Counsellor, Emma West, is due here for her great support in practical and technical matters and for her presence and assistance in arising issues. Furthermore, my deep gratitude goes to the participants of the three centres, without the participation of whom this thesis would not have been implemented as designed. Last but not least, I would like to thank the people who provided me with emotional support, my family and friends, who were always there along the way and whose contribution is highly appreciated.
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Abbreviations

Greek

IEK- Ινστιτούτο Επαγγελματικής Κατάρτισης/ Vocational Training Institute

ΠΕΑΠ/ΕYL- Πρόγραμμα Εκμάθησης της Αγγλικής σε Πρώιμη Παιδική Ηλικία/ English for Young Learners

ΠΙ- Παιδαγωγικό Ινστιτούτο/ Pedagogic Institute

English

CEF- Common European Framework

CEFR- Common European Framework of Reference

CLIL- Content and Language Integrated Learning

CLT- Communicative Language Teaching

EFL- English as a Foreign Language

EU- European Union

L1- First Language

L2- Second Language

TBI- Task-Based Instruction

UNESCO- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
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1. Introduction
The main reason why English as a foreign language attracts so much attention as to the way it is taught is because it holds the status of one of the most widely spoken languages in the world, along with Chinese and Spanish, and it is the most widely utilized language for communication in all aspects of social, professional and cultural life among different cultures. As Crystal et al. (as qtd. in Marlina, 2011, pp. 7-8) insightfully point out “[t]he English language currently enjoys the status of an international language. It is inescapably one of the chosen languages in a variety of international economic and cultural arenas such as the language of international organizations, motion picture industry and popular music, international travel, publications, and education”. Thus, it comes as no surprise that a lot of attention must be paid to the ways with which new generations are educated on foreign languages and more particularly English. Additionally, and considering its current status and relatively rapid expansion, it is one of the subjects that has sparked a lot of reforms in a number of countries of the world as to the ways and approaches with which it is to be taught. Nowadays, there are changes made to a lot of aspects of teaching English at school, textbooks, the hours allocated to teaching, the methodologies applied by the teachers in the classroom, the equipment and a wide range of other facets.

Apart from teaching instruction taking place within the school environment, English teaching has also been established as a subject in non-governmental centres, a form of education which has become quite popular. The present research focuses on the organization of English teaching in non-governmental centres and to the effect of leadership on the teaching practices in Sweden and Greece. The selection of the two countries was not a random one, but rather there were a number of criteria that narrowed down the choice to these two countries and more specifically, the cities of Stockholm and Thessaloniki.

Sweden and Greece both belong to the European Union, as of 1995 and 1981 respectively, and Swedish and Greek, which are the official languages of the countries, are two of the 24 official languages of the European Union (Council of Europe, 2001). It is because both countries have a different official language other than English that they both require the learning and teaching of English as a foreign language at schools and non-governmental centres for their integration and participation in international and global affairs. For a more graphic representation, the following figure illustrates the most spoken languages in the EU by native and foreign language speakers and the strength of the English language:
Table 1. The five numerically strongest EU languages, based on the official EU survey conducted in May-June 2005.

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Language</th>
<th>% of EU population</th>
<th>% native speakers</th>
<th>% foreign language speakers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italian</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Igawa & Yagi, 2011)

Since 1995 the European Union has rendered language learning and competence as one of the Union’s priorities and established a number of regulations, instructions and programmes for the support of learning foreign languages (Antoniou, Melidou, Nikopoulos, 2015). These rules and regulations were initiated under the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR). More specifically, CEFR provides the regulations around which “language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc.” are to be organized in Europe (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 2). The framework describes the skills and knowledge that language learners need to develop in order to facilitate communication, the cultural context of the language setting and the levels of proficiency for knowledge measurement (ibid.). The aims and objectives of CEFR as a collaborative framework will be further discussed in the literature review section of the paper, however, what is of importance for this research is that both governmental and non-governmental centres need to cooperate for the “development of methods of teaching and evaluation in the field of modern language learning and in the production and use of materials” (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 2).

1.1 Aims and Objectives

The aim of the research is to examine the way in which English language teaching is organized in language centres in Stockholm and Thessaloniki, whether the leadership style of each institution affects teaching and if so, in what ways. The research attempts to provide a more in-depth understanding of the leadership styles and methods of the selected centres and demonstrate the relationship between English language teaching and leadership in the specific contexts. This is to be achieved through solid fieldwork, interviews and observations via the qualitative approach.
Along with the main aims of the research, this study also hopes to underline the differences between the two cases in terms of out-of-school language education and any similarities. Therefore, this study’s purpose is to develop an explanatory theory and useful analysis of the research findings that will, hopefully, be of relevance for future related studies or for any possible improvements in this particular sector.

1.2 Research Questions
“A research question is a question that provides an explicit statement of what it is the researcher wants to know about” (Bryman, 2012, p. 9). Thus, the research was conducted with the following questions as a guide:

1) How is English teaching organized in language centres in Thessaloniki and Stockholm taking into account the teachers’ qualifications and position in the centre?
2) How is teaching affected by the leader’s qualifications, leadership style and implementation of recruitment processes?
3) What are the similarities and differences among the centres of the two cities, how are they discernible and what are the reasons behind them?

1.3 Significance of the study
The importance of English language is always underlined and is realized in everyday life. English language teaching, therefore, is a significant part for the personal, cultural, social and professional development of a person in a globalized world. Even though there has been a variety of researches conducted on the topic of English language, especially on the matter of its acquisition as a second or foreign language, there is insufficient data on English language teaching outside of the formal school curriculum and within the confines of an extracurricular language centre. The two cases selected are also of significance, based on the countries’ current position mainly in Europe as is explained in the context of the study, but also because a comparison between them would illustrate the practices of teaching one of the most widespread languages around the globe.

In addition, the topic of leadership in education is one that has occupied a lot of researchers through the years because of its complex nature and its continuing development. A number of leadership and management models have been identified in order to understand the best practices of the two domains in education both in formal and non-formal educational environments.
1.4 Limitations

The intention of the study is to narrowly focus on investigating the role of the teachers in a language centre, how they organize their teaching within its rules and guidelines and how their principal/leader affects them. The small number of participants makes it impossible to generalize the results in the cities of Stockholm and Thessaloniki, even more so in Sweden and Greece. Participants’ responses and opinions serve to inform and strengthen the conclusions drawn from the document review and the researcher’s previous and personal knowledge and experience, but the scale and scope of the study significantly limits the generalizability of the research findings.

Another limitation that arises from this research is that all of the interviews were conducted in English and in all cases the interviewees were non-native English speakers. Apart from a limitation this also proved to be a challenge for the interviewer since sometimes the participants did not understand what the question was about and the researcher had to explain. Consequently, there is the risk of misinterpretation or lost meaning during the interpretation process, even though the researcher was very careful and attentive both during the interviews and the transcription process.

It must also be noted that the researcher did not take into account any linguistic similarities or dissimilarities between the two languages, Swedish and Greek, in relation to English. This can be viewed as a limitation of this research because it may prove to be a feature that influences the teaching practices of English as a foreign language which was not examined in the present research.

Lastly, it must be acknowledged that the researcher was educated and gathered experience as a new teacher in Greece and, this can be seen as an advantage concerning the researcher’s and interviewees’ common native language. More specifically, and in addition to the choice of qualitative approach to the research, “objectivity is challenged” and the researcher “had sustained and intimate contact and relationships with [her] subjects” (Fairbrother, as qtd. in Bray et al. 2007, p. 42). In addition, there are several points that might have eluded the attention of the researcher, however, secondary resources providing a distant perspective are of assistance to clear out the risk of any bias and omission.
2. Theories and Concepts

2.1 Key Concepts

2.1.1 Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR)

CEFR’s significance for this research is unquestionable as it is within this framework that the two countries, Sweden and Greece, are compared to each other concerning language teaching and learning. CEFR provides the guidelines that every European country follows regarding the aims and objectives of language policies. Guidelines and policies are sketched out by adhering to three basic principles:

- The is a rich heritage of languages and cultures in Europe should not be viewed as a communication barrier, but rather “as a source of mutual enrichment and understanding” (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 2).
- This is to be done through education of modern languages that will bring the cultures together and establish a rapport that will eliminate any bias and prejudice among them.
- “member states, when adopting or developing national policies in the field of modern language learning and teaching, may achieve greater convergence at the European level by means of appropriate arrangements for ongoing co-operation and co-ordination of policies” (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 2).

Abiding by these principles means that collaboration between governmental and non-governmental centres needs to be formed, as was mentioned in the introduction of this paper, and use of information technology should be promoted so as all aspects of modern language learning, teaching and assessment are examined and covered (ibid.).

A sought-after outcome of modern language teaching at schools is for students to become multilingual, so as to be able to understand a number of languages which undoubtedly aids European mobility and understanding among the cultures to a greater extent. However, the Council of Europe within the Common European Framework (CEF) aims even further, to achieve plurilingualism. The concept of plurilingualism differs from multilingualism in that by developing the former the learner “builds up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages interrelate and interact. In different situations, a person can call flexibly upon different parts of this competence to achieve effective communication with a particular interlocutor” (Council of
Europe, 2001, p. 4). Therefore, while multilingualism is attained by learning a number of languages, plurilingualism provides a more in-depth understanding of a specific language’s culture as it expands from the concept of being learnt at school to that of the society.

Since the importance of CEFR is underlined as uniting the member states of the European Union under one framework of languages that aims at understanding and mobility, its uses are also demonstrated in the table below:

### Table 2. The uses of CEFR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The planning of language learning programmes in terms of:</th>
<th>The planning of language certification in terms of:</th>
<th>The planning of self-directed learning including:</th>
<th>Learning programmes and certification can be:</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>- their assumptions regarding prior knowledge, and their articulation with earlier learning, particularly at interfaces between primary, lower secondary, upper secondary and higher/further education; - their objectives; - their content</td>
<td>- the content syllabus of examinations; - assessment criteria, in terms of positive achievement rather than negative deficiencies</td>
<td>- raising the learner’s awareness of his or her present state of knowledge; - self-setting of feasible and worthwhile objectives; - selection of materials; - self-assessment</td>
<td>- <strong>global</strong>, bringing a learner forward in all dimensions of language proficiency and communicative competence; - <strong>modular</strong>, improving the learner’s proficiency in a restricted area for a particular purpose; - <strong>weighted</strong>, emphasizing learning in certain directions and producing a ‘profile’ in which a higher level is attained in some areas of knowledge and skill than others; - <strong>partial</strong>, taking responsibility only for certain activities and skills (e.g. reception) and leaving others aside</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Adapted from Council of Europe, 2001)

In order for its uses to be as holistic and feasible as possible, CEFR guidelines need to be structured based on the objectives and needs of the member states and be characterized by flexibility in practice.
CEFR is also the framework that decides the levels of proficiency in a foreign language. According to the Council of Europe these are the levels of competency that learners of the member states are categorized into:

![Levels of competency in foreign languages according to CEFR](Source: Council of Europe, 2001, p. 23)

2.1.2 Communicative Language Teaching

Communicative language teaching (CLT) is the most common and CEFR preferred approach in foreign language teaching and therefore acts to the benefit and within the guidelines of the Common European Framework. The Centre of Applied Linguistics (as qtd. in Inju Tendoh, 2012) defines CLT as an approach that creates a classroom environment where real-life situations are simulated and emphasized in order to facilitate communication and prepare students for communicative contexts that they will encounter outside of the classroom. CLT “refers to both processes and goals in classroom learning” (Brandl, 2007, p. 1) with the main focus being on communication. Learning a foreign language following this approach depends on the motivation of learners to develop their communicative competence in any given context they find themselves in.

Communicative competence, as the focal aim of CLT, is elucidated as “the ability to interpret and enact appropriate social behaviours, and it requires the active involvement of the learner in the production of the target language” (Canale and Swain; Celce-Murcia et al.; Hymes as qtd. in Brandl, 2007, pp. 5-6). Communicative competence, however, does not stand alone as a concept as it entails the advance of:

- **Linguistic competence**, which is the knowledge of vocabulary and grammar,
- **Sociolinguistic competence**, which denotes the ability to use specific language in specific contexts,
- **Discourse competence**, which signifies the ability to create and participate in a conversation in a coherent and cohesive manner, and
- **Strategic competence**, which is the ability to solve communication problems when they arise

(Brandl, 2007, p. 6)

The interrelation and simultaneous progression of all the components is shown in the figure below, where linguistic competence has been replaced by grammatical competence, and sociolinguistic by sociocultural:
Each component is of importance to the development of communicative competence and they cannot be measured in isolation (ibid.). When growth of one component is attained there is interaction of that component with the others “to produce a corresponding increase” (ibid).

CLT may be defined as a learning approach, however, it is not a method in the full sense of the term. As it chiefly focuses on the needs of the learners and the variety of possible contexts that are to encompass the learners at any given time, there are no specific rules and guidelines for the construction of a syllabus or curriculum (Brandl, 2007). Rather it employs a variety of methods and techniques that prove beneficial for the students as to what they should know and how they should make use of the language. Both Brandl (2007) and Savignon (n.d.) agree that the theories used in CLT are drawn from a variety of fields such as cognitive science,
Even though CLT is not a clear cut method, there are a number of qualities that have been reached upon consensus that assist in its definition as an approach. The first of the qualities as suggested by Wesche and Skehan (as qtd. in Brandl, 2007, p. 7) is that interaction among learners aims at exchanging information and solving problems as part of the strategic competence of communication. The second quality of CLT is associated to the use of authentic materials in the classroom, that is, materials that are not designed for pedagogic purposes, but rather reflect real-life materials that were not meant to be taught in a classroom or taught at all. The third and most weighty quality is that CLT is a student-centred approach. The student is allowed to be creative and have a saying a number of times on the instructional decisions of the lessons. The learner’s needs and backgrounds are considered and thus, the lesson is more appropriately adapted to him/her. One addition that could be made to the third quality or could be considered as a fourth one of the CLT is the role of the teacher. In communicative learning, the teacher assumes the role of the mentor and the facilitator of communication. He/she is “an organizer who monitors the strengths and weaknesses of the students so as to ensure the occurrence of effective learning” (Inju Tendoh, 2012, p. 11).

Apart from the general qualities of the CLT as a learning approach, there are several principles that act as guidelines for the practices of communicative learning in the classroom.
The first principle of CLT advocates the use of tasks for organization. There are a number of suggestions and opinions on what a task is and which elements constitute a task, however, all have a number of characteristics in common (Brandl, 2007).

- “focus on meaning” (Brandl, 2007, p. 8)
- “use of real-world tasks or activities that are comparable to authentic task behaviour” (Long; Skehan as qtd. in Brandl, 2007, p. 8)
- “task performance often involves achieving a goal or an objective, or arriving at an outcome or end product” (Skehan, as qtd. in Brandl, 2007, p. 9)
- “task performance may entail employing a single skill or a combination of several skills” (Nunan, as qtd. in Brandl, 2007, p. 9)
According to Nunan (as qtd. in Brandl, 2007) there are two kinds of tasks that can be found in a classroom: the real-world tasks and the pedagogical tasks. As becomes apparent, the real-world tasks are those tasks that reflect real-life situations and promote “authentic behaviour” along with the skills that learners need in order to function within these situations (ibid.) aiming at the achievement of an end product. Pedagogical tasks, on the other hand, are characterized as “preparation” or “assimilation” tasks (ibid) as they mostly prepare and inform learners on how real-life situations are like and they take into account the “teacher’s pedagogical goal, the learner’s developmental stage and skill level, and the social contexts of the second language learning environment” (Brandl, 2007, p. 9). Another distinction that could be made at this point is the difference in materials used, where, as is expected, authentic materials are more likely to be used in real-world tasks while non-authentic materials in pedagogical tasks. The Council of Europe (Brandl, 2001, p. 9) describes tasks in the following way: “We speak of ‘tasks’ in so far as the actions are performed by one or more individuals strategically using their own specific competences to achieve a given result”.

CLT, therefore, employs the technique of task-based instruction (TBI) which promotes the use of tasks for long-term lesson plans that aim at the inductive learning of grammar and the emphasis on the development of communicative skills (Brandl, 2007, p. 7).

The second principle is closely related to TBI and is a part of it. Learn by doing is strongly suggested as an element of TBI and CLT and it encourages the expression of meanings on the part of the students after they had been introduced to productive skills (Brandl, 2007) which are speaking and writing. Production is a way of communication and expression of skills and knowledge and this is what CLT advocates overall. Students are more active within the classroom, a quality which they can use outside of the school environment as well and become more fluent and avid learners by re-producing everything they have been taught in the classroom reflecting real-life situations.

The third and fourth principles refer to input. “Rich input entails ‘realistic samples of discourse use surrounding native speaker and non-native speaker accomplishments of targeted tasks” (Doughty and Long, as qtd. in Brandl, 2007, p. 12). Exposure of students to rich input in the classroom comes from a variety of materials and practices. In order to be well acquainted with the foreign language, students need to be exposed to it within the classroom through media (videos, movies, songs, listening to the radio, internet etc.), but the role of the teacher is equally important. Since the teacher’s role in CLT assumes the
responsibility of the mentor and facilitator, he/she must make sure that there is ample use of the target language both on the part of the teacher and on the part of the students so as to maximize the experience and exposure to the language. In order to provide as rich an input as possible, the teacher must employ authentic materials to simulate real-life situations and demands in the classroom. In addition, input also needs to be meaningful, comprehensible and elaborated in a sense that it is not only clear enough for the learner to acquire and “assimilate” (Brandl, 2007, p. 16), but it also needs to be in line with the learner’s already possessed knowledge (ibid).

Cooperative and collaborative learning emerge as the fifth principle of CLT and comprise a great part of communicative learning. “In such an approach, classrooms are organized so that students work together in small cooperative teams, such as groups or pairs, to complete activities” (Brandl, 2007, p. 18). Cooperation and collaboration create an environment that allows the completion of tasks in the most communicative way possible as learners are not only receiving information, but also producing it. They become active participants by contributing ideas and opinions, but also listeners that allow their classmates’ ideas to be heard. Communication is based on the development of both receptive and productive skills and in the classroom group and pair work highlights interaction. The Council of Europe (2001) describes the communicative language learning approach as an action-based approach which aims at viewing the learners as “social agents” (p. 9) who function in an interactive society. “The action-based approach therefore also takes into account the cognitive, emotional and volitional resources and the full range of abilities specific to and applied by the individual as a social agent” (ibid). It appears that individuality is hailed in the same way as socialization and interaction does as two elements that contribute to a learner’s wholesome development.

It only comes as a corollary that within an approach that emphasizes meaning and communication, grammar would have a secondary role in the way it is taught. The sixth principle of CLT shows that grammar is taught inductively “within contexts and through communicative tasks” (Brandl, 2007, p. 19). Explicit teaching of grammar in this case means that at some point during the course of instruction the rules of grammar will be taught deductively as in that the rules will be laid out to the students (ibid). However, in communicative learning a focus on form approach shows that grammar is taught through communication and interaction in tasks.
In any approach to language learning, feedback is of paramount importance. There are two kinds of feedback: positive feedback which assures the learner of the correct responses he/she has given; and negative feedback which is also known as error correction feedback (Brandl, 2007, p. 19). Both are needed for the holistic development of a student in learning a language “since they allow the learner to either accept, reject, or modify a hypothesis about correct language use” (ibid).

Lastly, there is the need for respect and recognition of the affective factors of learning as the eighth principle. Apart from the diversity in learning styles that teachers need to be aware of, they must also recognize and respect the impact of other factors that play an important role in language learning, such as motivation, anxiety, aptitude, as well as external factors, which will be discussed in more detail further below, such as the environment in which a student acts. It is the duty of the educational system and the teacher to take into consideration all these factors when utilizing the communicative approach to learning.

2.1.3 Content and Language Integrated Learning- CLIL
This section will briefly focus on one of the methods that is increasingly expanding in the practices of foreign language teaching and learning and which, in general, “is gaining ground in European education systems” (British Council, n.d.). Content and language integrated learning or CLIL is a “competence-based teaching approach” (ibid.) which aims at learning the language while learning about a subject. All the components that are involved in language learning are integrated in the content of the subjects being taught creating a more “challenging and intensive” (University of Cambridge, n.d.) environment for the students. What also facilitates such a challenging environment is that the subjects are taught through the “medium of a non-native language” (ibid.) and within a number of diverse educational contexts.

Language learning, of course, does not only include the components of grammar, syntax and other morphological structures. Learning a language with CLIL curricula “promote[s] the right interpersonal skills, cultural sensitivity and communication and language abilities which are in demand by today’s employers” (British Council, n.d.). Therefore, more structured forms of language learning come second to cultural awareness, communication and development of social relationships which are crucial parts of the CLIL method.

One of the terms that is closely associated with CLIL method and is of significance to the current research is authenticity. Based on Richard Pinner’s (2013) survey on authenticity in
CLIL there are three areas where the term is used and which are illustrated in the following figure:

![Figure 4. The three domains of authenticity](image)

(Source: Pinner, 2013, p. 45)

These overlapping categories are what define authenticity according to Pinner (2013) and which are of great significance for and influence on learning. Authentic materials and authentic language have been so far described as those materials that are not related to the book and are not made for the classroom, but are rather taken from everyday resources to depict how language is used in everyday life. These may include newspaper articles or internet articles, restaurant menus, brochures and everything that was not cut out to be utilized as classroom material. In addition, authentic language reflects the use of language in a way that is not adapted for classroom use, but rather in a way that can be seen employed in everyday life. In this case, the teacher does not adapt his/her speech to match the needs of the students, but instead speaks as if he/she would normally speak outside of the classroom. In both of these situations students learn to acquire the language in an authentic way and use it as such.

However, Pinner (2013) advocates that the above definitions are not consistent anymore and a number of reasons are presented as his basis. First and foremost, the definition of authentic materials which “were usually thought to be texts or samples of language from the target culture [and] were not designed for learning purposes” (p. 45) is viewed as problematic. This is mainly because such a definition links authenticity to just one culture (Pinner, 2013)
without taking into account the influences that cultures receive from one another in the present era. Furthermore, authenticity used to be linked to native speakers’ use of the language (ibid.), nevertheless, in today’s world, and in the case of the English language, there are more non-native speakers speaking the language than native ones (L1s) and such a description of authentic would omit the use of the language on the part of a considerable amount of L2 speakers (ibid.). Authenticity in these terms, therefore, is an inadequate term to use when employing the CLIL method in teaching because “CLIL emphasizes content learning through another language, and that content knowledge is likely universal and not necessarily bound to any one culture” (Pinner, 2013, p.45).

Since CLIL targets the content to be learned and not the community of learners, authenticity within the CLIL method is one of ‘purpose’ (Coyle et al., as qtd. in Pinner, 2013, p. 46) meaning that importance does not fall on the learning of the language per se, but rather on the content for which the language used acts as a tool, a medium of instruction. “Thus the authentic purpose and the learning of meaningful content lend their authenticity to the language; authentic language should arise as a natural by-product of these types of meaningful interaction” (Pinner, 2013, p.46).

It appears, therefore, that authenticity is not simply a directly related element of CLIL, but even more so a component of the method’s definition. More specifically, “[a]uthenticity finds itself being referred to often as a defining aspect of CLIL” (ibid.) and that “the great advantage afforded by CLIL is that the content subjects give rise to ‘real communication’ by tapping into a great reserve of ideas, concepts and meanings” (Dafton-Puffer, as qtd. in Pinner, 2013, p. 46).

Lastly, to sum up the CLIL method in one quote it is “using language to learn, learning to use language” (British Council, n.d.).

2.2 Theoretical Background

2.2.1 Educational leadership and management

Educational leadership and management has been growing exponentially as a field. It has reached the point where it is viewed as a key element for occurring developments within the educational domain. A lot of light has been shed upon it and, consequently, a lot of theories came into being. For clarification reasons and deeper realization of the concepts of leadership and management the differences of the two need to be discussed. Apart from clarification, the
distinction will also show how leadership and management are organized in the centres selected from Sweden and Greece.

2.2.1.1 What is educational leadership?
There is a variety of concepts which are defined in different ways that can all be considered acceptable even though there is not one specific definition that exists for each concept. This is the case with the concept of educational leadership. Sigford (2005) states that there is no such thing as perfect interpretation of what educational leadership is as a number of factors contribute to its flexibility as a term. Furthermore, in his *Theories of Educational Leadership and Management*, Bush (2011) further supports this statement by advocating that there cannot exist merely one definition of what leadership is in the educational context. There are bound to be differences in the field and therefore, forming a clear and standard definition of educational leadership would prove a very challenging if not impossible task. As Yukl (as qtd. in Bush, 2011) argued “the definition of leadership is arbitrary and very subjective. Some definitions are more useful than others, but there is no ‘correct’ definition” (p. 5).

Nevertheless, the need to define leadership in the educational context one way or another emerged and a few key points and features that lead to a number of acceptable definitions arose. More specifically, Kotter (as qtd. in Lunenberg, 2011) points out that the leadership process entails the following features:

a) Developing a vision for the organization
b) Aligning people with that vision through communication
c) Motivating people to action through empowerment and through basic need fulfilment

(p. 1)

From the characteristics above one can get a clearer picture of what the role of the leader in an educational institution entails. First and foremost, there needs to be a vision which the institution must strive towards achieving. The leader assumes responsibility for this vision and his basic duties are to communicate the ideas through which the vision will be accomplished and also motivate the people involved in the implementation of the vision which are usually comprised by the teachers and the rest of the institution personnel by fulfilling their needs and providing them with the appropriate environment and conditions within which they are required to work. Richard DuFour’s (as qtd. in Sigford, 2005) view on educational leadership complements Kotter’s by stating that “leadership creates a shared
mission and values among the staff, collaborative teams, action orientation and experimentation, continuous improvement, and results orientation” (p. 4).

Adding to the attempt at defining educational leadership, Bush (2011) provides “three dimensions of leadership that may be identified as a basis for developing a working definition” (p. 5). These are leadership as influence; leadership and values; and, leadership and vision.

Leadership as influence discusses that leadership presupposes a kind of influence that is intentional and assumes a social role. This influence “is exerted by one person [or group] over other people [or groups] to structure the activities and relationships in a group or organization” (Yukol, as qtd. in Bush, 2011, p. 6). Leadership, therefore, involves an amount of influence that is performed consciously on the part of the leader in order to achieve the outcomes underlined by the vision of each institution. However, this does not mean that only leaders who assume high and formal positions in an institution are only responsible or the only ones in charge of influencing internal or external stakeholders. The personnel and other groups or individuals involved in the educational process of each institution influence directly or indirectly decisions, visions and outcomes, however, it all depends on the model and specific way of leadership, which will be discussed further in a following sub-chapter. As influence is, thus, a considerable force in decision-making and vision of an institution, DuFour and Eaker (as qtd. in Sigford, 2005) propose some characteristics that delineate an effective leader and which are in line with the influential process involved in leadership. The first step that an effective leader is to follow is to “lead through shared visions and values rather than through rules and procedures” (p. 11). Although this predisposes influence and collaboration, it is worthy to mention that not all styles of leadership are guided by the same practices and since there are hardly any situations alike within the educational context this proves a very perplexing task for the leader to accomplish. Nevertheless, shared values, opinions and vision that involve all the stakeholders is an ideal style of implementation. This last statement leads to the second step proposed which is for leaders to “involve faculty members in school’s decision-making process and empower individuals to act” (ibid). As has already been mentioned, not all leadership styles operate in a collaborative manner, and thus, this step could be addressed to those that do. It clearly depends on what success and effectiveness mean for each institution that those steps are to be taken into consideration. Lastly, the leaders are to “provide staff with the information, training, and parameters they need to make a good decision” (ibid). Providing with information, training and a suitable
environment is one of the main tasks of leaders and closely related to influence as what the leaders provide their personnel with is closely linked to the outcomes of the institution.

The other two dimensions that Bush (2011) offered, namely leadership and values and leadership and vision, are directly linked to the first one that views leadership as an influence. In particular, all three of them are interrelated and dependent on one another as in order to have a vision and achieve it the stakeholders and everyone involved need to share the same values while both are attained through the influence that the leader(s) exert. Bush (2011) insightfully points out that “leaders are expected to ground their actions in clear personal and professional values” (p. 6).

2.2.1.2 What is educational management?

For a successful and efficient implementation and attainment of vision and goals, leadership does not act alone, but interacts with management. Similar to the concept of educational leadership, there is not one way to delineate what educational management refers to. A study module provided by UNESCO on educational management asserts that management can be given in a wide range of definitions due to the variety of people, times and contexts (UNESCO, n.d.). According to Bush (2011, p. 1)

Educational management is a field of study and practice concerned with the operation of educational organizations. There is no single generally accepted definition of the subject because its development has drawn heavily on several more firmly established disciplines, including sociology, political science, economics and general management.

However, as it is the case with educational leadership, management in education is pertained by a number of features that contribute to its working definition. Management involves all the actions necessary for the smooth operation of an institution and is concerned with the aims and purpose of the educational institution (Bush, 2011; Sigford, 2005; Lunenberg, 2011).

As leadership provides and communicates the vision as well as the purpose and aims of the institution, management is concerned with realizing them in any way possible and in a more practical manner. As Lunenberg (2011) puts it “managers advocate stability and the status quo” (p. 1).

In short, the following figures illustrate the management functions of an institution (Fig. 5) and the three main interrelated domains of the management functions (Fig. 6) termed as “the egg model” by UNESCO (n.d.).
Figure 5. Management functions

(Source: UNESCO, n.d.)

Figure 6. The Egg model of the management functions
2.2.1.3 Distinction between educational leadership and management

To summarize the ideas presented above, the following figure (Fig. 7) demonstrates in a clear way how leadership and management are compared. Overall, the two functions are interconnected and are both needed for the creation and implementation of a vision through specific objectives. The interrelation of the two is shown in the words of Sigford (2005) who maintains that context is of key importance to management and that skills are to be developed and employed within a specific context. “When successful management is strategically integrated into leadership, then the leader is able to cause leadership to happen” (p. 14). Lastly, to quote Bennis (as qtd. in Lunenberg, 2011, p. 2) “managers do things right, while leaders do the right things”.

Table 3. Comparisons between leadership and management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Leadership</th>
<th>Management</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thinking Process</td>
<td>Focuses on people</td>
<td>Focuses on things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Looks outward</td>
<td>Looks inward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal Setting</td>
<td>Articulates a vision</td>
<td>Executes plans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Creates the future</td>
<td>Improves the present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sees the forest</td>
<td>Sees the trees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee Relations</td>
<td>Empowers</td>
<td>Controls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Colleagues</td>
<td>Subordinates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Trusts &amp; develops</td>
<td>Directs &amp; coordinates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operation</td>
<td>Does the right things</td>
<td>Does things right</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Creates change</td>
<td>Manages change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Serves subordinates</td>
<td>Serves superordinates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Governance</td>
<td>Uses influence</td>
<td>Uses authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Uses conflict</td>
<td>Avoids conflict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Acts decisively</td>
<td>Acts responsibly</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: J. Lodiaga, Kenya Education Staff Institute, Nairobi, Kenya in UNESCO, n.d.)

2.2.2 Models of educational leadership and management

A number of time is has been mentioned in the previous sub-sections that there is not one dominant definition of either leadership or management as they are fashioned depending on the leadership and management styles that the institution adopts. At this point, the models of
leadership and management are to be introduced and illustrated in the following table. This is not to say that the categorization that ensues is the only one available, however, based on this division the points are clearer as to the models adopted by the centres at hand in the present research. In addition, the following categories are divided into two columns in such a way which demonstrates the management models and their matching leadership ones and vice versa.

Table 4. Typology of management and leadership models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Management models</th>
<th>Leadership models</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>Managerial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collegial</td>
<td>Participative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Transformational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Distributed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political</td>
<td>Transactional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective</td>
<td>Postmodern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emotional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambiguity</td>
<td>Contingency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>Moral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instructional</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: adapted from Bush, 2011)

Based on the non-governmental centres in Sweden and Greece that this research studies and whose structures and functions, it becomes obvious that not all management or leadership models are utilized, especially in the three specific cases that were examined in the present research. Information on the organization of the non-governmental centres, therefore, demonstrate that in the case of Sweden the model most amply employed is the cultural model while in the cases of Greece it is easier to discern the use of a more formal model in management. Before proceeding to further explaining the leadership models that each management style presupposes, a brief analysis of the appropriate management models is due at this point for a smoother transition and in-depth understanding of the main concern of this research, that being the leadership styles, how they are adopted by the centres in question and how they affect the processes of teaching overall.
The model that appears to suit the ways non-governmental centres work with in Sweden, is the cultural model of management. This model “emphasize[s] the informal aspects of organizations, rather than their official elements” (Bush, 2011, p. 170). This does not mean, however, that formal and official elements and aspects of the organization are left completely aside. Additionally, the cultural model takes into account the values, opinions and backgrounds of the individuals that are encompassed in the processes and functions of the organizations, which are shared within the organization. The behaviours and ideologies of the members tend to become “shared traditions” (ibid, p. 170) which are the basis for the members’ operations within the organization.

After presenting the details of how non-governmental systems operate in Sweden, it appears that the cultural model is the one that fits the descriptions mainly because of the ideas, the opinions and values that become shared within the organizations and which are the basis for all the functions that underlie such an educational system. Culture and cultural elements may be found in society where an individual thrives, but also in organizations either these are educational or concerned with another field. Societal and organizational cultures are interconnected since the values, beliefs and ethics of a society, in their diversity, become norms within an organization and the basis with which the said organization functions (Bush, 2011). More specifically, the non-governmental institution selected in Stockholm operates based on the cultural model’s idea of “shared traditions” (ibid.) and common ideologies. The individuals that are embroiled in the process of decision-making and are directly or indirectly involved with the organization have the same beliefs and fundamental decisions as well as their implementation need to be achieved through those. Even though official elements are considered in the organization what is mostly highlighted, especially for the learning process, is that there exists a high level of informality and more specifically in the so-called *folkbildning* or liberal education which consists of study circles.

Regarding the two centres that were chosen in Thessaloniki, based on the way that most of these centres are organized, the pattern of a more formal model of management can be observed. As the name itself suggests this type of management focuses on the more official elements and structural aspects of an organization (Bush, 2011). The vision of the centre and the objectives through which it is to be accomplished are approached in a rational manner and the stress is always on the formality of implementation. This shows mainly because of the aims of the centres selected which are mostly exam-oriented and focus on the formality of
both the teaching practices and the ways the centre is run. There is a variety of characteristics that pertain the formal education of management and they are as follow:

- Organizations are viewed as systems.
- Official structures are always a top priority.
- There is a hierarchy in the official structures.
- “All formal approaches typify schools and colleges as goal-seeking organizations” (Bush, 2011, p. 41).
- Decisions are always governed by rationality.
- The authority of leaders is the product of their official positions within the organization.
- Accountability toward the sponsoring body is always emphasized.

(Bush, 2011)

Of these, in the cases of the centres in Greece, the ones that become observable are the systemic view of the institution; the prioritization of the official structures; the view of the centres as goal-seeking organizations; and the decisions which are affected by rationality.

Proceeding to the leadership styles, which is a highlighted topic for the present research, each of the management models matches to one or more models of leadership. Therefore, as Bush (2011) maintains, the cultural model to moral and instructional leadership and the formal management model to the managerial model of leadership.

2.2.2.1 Moral leadership

In moral leadership, the emphasis is placed in the shared beliefs of the people within an organization that tend to become a norm of operation. What also needs to be emphasized under the category of moral leadership is that the individual that is involved in education is also considered; in fact, it is each individual’s ideas that lead to organized operations and it is the individuals that need to agree upon certain notions in order for the organization to move forward. As Bush (2011) asserts “[i]ndividuals hold certain ideas and value-preferences which influence how they behave and how they view the behaviour of other members. These norms becomes shared traditions which are communicated within the group” (p. 170). To further define the said norms, Moller (2005) claims that democracy should be at the heart of educational values and educational practices. Particularly, “leadership must be driven by a moral purpose of promoting the ideas and values of democracy” (ibid. p. 47) where this kind of practice culminates in success. It appears, thus, that political beliefs are at the core of
leadership and more specifically, democratic values should be promoted at all times. This is another element that most of the non-governmental centres in Sweden share with moral leadership, that being political ideologies.

For this kind of leadership, however, there is a tendency of moving towards a more subjective model. According to Leithwood et al. (as qtd. in Bush, 2011, p. 184), “[a]uthority and influence are to be derived from defensible conceptions of what is right and good”. This is where subjectivity becomes apparent. There is a thin line between right and wrong in morality and ethics. Nevertheless, morality in an educational organizational structure can be defined by what is moral in the society. Thus, interrelation between society and education is evident. To this end, Leithwood et al. also suggest that moral leadership should be achieved through “normative, political/democratic and symbolic concepts of leadership” (as qtd. in Bush, 2011, p. 184). Further supporting this argument, Bartunek, Bartunek & Moch and Weick (as qtd. in Hannah et al., 2003, p. 45) advocate that “ethics [which is a fundamental part of moral leadership] are formed not only at the societal level, but also at the organizational, group, and individual levels through social learning, social enactment, and meaning-making processes”.

Despite the fact that there is a number of features that points towards a definition of moral leadership and even though there is a working one, it is not always an easy task to delineate what moral leadership is. “The different definitions of moral leadership are largely a result of the diverse context and needs of schools that successful leaders must address” (Pijanowski, 2007, p. 3). It is safe to assume that the diverse context and the needs of schools that are referred to do not only entail the wide range of educational contexts and needs, but at the same time the different societal concerns and norms. Moral leadership is not sketched as an internal organizational process, but rather as an external influence as well. In spite of being a rather challenging task, some definitions have been provided by Bell (as qtd. in Pijanowski, 2007):

- **Vision** - what adults do in schools play a major role in shaping children’s lives and preparing them for lifelong success.
- **Respect/high expectations/support/hard work.**
- **Empowerment**
- **Moral leadership** - staff and students visualize themselves as part of the whole system/schooling was more than preparation for academic success/it laid a foundation for success in life.
The definitions stated above are not only formed in regards to formal education and schooling, but can be adopted in other educational situations as well, such as the learning centres examined in this research. “Thus, moral leaders are defined as those who have a positive, lasting effect or influence on others and/or the world” (Roepke, as qtd. in Maldonado and Lacey, 2001, p. 80).

It is noteworthy to mention that in an educational organization that abides by the laws of moral leadership, it is not only formally positioned leaders that are in charge of implementation of practices. The teachers and other stakeholders involved in the process are also accounted for, since the attitudes and beliefs systems need to be pooled. One of the aims of moral leadership is to avoid confrontation and conflict and promote efficient and effective relations among internal and external stakeholders. A certain level of cooperation is, thus, due in moral leadership to reach a consensus on education-related decision and proposals. To support this statement, Bogotch and Miron’s (1998) work on moral leadership has shown that importance and priority should be given to the relationships between adults working and collaborating together, rather than on a principal/leader’s subjective and individual decisions.

To conclude,

Moral leadership is consistent with organizational culture in that it is based on the values, beliefs and attitudes of principals and other educational leaders. It focuses on the moral purpose of education and on the behaviours to be expected of leaders operating within the moral domain.

(Bush, 2011, p. 186)

2.2.2.2 Managerial leadership
Almost at the opposite end of moral leadership, managerial leadership mainly focuses on the more official elements and structures of an educational organization. “Managerial leadership assumes that the focus of leaders ought to be on functions, tasks and behaviours and that if these functions are carried out competently the work of others in the organisation will be facilitated” (Leithwood et al., as qtd. in Bush, 2011, p. 60). This statement along with the main features of the managerial model which are rationality, authority and influence of formally positioned leaders, promote this specific model as a more official and formal one. Several practices of managerial leadership have been identified, however those termed as ‘hierarchical’ by Myers and Murphy (as qtd. in Bush, 2011, p. 61) are “supervision; input
controls (e.g. teacher transfers); behaviour controls (e.g. job descriptions); output controls (e.g. student testing). In the case of Greece, the above functions fall under the jurisdiction of the owners/leaders/managers especially when the centre in question is a small business.

What distinguishes this leadership model from others is that it does not have a particular vision for the improvement of an institution, but rather it focuses on managing the already existing and implemented structures and activities without trying to achieve further improvements (Bush, 2011, p. 61).

A controversial issue regarding managerial leadership is whether its focus is mostly task-oriented - which appears to be more in line with the definition given - or people-oriented, an aspect which could be seen as somewhat neglected in the particular model. In the early 1960s Robert Blake and Jane Mouton came up with a framework that defined the kind of leadership style leaders adopted (Zeidan, 2009.). This framework that came in the form of a grid was called the Leadership Grid, the Managerial Grid or the Blake Mouton Managerial Grid (ibid.). The following two figures represent the same grid, with the second being more explanatory as to the concepts that the grid examines:
Figure 7. Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid

(Source: Zeidan, 2009.)
In a few words, what the grid does is that “it plots the degree of task-centeredness versus person-centeredness and identifies five combinations as distinct leadership styles” (Zeidan, 2009, p. 85). In addition, “the grid highlights how placing too much emphasis in one area at the expense of the others leads to low overall productivity” (ibid.). Further explanation of the grid illustrates the two axes, vertical and horizontal, with concern for the people and concern for the production as variables placed respectively. As is also shown is either representation of the grid, the degrees of concern for each variables are numbered from 1, which indicates the lowest concern in either case, to 9, which indicates the highest.

As a result of adjusting the degrees of concern to the variables, five leadership styles are identified. The first one is the Impoverished, according to the first representation, also called Poor leadership, according to the second. Resulting to this leadership style predisposes that there is low concern both for the people and for the tasks (production) shown by the manager and the lack of motivation to achieve a high degree of care for the organization culminates in “disorganization, dissatisfaction and disharmony” (Zeidan, 2009, p. 84). This style of
leadership adopted is also called “laissez-faire” (Nikezic et al., 2013, p. 394) where the managers avoid conflicts and remain neutral in leadership decisions.

The second leadership style that the grid yields is the so called ‘country club’ (Zeidan, 2009) style or ‘social leadership’ (Nikezic et al., 2013) and it demonstrates the highest degree as far as concern for people is considered and the lowest regarding concern for production. As it becomes self-explanatory, this style of leadership adopted pays the highest attention to the people’s needs neglecting completely, nevertheless, any concerns for production. A manager adopting such a leadership style wishes to avoid conflicts as well and strives towards creating and maintaining a friendly and harmonious environment among the employees (Zeidan, 2009; Nikezic et al., 2013). While this is a welcome approach to creating a desirable working environment and is by no means condemned, to do so in the highest degree possible and ignoring any productive activities and ideas because of imminent conflicts results in a friendly, but rather unproductive working environment.

The third style that emerges from the grid is the ‘Produce, Dictatorial or Perish’ style (Zeidan, 2009.) or else ‘Authoritarian/Autocratic’ (Nikezic et al., 2013) which emphasizes in the highest degree the concern for production, but leaves out that of people. Employees in the eyes of an authoritarian manager are a means to an end whose tasks are set by that leader and expected to be completely in any way possible. Creativity, collaboration and cooperation are unimportant and are not encouraged along with interpersonal relations which are treated as dismissive (Zeidan, 2009; Nikezic et al., 2013). Competition and tight control of all functions are at the centre of this style (Nikezic et al., 2013).

Fourthly, the last of the extreme leadership styles is the ‘Team or Sound’ style (Zeidan, 2009) or ‘Team leadership’ (Nikezic et al., 2013) which presents an ideal kind of leadership. Concern for people and production are on the highest degrees (9,9) which creates the perfect environment for employee relationships and productivity. What mostly matters is the interpersonal relations among the employees and employers which in turn yields an ideal working environment where creativity, cooperation and collaboration are encouraged and expected (Zeidan, 2009; Nikezic et al., 2013). Employees are thus motivated to produce to the best of their abilities resulting in high production. Any problems identified are to be solved immediately and directly in search of the best acceptable solution (Nikezic et al., 2013). Two words that characterize this leadership style are “contribute and commit” (Zeidan, 2009, p. 83).
Lastly, a more balanced style is depicted in the middle of both representations, the so called ‘The Middle-of-the-road’ or ‘The Status-quo’ style (Zeidan, 2009; Nikezic et al., 2013). As can also be seen from the grid (Fig. 7 and Fig. 8) concern for people and production is at the same degree, but not the highest as it was with the previous style, but rather both degrees point to the middle (5,5). People’s needs and production are kept to a balanced level and the two words that best describe this style are ‘balance and compromise’ (Zeidan, 2009, p. 83). While balance may prove to be a positive attribute, compromise creates a more sceptical observer as to what to expect when faced with such a style. Compromise, as Zeidan (2009) argues, suggests an environment where employees’ needs and productivity remain unfulfilled one way or another and a compromise must be made to keep everything in an equilibrium. Further potential is never explored and things are left to operate in a steady manner with no fluctuations.

2.2.2.3 The Risk of Managerialism

Having presented the focus of the managerial leadership model and demonstrated the five different leadership styles that a manager may assume based on the Blake Mouton Managerial Grid, it is worthy to mention that there is a risk underlying managerial leadership. It is quite easy for leaders that adopt this model to fall into the trap of managerialism, which is a concept used to explain the subordination of educational aims “to the managerial aim of greater efficiency” (Bush, 2011, p. 61). Wallace and Hoyle (2005, p. 9) term managerialism as the “excessive leadership and management, reaching beyond an appropriate educational support role and threatening to become an end in itself […]underpinned by an ideology which assumes that all aspects of organisational life can and should be controlled”.

It is common for leaders utilizing this model to view centres as profitable businesses apart from educational organizations. However, when the former is enhanced, the latter suffers and the main principles of leadership within an educational context are lost. According to Simkins (as qtd. in Bush, 2011, p. 61) there are four functions that are included in the ‘managerialist agenda’. The first one, which could prove more common in a private sector, such as the one in Greece, is “[t]he replacement of public sector values by those of the private sector and the market” (ibid.). This leads to the next two functions on the agenda where there is the risk of establishing a concept that does not promote educational values, but rather undermines them; and, adopted leadership and management models chiefly focus on “individual accountability, rigid planning and target-setting” (Simkins, as qtd. in Bush, 2011, p. 62). Last but not least,
power and authority will pass on the managers enhancing their position, forming more rigid modes of work (ibid.).
3. Research Methodology

The aim of the research is to present how English teaching is organized in language centres and the impact of leadership on teaching. This inquiry requires appropriate and into the point interview questions and observations which will lead to the careful interpretation of the data. Therefore, this section will be divided into further sub-categories for a better understanding of the nature and steps of the research and for a more coherent structure of the paper.

3.1 Research Design and Methods

Before discussing the reason behind choosing a specific research design, a definition must be given in order to avoid any confusion with other elements of the research, such as a research method. According to Bryman’s (2012) comprehensive work on social research methods, a research design is defined as relating “to the criteria that are employed when evaluating social research. It is, therefore, a framework for the generation of evidence that is suited both to a certain set of criteria and to the research question in which the investigator is interested” (p. 45). In other words, there is a need for specifying and following the guidelines of a framework which guides researchers and keeps them on track during their work for a proper research to be conducted.

The present research will employ the comparative research design in its cross-cultural form. What this means is that, in this case, research will be carried out in two different countries, Greece and Sweden, and more specifically in two different cities, Thessaloniki and Stockholm. The two cases will be compared and contrasted so that “we can understand social phenomena better when they are compared” (Bryman, 2012, p. 72). This specific design applies to the qualitative research strategy as through comparison and contrast, interpretation and formation of theory can take place. Bryman (2012) maintains that comparison between two cases can bring about a better understanding of theory building as “the researcher is in a better position to establish the circumstances in which a theory will or will not hold” (Eisenhardt; Yin, as qtd. In Bryman, 2012, p. 74). Utilizing the comparative design does not aim at generalizing a theory for the two cases, but rather at formulating a theory that may be used for further research in the future as a point to be taken into account. Besides, the aim of this research is to achieve an in-depth understanding of the explicit cases at hand.

Since a research design provides the framework and the guidelines for procedure toward the collection of data, a research method is “a technique for collecting data” (ibid, p. 46). A number of different methods may be included when using the qualitative approach and this research used three: semi-structured interviews, observations and secondary literature review.
In the case of this research the methods followed will be the same for each case examined in both cities.

One of the challenges when reviewing secondary literature and previously published theories is not to let them interfere with the researcher’s process and outcome in formulating a theory. In this case, literature review was a continuous process, having started before the research took place, so that the researcher could have a few things in mind and also for a clearer view on how the research questions would be formulated and what concepts would comprise the theoretical background of this research.

Conducting semi-structured interviews and observations are two methods utilized during the fieldwork, while secondary literature review is one of the ways to consult, compare and contrast the processes and results of previous researches and the present one. Emphasis should be placed on the fact that the current research’s aim is not to generalize the results, as the sample is small for such an endeavour, but to offer a general understanding of the educational practices in these centres, whether these concern teaching or leadership. The methods selected complement each other and allow the researcher to view the topic studied from different perspectives. According to Bryman (2012), this phenomenon is called triangulation and is a common approach to qualitative research.

The “fundamental purpose of qualitative research is to capture the research subject’s perspective and views of values, actions, processes, and events” (Fairbrother, as qtd. in Bray et al., 2007, p. 43). The reason behind the researcher’s choice of approach is that the organization of teaching language and most importantly the effect of leadership on it cannot be measured with numbers or variables. Therefore, the study requires the interpretation of the participants’ views on the topic at hand, the data of which are to be collected in such a way that “the researcher tend[s] towards surrendering control to the researched in the process of inquiry” (ibid.). Conducting, thus, semi-structured interviews and observations allow the researcher to guide the questions towards the participants and keep track of all the parameters that need to be accounted for while observing, but it also enables the subjects to freely submit their answers in a manner that mostly suits them, described by flexibility and openness.

Furthermore, the form of the semi-structured interview allowed the interviewee a lot of space and “leeway” (Bryman, 2012, p. 471) when responding and allowed the researcher to interpret the answers with a more holistic approach since the emphasis in this case is “on how the interviewee frames and understands issues and events” (ibid., p. 471).
### 3.2 Selection of the Centres and Participants

The participating language centres and subjects in this research were selected based on a non-probability sampling technique known as purposive sampling. The term purposive or judgemental sampling technique is the deliberate choice of an informant due to the qualities an informant possesses. It is a non-random technique that does not need underlying theories or a set number of informants. Simply put, the researcher decides what needs to be known and sets out to find people who can and are willing to provide the information by virtue of knowledge or experience.

(Bernard; Lewis & Sheppard, as qtd. in Tongco, 2007, p. 147)

The research questions of the study provided the appropriate groups of people and centres that needed to be sampled for the research. The reasons for having chosen Sweden and Greece as the physical settings of the study are mentioned in the context of the study and the introduction of this research. The cities of Stockholm and Thessaloniki in particular were selected because of the familiarity of the researcher with the educational contexts and the experience gathered in the two cities. The selection of the centres and the participants, however, were made in a different way. Language centres A and B which are located in Thessaloniki have been selected randomly for the needs of this research as there is a great number of non-governmental centres in Thessaloniki that would have been equally appropriate for this study. The available participants were selected based on their position in the centre. The researcher was interested in English teachers and owners/managers/leaders of the centres and therefore all other occupations were eliminated. The centres chosen provide an indicative sample of how most of this type of centres function. Therefore, and even though the result cannot be generalized, they prove to be a sufficient sample for the specific aims that the research has set.

Regarding the case of language centre C, which was located in Stockholm, it was deliberately chosen by the researcher as it is one that, unusually, incorporates two distinct styles of education- komvux and folkbildning or liberal education. As was mentioned earlier in this paper this is also the reason why only one centre was chosen from Stockholm and two from Thessaloniki. Again in this case, a teacher and head teacher were interviewed for the fulfilment of the research goals.
The types of purposive sampling are numerous, however, this research is concerned with two: the homogeneous and the heterogeneous or maximum variation sampling. All the participants were selected for this research because they were English teachers and leaders sharing, thus, some common element. They also worked in non-governmental centres. However, the sample prompted some heterogeneity as well due to its basic principle which is “to gain greater insights into a phenomenon by looking at it from all angles. This can often help the researcher to identify common themes that are evident across the sample” (ibid).

In all of the three cases the interviewees of interest to the research were English language teachers and the owners, leaders or managers that run each centre. In language centre A, located in Thessaloniki, the interview was carried out on one owner and four English language teachers. In language centre B, found in Thessaloniki, the owner was again one, however, there was only one teacher working at this centre. In language centre C, based in Stockholm, interviews were conducted with two teachers- one teaching the folkbildning classes as well as occupying the position of the head teacher; and the other teaching the komvux classes. For the former, the interview was a blended outcome of the two sets of questions, both for teachers and leaders.

Table 5. Details of the participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Centre A (Thessaloniki)</th>
<th>Interviewees</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Position at Centre</th>
<th>Number of Years at Centre</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mrs. R.</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Leader/Owner</td>
<td>19 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mrs. N.</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>EFL Teacher</td>
<td>10 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mrs. X.</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>EFL Teacher</td>
<td>9 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mrs. G.</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>EFL Teacher</td>
<td>4 months</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mrs. L.</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>EFL Teacher</td>
<td>13 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre B (Thessaloniki)</td>
<td>Mrs. E.</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Leader/Owner</td>
<td>25 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mrs. A.</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>EFL Teacher</td>
<td>16 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centre C (Stockholm)</td>
<td>Mrs. M1.</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Head Teacher</td>
<td>45 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mrs. M2.</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>EFL Teacher</td>
<td>2 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.3 Data Collection

This section will be dedicated to the detailed process of data collection providing a more in-depth examination of how the research methods were employed.

The secondary literature review was the first step to be taken in the process of writing this paper. Articles, books, the internet and other online and printed documents were utilized and provided with the chance to study researches that have been previously conducted for a similar case as the one currently under the scope. Secondary literature became a necessity in sorting out the theories generated from previously collected data and comparing them with the theories and results that the present research illustrates.

The researcher had prepared an interview guide beforehand and since the interviews were formed in a semi-structured way the order of the questions and the questions themselves up to a point were defined by flexibility. The possibility of supplementary questions during the interview remained open since it also depended on the participants’ answers. Some of those were indeed given in a way that prompted the researcher to ask more questions related to the topic, either for clarification or in order to get a more complete answer. There were two separate interviews conducted with two different sets of questions. The first one concerned the leaders, managers or owners that run the centres and consisted of 16 questions (see Appendix A). The questions were divided into three categories: qualifications; leadership and management; and recruitment. The second interview addressed the teachers in each institution and consisted of 14 questions. Like in the first set of questions addressing leaders, so in the second there are three categories of questions: the first category refers to the qualifications of the teachers and is the category that the two interviews share. The second set refers to the role of the teachers in the leadership and managerial aspects of the institution; and the third one addresses whether or not there is any impact of leadership on their teaching and in what ways this is the case. The interviews were conducted indoors on each of the participant’s separately. They were recorded using a mobile phone and an iPad and they were later transcribed on a computer. All the interviews were conducted in English and they lasted between 7 and 25 minutes.

During the interviews, the researcher attempted to be as neutral and professional as possible without being rigid to a point that would make the interviewee uncomfortable and reluctant to answer the questions. In order to make the environment a more relaxed one mainly for the participants, the interviewer would say “That’s interesting”, or “I see”, so that it would not feel like a rigid process, but rather like a conversation. Moreover, since it is allowed to do so
in semi-structured interviews, the researcher would also ask more questions where it was deemed necessary for further illustration of a point continuing the interview as a conversation.

The method of observations was also employed during the research at the centres, however, only centres A and C presented some availability for classroom observations. Even though the researcher’s aim was not to take part or interact with any teachers or students during the observation time, that was not the case with two observations that took place in liberal education classes in Centre C in Stockholm, where the researcher was asked questions on a number of topics that the students were discussing and was asked of her opinion and participation in the students’ and teacher’s conversation. Nevertheless, this was not the case with the rest of the observations in both centres A and C. This method is mostly utilized by the researcher in order to get a clearer view of what is going on in actual time at the language centres on an everyday situation. The observations took place after the interviews have been held so that the researcher would be able to determine and cross-examine the answers of the interviewees along with their actions in the classroom. While observing, the researcher had a checklist (see Appendix C) with some of the points that would need to be observed more meticulously, which would assist in formulating the results.

3.4 Data Analysis

“Qualitative analysis transforms data into findings. No formula exists for that transformation. Guidance, yes. But no recipe. Direction can and will be offered, but the final destination remains unique for each inquirer, known only when –and if- arrived at” (Patton, as qtd. in Schutt, 2011, p. 321). According to Patton, thus, there is no standard or formal way towards qualitative analysis of the data gathered. However, there are two ways that data analysis in a qualitative research may be coded; the etic way and the emic way. The etic way focuses on “representing a setting with the researchers’ terms and from their viewpoint” while the emic way aims at “representing a setting with the participants’ terms and from their viewpoint” (p. 322). In the opinion of the researcher, these two focuses are interrelated as through the attempts at coding the meaning behind the participants’ answers, the researcher is called upon to interpret the collected data based on her own understanding of what the participants really felt during the interviews and decipher any messages that were included in their answers so as “to see the richness of real social experience” (p. 321).
Some of the qualities that provide a deeper understanding of the studied context and bring to the surface the in-depth orientation of qualitative research are demonstrated in the research’s analytical framework. As Schutt (2011) maintains, even though collection of data is gathered from a few cases only, the focus of the research is on the meaning rather than on a specific variable. In this research, through the different interviews on leaders and teachers, the researcher attempted to comprehend the impact of leadership on English teaching and teachers examining the views of both groups of interviewees through the concepts of recruitment, qualifications and leadership on the part of leaders; and qualifications, leadership or other managerial role in the language centre and impact of leadership on the part of the teachers. Interpreting the context within which the interviews took place is no laughing matter and the study needs to be conducted in detail both during the inquiry time, but also after it. “Sensitivity to context” and “a goal of rich descriptions” (Schutt, 2011, p. 322) are due in a qualitative analysis.

The analytic technique that was most widely employed in this research was note-taking, during the interviews and observations, along with recording using a mobile device. Concerning the note-taking, apart from scribbles during the oral interviews, the researcher had created an observation form prior to the observations taking place. “The analysis of qualitative research notes begins in the field, at the time of observation, interviewing, or both, as the researcher identifies problems and concepts that appear likely to help in understanding the situation. Simply reading the notes or transcripts is an important step in the analytic process” (Schutt, 2011, p. 325).

This qualitative research approached its analysis in themes, prompting a thematic analysis. Once the transcription of the interviews was completed, all the data collected were examined in order to “extract core themes that could be distinguished both between and within the interviews” (Bryman, 2012, p. 13).

The main purpose of this analysis, aiming at exploring the topic at hand in detail, was to identify any repetitive patterns that occurred during the research. Based on Braun and Clarke’s (2006) views, making use of a thematic analysis is widely popular in qualitative research as it allows more freedom in connecting the themes to the theoretical framework, without the need for the latter to be an exhaustive one. Therefore, the difference between thematic analysis and other thematically analytical methods, such as “thematic discourse analysis, thematic decomposition analysis […] and grounded theory” (Braun and Clarke,
2006, p. 8) is that the former is not theoretically bounded and can, consequently, offer “a much more accessible form of analysis” (Braun and Clarke, 2006, pp. 8-9).

By organizing the repetitive patterns or themes richness of detail and the variety of aspects within the research project become more feasible. Two approaches can be seen in which thematic analysis is divided: the inductive or bottom-up and the thematic, deductive or top-down (p. 12). The first case denotes that the themes and codes identifies are completely bounded to the set of data that was collected during the research and bear limited relation to the theoretical background, even though they cannot be completely cut off from the theory (ibid). On the contrary, deductive or bottom-up approach signifies the existence of less description of the whole set of data emphasizing the in-depth detail of some of the aspects of the research (ibid).

In terms of defining what a theme is and deciding on it, Braun and Clarke’s (2006) work makes it clear that “the ‘keyness’ of a theme is not necessarily dependent on quantifiable measures- but in terms of whether it captures something important in relation to the overall research question” (p. 10). Similar to the two different approaches of the analytic process, two levels of themes can be identified: the semantic or explicit level and the latent or interpretative level (p. 13). The first one refers to the analysis of data in a way that examines what has been said during the interviews and does not go further than that, while the latter suggests that there are underlying meanings to be looked into and researched (ibid).

This research balances between inductive and deductive approaches as themes are derived both from the data collected, but also from the existing literature as the researcher emphasizes the usefulness and attention to both. In addition, it maps on to a more semantic rather than latent level in the identification and organization of themes, however, where deemed relevant the researcher goes into a more detailed presentation of the data.

There are six phases that Braun and Clarke (2006) have constructed as a guide to thematic analysis in qualitative research and as they stress this process is more recursive than linear. The following table illustrates the six phases of the step-by-step guide in one column while in the second column these phases are matched to the respective actions that the researcher took in the present study:
Table 6. The six phases of thematic analysis according to Braun and Clarke (2006)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Familiarization with data</td>
<td>The researcher became familiar with the data collected through the transcription of the interviews and the notes from the observations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generating initial codes</td>
<td>Some repetitive and relevant to the findings points were compiled into a list of codes that were organized in a timely manner along with the necessary transcribed data as evidence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Searching for themes</td>
<td>Breaking down of these codes led to repetitive themes along with the relevant data.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reviewing themes</td>
<td>The themes that were generated from the codes were reviewed in order to determine their relevance to both the research’s theory and the data gathered from the fieldwork.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defining and naming themes</td>
<td>The themes selected were adequately and accurately defined and given names.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Producing the report</td>
<td>Revision and definition of the themes led to the unequivocal choice of extracts and data from the interviews and observations that would prove relevant to the theory and would lead to the production of the paper.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Consequently, the thematic analysis for this study culminated in the following themes:

Theme 1: Organization of English language teaching and learning

- Comprehensible instruction
- Negotiating meaning
- Content area instruction
- Sensitivity
Theme 2: Aims of teachers and leaders regarding
- Students and centers
- Personal development

Theme 3: Collaboration (categorization in centers)
- Among teachers
- Between teachers and leaders

Theme 4: Impact of leadership (categorization in centers)
- On teaching and choosing materials
- On teachers

Theme 5: Qualifications and Recruitment (categorization in centers)
- Acquired qualifications
- Academic and personal qualifications required for employment

3.5 Ethical Considerations
In his *Social Research Methods* Bryman (2012) advocates that even though since the 1960s ethics were taken into account when conducting a research, this part was still deemed as easy to be marginalized. However, in the later years and more specifically nowadays, ethical issues are at the center of attention, a situation that could probably happen due to a greater sensitivity towards those issues. Indeed, Schutt (2011) asserts that data collection must not commence without the full apprehension of the research on the part of the participants and without their complete agreement to all the parts of the research. Bryman (2012) refers to Diener & Crandall as being those who distinguished the four main areas of ethical principles these being the harm to participants; the lack of informed consent; the invasion of privacy; and whether or not there is deception involved on the part of the researcher. Thanks to these

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1 As one notices from the above, themes 3, 4 and 5 have “categorization in centres” written next to the title of the theme in a parenthesis. The researcher considered that for these three themes it would be clearer to categorize the results based on the centres and their participants rather than based on the subthemes. The subthemes still exist in the results, but are broken down into the categories of the centres.
classifications it is inexcusable for the conductor of the research to stay in the darkness regarding approved and appropriate measures to be taken towards an ethically safe research.

A more in depth explanation is due here regarding the content of the four main ethical principles. The first in order principle that Bryman (2012) lays out is that of harm to participants. By harm he means physical harm or harm to the development and self-esteem of the participants. Inducing stress and “subjects to perform reprehensible acts” (Diener & Crandall as cited in Bryman, 2012) are also considered practices of harm towards the participants. Another issue that is entailed in this category regards the confidentiality of the gathered data. This demands the absolute assurance on the part of the researcher that the respondents will remain anonymous or at least that the data will be indicated in such a way so as to ensure that the participants remain unidentifiable (Bryman, 2012). In this case, further attention needs to be given to the conduct of qualitative research since the relationship of researcher and participant is usually more personal than in quantitative methodology where the data is collected by a large number of participants.

The second ethical principle that Bryman (2012) recognized was the lack of informed consent which means that prospective participants are not given as much information as possible in order to make an informed decision about whether or not they desire to participate in the research (p. 138). The principle of informed consent is one that sparks controversies and debates about the information needed for consent. Even though the researcher is fully eager to inform prospective participants to the fullest extent possible, most of the times the researcher himself/herself might not have all the information or something in the research might be altered after the prospective participants have been informed.

The invasion of privacy, that Bryman (2012) analyses as the third principle of ethical considerations, is closely linked to the lack of consent. Informing the participants of the research that they are asked to take part in is a first step for the researcher; nevertheless, they must also be assured of their anonymity, if wished to be so, in publishing their answers, while the researcher needs to accept the fact that there might be some participant who will not wish to answer some of the questions asked. “Qualitative researchers should negotiate with participants early in the study the approach that will be taken to protect privacy and maintain confidentiality” (Schutt, 2011, p. 354). In the beginning of this research, the researcher emphasized that anonymity of the participants and the participating language centres is established unless there was a desire for revelation on the subjects’ part. The participants
were orally informed one by one before the interview took place and no one requested their names to be revealed in the report.

Last but not least, deception as Bryman (2012) puts it “occurs when researchers represent their work as something other than what it is” (p. 143). The four principles are tightly connected to one another as deception can be realized through the lack of information given to the participants or the invasion of their privacy and, least but still plausible, through the harm towards participants.

Schutt (2011) identifies another issue related to the ethics of the social research regarding the ownership of data and conclusions. The solution he provides to this matter is effective immediate resolution of any issues that arise. Concerning this research, there were no issues related to ownership, as the participants were mostly content with keeping their anonymity.

The present research successfully attempted to avoid the undesirable results of those principles by having given out all the information possible to the prospective participants. While making arrangements for the appointments over the phone, the prospective participants were informed about the topic of the research and were given a summary of the questions that would be asked during the interviews. Participants were aware from the beginning that the interviews would be recorded, mainly to provide assistance and reliability to the researcher. In addition, the interviewees were assured that their anonymity and privacy would be preserved and respected and, therefore, no names will be published in this paper. Due to the flexibility of qualitative interviews and the possibility that some of the questions might not be asked in the same order as the participants would expect them to be, the interviewer orally informed each of the participants before the interview that it would be a kind of conversation and not a structured interview. In case there were disagreements on the part of the participants on any of the steps of the procedure and they needed written evidence, the researcher would prepare and print out forms to be signed by both the parties.
4. Context of the Study

4.1 Overview of the Formal Education Systems of Sweden and Greece

The main focus of this research is to shed some light on the practices, both leadership and teaching, that take place in non-governmental centers in Sweden and Greece. Before proceeding to the detailed description of the centers chosen for this study some general information is due here on the overall operation of the education system in the two countries.

The following tables accurately illustrate the levels of education in the Swedish and Greek society:

Table 7. The Educational System in Sweden

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Typical Age</th>
<th>Year Grade</th>
<th>Type of Education</th>
<th>4-year University</th>
<th>College (2-3 years)</th>
<th>Higher Vocational Education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>26–27</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Higher Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25–26</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24–25</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23–24</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22–23</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21–22</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20–21</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19–20</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18–19</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Secondary Education</td>
<td>Upper Secondary Education (Grades 10-12)</td>
<td>3 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17–18</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16–17</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Compulsory Education</td>
<td>Lower Secondary Education (Grades 7-9)</td>
<td>3 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15–16</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>14–15</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13–14</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Primary Education</td>
<td>Primary Education (Grades 1-6)</td>
<td>6 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12–13</td>
<td>6</td>
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<td>11–12</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>10–11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>9–10</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>8–9</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7–8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6–7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Preschool</td>
<td>Preschool, Pedagogical Care, Open Pre-school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Igawa & Yagi, 2011)
Both of the educational systems have a lot of similarities in terms of their structure, concerning compulsory and non-compulsory education. Much like the education system in Sweden, the Greek education system is divided into three levels: the Primary, the Secondary and the Tertiary level. Children are obligated to attend the Primary school and the Lower Secondary School and, therefore, not all levels are compulsory. There is, however, one classification that is distinguished in the Greek post-compulsory secondary level and includes the Vocational Training Institutes (IEK). IEKs are part of the educational system, but they cannot be fully categorized under one label as they accept graduate students from both junior and senior high schools (Dynamic Online Tool for Guidance, n.d.).

The reason why the educational category of IEK in the Greek educational system is of importance for the background of this research is because it represents similarities to the non-governmental centres of Sweden whose operations were mentioned above. Vocational training is offered in IEKs and it especially prepares students for the labour market. Once completing education in an IEK institution students can be enrolled in a private university or private college. Attending courses and programmes especially designed for improvement and
development in the professional path and integration into the society constitutes one of the reasons of existence and operation of non-governmental centres in Sweden which are further analysed into the next subsection. Nevertheless, there is one dissimilarity between Greece and Sweden regarding continuing adult education in that the only way to get into a public university in Greece is through examinations at the end of the last year of senior high school. Students that did not enrol in a public university for any reason at the end of their non-compulsory upper secondary education are allowed to re-sit the final examinations the following year. However, they also have the possibility of joining an IEK institution even though they will not achieve a public university degree after that or be allowed to enrol in one.

5. Analysis of the Research Findings

5.1 The Position of the English Language in Sweden

There is a wide variety of languages permeating the Swedish culture. However, “English is the most popular and a compulsory subject from the third grade until the ninth grade and all students studying in High School must study English at least for a year irrespective of their line of study” (Skolverket, as qtd. in Inju Tendoh, 2012, p. 4). Taking this statement from a report by Skolverket, it is safe to assume that Swedes have great knowledge and command of the English language even though it is taught as a foreign and not a second language. Indeed, there is no official status that claims English to be the Swedes’ second language, nevertheless, “[t]he fact that the Swedish society is surrounded by much English (in music, games, in the media, etc.) makes the language more or less a Second Language” (Inju Tendoh, 2012, p. 9). More specifically, according to Inger Lindberg (2007, p. 72), “75 per cent of the population can read an English newspaper and manage an ordinary conversation in English”. Most Swedes appear to be at ease with learning a foreign language, since apart from English, they are usually introduced to another foreign language when they are at school (ibid.).

The following chart illustrates the position of English language compared to other European languages in Sweden in 2005:
The dominance of English is striking along with the Swedes’ knowledge of other languages no matter how little that is. For young learners at the age of 9, 57.3% of them “learn at least one foreign language” (Eurydice, 2012, p. 25) showing that more than half of the youth population starts learning a foreign language from an early age.

Additionally to the foreign languages learnt in Sweden, there are also five minority languages that received official recognition in the Swedish state. These are Sami, Finnish, Tornedal Finnish, Romany and Jiddish (Eurydice, 2001).

Exposure to the English language for young learners usually starts before they attend primary school through exposure to and familiarization with the media surrounding them and, thus by then, they already have some contact with the language even though informally. When they attend compulsory school the main goal of the English curriculum is to encourage and support students in developing their communicative skills (Inju Tendoh, 2012). English is a compulsory subject along with Swedish and mathematics in Swedish compulsory education, all of them being considered important for the continuation of studies in through senior high
Learning English in a school where the medium of instruction is Swedish is a common practice since English is treated as another subject such as math, science and others. However, the English language has made its way as the medium of instruction not only in higher education and secondary schools, but also in bilingual or international schools that operate in Sweden. Thus, instead of English being taught only as a separate subject it is also the medium with which other subjects are taught at the school, an advantage for the students who are educated both in English, enhancing their communicative skills, but also in other subjects at the same time. Education is one of the domains where English is most dominant along with science, technology and the media not only within the Swedish context, but within a global outreach.

The popularity of English, however, has posed a threat to the national language of Sweden in a sense that such an exposure on the specific foreign language may lead to “negative effects on the students’ proficiency in Swedish” (Lindberg, 2007, p. 86). Despite those views, most Swedes “tend to regard immigrant minority languages rather than English as the big threat to the Swedish language” (ibid), which looks more in tune with the waves of immigration to Sweden. The differentiation between those languages and English is that the latter is unavoidable to learn not only because it is a compulsory school subject, but also because of its presence in the current globalized era.

However, English was not always a compulsory subject in the Swedish educational context. “English became compulsory in the 1950’s” (Eurydice, 2001, p. 3) and in 1962 it would become compulsory for the primary and lower secondary school, called grundskola. Concerning the time that is to be devoted to English language learning, the National Curriculum that was introduced in Sweden in 1995 states that “[t]he minimum guaranteed time for English is set at 480 hours” per year (Igawa & Yagi, 2011, p. 104). Even though the hours for English tuition are set, “[e]ach school decides when to start and how to allocate the time to English with the grades 1-9 students” (ibid.). This is where the decentralization of the Swedish educational system becomes apparent with each school being responsible for the implementation of the curriculum, the commencement of English language as a subject and the time that is to be allocated to it. More specifically, according to the Eurydice report (2001), the curriculum that was decided upon stated that there are specific goals to be accomplished regarding foreign languages and schools are free to choose when English as a subject will be introduced, that is in which grade, and how many hours per week will be devoted to it. Year 5 is usually the year when English is introduced to students as a
compulsory subject, however, this depends on the school’s decision, as was mentioned above, and its status. An international school’s priority, for example, with English as the medium of instruction is to introduce the English language to the students as early as possible. In addition, even if the school does not hold a bilingual or international status, introduction to the English language usually begins in the third grade (Eurydice, 2001). According to the same source (ibid.) 80% of students are already exposed to the language before the age of nine and, thus, have a smoother transition from non-formal to formal education when they join the school. Year 9 marks the end of compulsory education in Sweden.

Simply introducing English to a school system, however, will not miraculously lead to the achievement of fluency and in-depth understanding from a young age. Each school must abide by a vision, a plan, which states the aims of learning the English language. In Sweden, and consequently in Stockholm, several goals have been designed to be achieved through English instruction and learning. The first aim, according to the *Skolverket* (2011, p. 32) curriculum for the compulsory school, preschool class and the recreation centre, states that “[t]eaching in English should essentially give pupils the opportunities to develop their abilities to understand and interpret the content of spoken English and in different types of texts”. One notices that the first goal of foreign language learning is the ability to understand and grasp the meaning of spoken discourse in the target language. This is not accomplished through a one-dimensional approach to language learning, but to the exposure of a number of diverse and real-life contexts so that the students improve language acquisition in real-life situations outside the classroom.

Secondly, after receptive skills have been taught, English teaching should focus on the expression of the students both in speaking and writing (*Skolverket*, 2011). This comes as no surprise as no one is complete and fluent without the advancement of productive skills which allow wholesome communication. Once more, a variety of contexts is of great necessity for the development of a foreign language acquisition so as to prepare pupils for communicative conditions outside of the class’ structured environment.

Thirdly, *Skolverket* (2011, p. 32) maintains in its aims that the ability to “use language strategies to understand and make themselves understood”, should also be strengthened. Teachers are responsible for providing the stimuli that pupils need in order to start practicing the language themselves and finding ways to add to everything they have learned. Each student is unique in the way they learn, but teachers can equip students with ways which
assist in better practicing and acquisition such as the strategy of self-correction or reformulation which are correction strategies regarding writing skills and allow the writer/student to correct his/her own mistakes (Ibarrola, 2009), as well as equipping them with fixed phrases and sentences (Skolverket, 2011) which assist in better acquisition of vocabulary and enhancement of the four skills.

English language teaching and learning should also aim at preparing students to “adapt language for different purposes, recipients and contexts” (Skolverket, 2011, p. 32). This stresses even further the importance of real-life situations within the classroom and of the wide range of topics and contexts that need to be covered throughout compulsory education. Students cannot fully adapt to a state of interlocution without a varied preparation in the classroom environment.

Last but not at all least, learning a language does not only entail grammar, vocabulary and the receptive and productive skills. Learning a language encompasses understanding for the people who have this specific language, in this case English, as their native, for their culture and their living conditions. In the Curriculum for the Compulsory School, Preschool and Recreation Centre (Skolverket, 2011), it is clearly stated in the aims that pupils should “reflect over living conditions, social and cultural phenomena in different contexts and parts of the world where English is used” (p. 32). By studying these phenomena students have access to another culture and its traditions, which predisposes another context within they can learn. The core content curriculum of Swedish schools (see Appendix B) has set a number of goals to be attained dividing them into categories based on the school grades. Therefore, the aims that a student is to achieve from the first grade until the third are the same and so are the goals in grades four to six and seven to nine. Each of these grade categorizations targets the development of certain skills and they most specifically focus on three major categories: content of communication; listening and reading-reception; speaking, writing and discussing-production and interaction (Skolverket, 2011). The above form the necessary compartments of learning and using a language and are therefore at the center of teaching for development as they become from simple to more complex through the years while still presenting some relation to the pupils’ interests (ibid.).

As was mentioned above, the aims that the curriculum brings forward are not to be achieved in a very short time, that is not the purpose, but they are rather stretched out through the
entire nine-year compulsory education. Therefore, several goals are attained at specific time periods.

One of the most demonstrated elements in the above curriculum is the stressed importance of communication and interaction. Indeed, Malberg (as qtd. In Tholin, 2012) maintains that “[t]he concepts emphasized as central to English teaching were communication, internalization, information technology and culture” (p. 76). One thing that most schools in Sweden do share concerning the learning of English, is that the latter occurs through Communicative Language Teaching or CLT (Inju Tendoh, 2012). As was mentioned in the theoretical background section, this approach to teaching describes the method with which teachers leave most of the talking and communication to students in order to engage them in conversation and help enhance their skills. In this case, teachers are responsible not of rigid teaching of grammar and vocabulary, but rather of creating an engaging real life situation for the students where “teachers play the role of mentors” (Inju Tendoh, 2012, p. 25).

5.2 Non-governmental Centres in Sweden

Adult education institutes operate in Sweden to promote lifelong learning and give the chance for continuing education to adults. According to Skolverket (2013) “the school system for adults covers municipal adult education at both compulsory and upper secondary school levels; special education for adults with development disabilities or brain impairments; Swedish tuition for immigrants”.

Adult education and lifelong learning, which come in the form of non-governmental centres, are very popular in the Nordic countries and “a highly visible phenomenon in the Nordic societies” (Rubenson, 2003, p. 938). Two are the main reasons for this state: public support and the minimal severity of “the ever-present law of inequality” (Rubenson, 2003, p. 936). In Sweden, as is the case with the rest of the Nordic countries, adult education and lifelong learning are closely tied to social movements and labour market policies (ibid.). More specifically, Rubenson (2003) claims that there exists as specific regime type, the Nordic regime-type. Following this social-democratic regime

we find less dualism between state and market and between working class and middle class. The state sets a very demanding equity standard, rather than equity of minimal needs as pursued elsewhere. The citizen’s right to services and benefits has traditionally been defined according to the pattern of the middle class. This model restricts the market and constructs an essentially universal solidarity in favour of the welfare state.
Sweden is one of the countries where equality and beneficial aid to its citizens is visible in everyday life. Therefore, it comes as a corollary that education should be offered to citizens who for a variety of reasons were not able to finish upper secondary education or for those who wish to refine their already acquired skills and develop others for reasons that are closely related to employer demands and update of the learners’ skills to either achieve a promotion and a more competitive raise in the workplace or to get the necessary qualifications in order to continue to higher education (Stockholms Stad, n.d.).

The need for adult education arose due to urgent “imbalances in the labour market” (Rubenson, 2003, p. 939). Imbalances in the labour market suggested a collapse in the financial sectors, something that would need to be avoided. Thus, adult training did not only provide citizens with the improvement of theoretical and practical skills and ideas for unemployed and underemployed citizens, but it was beneficial to the improvement of the economy of the country as “full employment prevented a fiscal overload on social policy programmes such as unemployment insurance” along with an increase in tax revenue (ibid.). Whichever way one chooses to view the benefits of adult education, it becomes clear that human capital was in the centre of planning, the practices of which aim at the development of the society and the integration of all its citizens. Adult education in Sweden as well as in the rest of the Nordic countries functions bearing a tripartite role: “as an agency of popular movements, an adult educator, and as a supporter of culture” (Rubenson, 2003, p. 942), since knowledge of political current affairs and education in the form of a language or popular activities in the country culminate in the further involvement of the citizens.

Adult education in Sweden, and more specifically the in-progress Stockholm metropolis, provides participants with a lot of opportunities and varied subjects to study and be trained at. In Sweden, there are four types of adult education offered. Learners can be enrolled in Komvux (adult education), Folkhögskola (folk high school), Folkbildning (liberal education) and private centres. Both Stockholms Stad and Ny i Stockholm affirm that supplementary adult education in Stockholm may begin at the age of 20. The first two types of education refer to school leavers who have not completed upper secondary education and are in need of obtaining a certificate or a qualification to continue with their studies at a higher education institution or for any other reasons involved.
On the other hand, *folkbildning* or liberal education is also known as study circles and offers a number of subjects from dance courses to language courses mainly for leisure since there is no degree or certificate to be obtained from this kind of instruction. According to *National Encyklopedi* these study circles are usually governed by democratic values and ideologies and their fundamental aim is to create an environment that fosters learning, as is the case with the centre studied in this research.

What becomes apparent from the information above is that adult education, and non-formal education in particular, are not concerned with only one subject, in this case the subject of English. Language courses are offered in study circles and there is a variety of times, dates and durations that are offered. For example, one may find courses of English that focus on everyday situations and teach conversation English that can last from one week until one to two years. Choices are made depending on the needs of the participants both in terms of time availability, but also in terms of insufficient educational knowledge.

### 5.3 The Position of the English Language in Greece

The country of Greece on the other hand is not characterized by multiculturalism and co-existence of a variety of languages. Greek is the official language and English is learned as a foreign language at schools, at private language centres and at homes with the assistance of a private tutor. The last two forms of learning English or another foreign language are very popular and well sought-after in Greece. However, before providing a detailed description of the reasons why these ways of language learning are more preferable than the ones within the school system, an account of the position of English in the Greek society along with its position in formal education are due.

The importance of English is today’s globalised era is unequivocal and the need to be learned is no exception in Greece either. Exposure to and promotion of the English language in the Greek society occurs through the media, such as television, radio broadcasting and internet (Sougari & Hovhannisyan, 2013). Media exposure promotes the English language to younger and younger ages having as an outcome a better transition to the instruction of English at schools. Not dubbing over English movies is another advantage of Greek television channels, which broadcast movies and other English-speaking, and not only, programmes with Greek subtitles allowing for listening practice done unconsciously, which is also the case in
Sweden. Therefore, “the acknowledgment of the role of English as a means of international communication in particular and the preference for films and songs in English” (Sougari & Hovhannisyan, 2013, p. 128) familiarize learners of all ages with the culture and language of English. A research conducted by Sougari and Hovhanissyan (2013) on the motivation of learners to learn English in Greece and Armenia clearly states that the Greek sample, which consisted of 55 participants, demonstrated a predisposition towards the English language as a “tool of acquiring universal knowledge and becoming generally more educated” (p. 132), rather than another foreign language that they set out to learn.

With such a prestigious place in the Greek society and with so many reasons to acquire the language and make it part of their self, English in Greek schools should strive to do just that. English language instruction was introduced in 1987 in public schools in Greece, but only in the last three years of primary education, which means that it started in the fourth grade (Mattheoudakis and Alexiou, 2009). It became a compulsory school subject in 1991 and in 2003 it was introduced to the third grade as well (ibid). Regarding the hours allocated to English instruction in each grade, the following table illustrates them for both compulsory and non-compulsory education:

Table 8. School years in which English is taught in mainstream state schools, age of students and contact hours per week for each year.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School year</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Contact hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3rd primary</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th primary</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th primary</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6th primary</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st junior high school</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd junior high school</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd junior high school</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st senior high school</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd senior high school</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd senior high school</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Source: Adapted from Mattheoudakis and Alexiou, 2009)
What should be stressed here, especially for the academic year of 2014-2015, according to Dermetzopoulos (2014), the Deputy Minister of Education in Greece, upon reaching the first year of senior high school, which is the first year of non-compulsory education, students are called upon to choose among English, French or German as the language that they will be taught during the three years of non-compulsory education (Edu-klimaka, n.d., my translation). Another feature to be considered in the school provision of foreign language learning is that according to the same source the number of students in order for a foreign language class to be formed is fourteen (14, my translation). In case, this number is not met then the class with less than fourteen students will be integrated into another fully formed classroom learning another language (ibid, my translation). This decision is made due to the financial and political imbalances that the country faces in the present time and the public educational sector is suffering a lot of inauspicious reforms.

There is, however, a silver lining in English language learning and teaching as in 2011-2012, English language instruction was introduced in the first and second grade of primary school for two hours each week as a pilot study to see how students interact with the language and whether or not this is a beneficial move for foreign language education.

This innovation is one of the components of an enriched school curriculum introduced by the Greek Ministry of Education in 2010-11, on an experimental basis, in 800 of the largest state schools in the country. Thanks to this project therefore, which was expanded in 2011-12 to include 161 more schools operating as enriched-curriculum “all-day” schools, 40% of the first and second grade pupils in Greece are now starting foreign language learning from an early age.

(ΙΕΑΠΙΙ-EYL English for Young Learners, 2013)

Even though there are specific goals to be attained through instruction of English as a foreign language in each grade, “the main objective is to develop Foreign Language Literacy, Multilingualism and Multiculturalism, which are regarded as the three core content guiding principles in teaching modern foreign languages” (Government Gazette, as qtd. in Sougari & Hovhannisyan, 2013, p. 125).

Because of the great percentage of Greek students, around 80% according to statistics by Mattheoudakis and Alexiou (2009), attending foreign language centres after school, a topic which is further discussed in the following section, a new foreign language curriculum was to be introduced within a new educational framework called “New School (School of the 21st
century)” to a number of schools in 2007 and was to be funded by the Greek government and the European Union for a span of six years, from 2007 until 2013. Unfortunately, due to changes in political and financial structures within the country, the implementation of this new project was rendered unfeasible. Nevertheless, it examined a few points that would prove beneficial for the necessary changes regarding foreign language learning at schools and will, therefore, be discussed in this section mainly because the then Minister of Education made a few changes towards the direction of this project and because it discusses the reality of the Greek educational system.

This new programme examined the inclusion of the first foreign language (English) and the second (French, German, Italian or Spanish) and emphasized that though the English language is always a standard subject in the schools, the selection of which second foreign languages to be included depends on the financial state and the technical aids of each school (Pedagogic Institute, n.d.). The creation of the programme was the outcome of a continuous dismissive behaviour towards the ways that English language had been taught at schools. In schools, the ways of teaching mainly focus on the educational side of a subject whose aim is to teach students not only the necessary skills for learning the syntactical and grammatical structure of the language, but also to teach them about the culture of that language and to help them understand it in a cultural context. However, there is a preconceived notion in Greece that both students and parents seem to believe in, that if teaching of a language does not aim at the attainment of an official certificate that demonstrates the proficient competency of the foreign language it is not necessary to be taught at schools (ibid.). Needless to say, no one stops to think that certification does not always mean competency in the skills tested. To make matters worse, during the years of junior and senior high schools, students feel that all their efforts need to focus on the subjects that are more important for their final grades and therefore, languages are left aside within the school programme and are considered as secondary subjects as plenty of time is provided to their learning after school hours at a private centre (ibid).

Therefore, the aim of the new programme was to create a teaching method that would be characterized by both the educational and cultural values it would pass on to students through the foreign language, but at the same time it would have a utilitarian approach to the language that would ultimately prepare the students for the attainment of the state’s language certificate (ibid). In terms of the educational and cultural values of this approach, foreign language teaching should promote intercultural awareness and mediatory capacity (ibid).
Undoubtedly, language and culture are inextricably bounded together and such an approach to learning can prove very beneficial both for the personal development of students and towards a professional path especially abroad, which is becoming more and more popular with Greek students each year.

Despite the fact that the above ambitious project was not implemented, its views on language teaching and learning are not far from the present core content curriculum which does not regard the utilitarian value of the foreign language as much as it does its educational and intercultural values. The Pedagogic Institute (PI) has issued a report in which it presents the aims of English language learning. In particular, the goal of English language inclusion as a subject in the school schedule aims at the gradually increasing ease of students utilizing the language both for their personal, school and social life, but also for the demands of their social, educational and professional path as well as for their awareness of lifelong learning.

5.4 Non-governmental Centres in Greece
Non-governmental centres in Greece operate differently than those in Sweden. Private language tuition either at language centres or at home with a private tutor are a thriving business in Greece due to the notions that schools do not prepare students adequately for their future with a foreign language and even if they do there is always the need for extra assistance after school hours to achieve the attainment of one or multiple certificates of foreign language competency. Private language centres in Greece are mainly a luxury extra principally because their target market of students starts attending “from approximately the age of 8 until their mid teens, although specialized courses are sometimes provided for very young learners starting as early as three years of age” (Mattheoudakis & Alexiou, 2009, p. 231). This is considered an extra simply because students are already introduced to English as a school subject and are taught 3 hours each week.

The introduction of English instruction in the third grade in 2003, served the purpose of limiting this thriving private business that proved the schools’ inadequacy in teaching or their own more efficient and professional ways of tuition. However, not only was that not the case, but “the number of private language institutes in Greece more than tripled between the years 1985 and 2000 (2,000 private language schools in 1985 and 7,000 in 2000) and has continued to increase until today, as private language tuition seems to have become the norm rather than the exception” with “80% of Greek school children attend[ing] foreign language institutes”
Antoniou, Melidou and Nikopoulos (2015) claim that according to statistics there are approximately 7,350 private language centres in operation in Greece at the moment and the expenditure on learning a foreign language each year reaches the amount of 440 million euros. In the prefecture of Thessaloniki alone, according to the statistics of the general trade secretariat, there are about 400 functional private language centres (General Trade Secretariat, n.d., *my translation*). The cost of foreign language learning does not emerge only from the tuition fees in the private centres, but is divided into book and certificate expenses.

Another characteristic of the non-governmental centres in Greece is that they only provide tuition in one set of subjects. What this means is that a centre that provides tuition in foreign languages does not provide art lessons or any other kind of lessons and should students wish to attend other lessons they should address the respective private or public centres that do.

From everything that was mentioned above, it becomes clear that attendance at non-governmental centres only serves one purpose and that is the utilitarian aspect of education with the sole goal of obtaining a certificate. “Courses offered at private language institutes are not compulsory, are mostly exam-oriented and give the opportunity to students to sit for exams which will allow them, if successful, to obtain a language certificate” (Mattheoudakis & Alexiou, 2009, p. 231). Acquisition of a certificate instantly denotes an educated person in languages and increases the possibilities of a decent employment in the future. While in Sweden it is the learner’s decision whether to attend classes or not, in Greece parents decide on the learners’ education in their early years. Since the ultimate achievement is the attainment of a certificate of competency, parents feel that the hours of English language instruction at schools are inadequate and limited while private language centres offer more hours and more intensive courses (Mattheoudakis & Alexiou, 2009). The following table demonstrates the hours allocated to teaching English at a private institute and the age of the learners at each level:

*Table 9. Levels of English taught in private language institutes, approximate age of students and contact hours per week for each level*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Contact hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A senior</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4-6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B senior</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4-6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Age</td>
</tr>
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<td>First Certificate of English</td>
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<td>Proficiency 2</td>
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(Source: Mattheoudakis & Alexiou, 2009, p. 233)

As is clear from the table above instruction in private centres usually commences where students are in the third grade of school and therefore the learning is parallel and the hours of instruction are the same. The change occurs in the following years where the students change level each year with increasingly demanding schedules both at the language institute and at school. By the age of 15, when compulsory education comes to an end, a student has managed to obtain one or two proficiency certificates either that of Michigan or that of Cambridge which are the most popular in Greece. There is, however, a disadvantage to early certificate acquisition; when students finish with their studies at the language centre at the age of 15 those that continue on to non-compulsory education attend other private centres that prepare them for the final exams in the third senior high when their scores will show whether or not they will attend the public university of their choice. As a consequence, students tend to spend a lot of time studying for the final exams and there is no time to practice English or any other language for that matter. Concomitantly, by the end of senior high school many students find themselves to have forgotten most of what they learned three years earlier and need to brush up on their knowledge again by either attending a language institute or having private lessons.

Whatever the outcome of learning at a language centre is for the students, Greek parents realize the unequivocal significance of foreign language acquisition and especially English and they desire the best knowledge for their children even though Greek economy is tight at the moment. To them, the extra help of private language centres equips their children with all they need to succeed in a globalized world along with the education provided by the school.

5.5 Differences between language learning practices in Sweden and Greece

Based on all the above information, a number of differences between the two countries have been concerned in regards to foreign language practices. First and foremost, the ages which each non-governmental institution targets are completely different in each country. In Sweden, education that occurs outside of the school context usually refers to adult education
and lifelong learning that takes place in the abovementioned centres depending on the aims of each learner. Enrolment to such centres presupposes that the learner has completed the 20th year of their life. Non-governmental centres in Greece, however, do not operate this way. Learners attending such centres are usually between the ages of 8 and 18, which is when they start and finish formal education, both compulsory and non-compulsory.

Differentiation between language learning practices in the two countries is also observed in the reasons why learners enrol in the said centres. In Sweden, learners that attend adult education may either do so because of interruption in their school education or simply for leisure. While the latter does not result in any certificate or diploma, the former allows learners to continue their education at a higher institution, since the diploma they acquire is equivalent to the diploma obtained from completing senior high school. In Greece, nevertheless, attending language centres aims at acquiring a foreign language certificate, which is needed for future endeavours and this is the reason why these centres are mostly exam-oriented. Moreover, enrolment in private language centres in Greece is considered more of a necessity mainly due to the fact that parents are sceptical of the educational practices that schools have adopted in teaching English as a foreign language. In addition, since the same syllabus and levels are applied to the public or private school as the ones applied to private language centres although with more intensive tuition for the latter, parents have found another reason of sending their children to attend courses at a private language centre.

Lastly, the two countries differ in that the centres of the first do not solely provide instruction in foreign languages, or any one subject in particular, but rather there is a great variety of subjects in one place. This is one dissimilarity to the way non-governmental centres operate in Sweden which provide a wide range of subjects for their learners in one place since the main goal is lifelong learning and learning for the sake of learning.

On the other hand, centres in Greece operate differently. There are different centres for different subjects, so one may find language centres, where a number of foreign languages are taught, dance schools, art schools, centres that teach school subjects and prepare students mainly for the subjects and the exams they are to encounter in senior high school and more.

There are of course a number of other differences between the learning practices of the two countries, but those mentioned above are the ones of interest to this research.
5.6 Three case studies of Non-formal English Language Centres in Sweden and Greece

5.6.1 Organization of English language teaching and learning

The presentation and analysis of the research findings will be conducted based on the themes and sub-themes that were formed in the Data Analysis section (see Data Analysis). The first theme to be examined is how English language teaching and learning is organized in the non-governmental centres that were selected for this research taking into consideration the age of the students that usually enroll, but also any approaches to teaching and learning or ways that teaching and learning occur. The themes that follow refer to the aims of the teachers and leaders interviewed; the collaboration among the personnel of the centers including the leaders; the impact that leadership seems to exert; and the already acquired qualifications as well as those necessary for recruitment.

First of all, and as it constitutes one of the differences between the two countries the age factor was discussed during the interviews and it is the first of the findings to be introduced here. Moreover, it shows the ages of the learners that usually attend these centres and around which learning and teaching is organized.

Starting with language center A, located in Thessaloniki, the ages that enroll there vary from 8 years old to adults, however, as Mrs. R., the leader of the center mentions that:

Mrs. R.: The majority is 8-16 I would say.

This statistic was also enhanced by the EFL teachers that work at the center who teach the following ages:

Mrs. L.: Mainly twelve to thirteen and young adults and teenagers up to eighteen to nineteen years old

Mrs. N.: Ten to fourteen

Mrs. G.: Five to ten

Mrs. X.: Mostly teenagers aging from fifteen to sixteen and sometimes adults as well especially in proficiency classes, usually university students.

In center B, the second one found in Thessaloniki, the ages enrolling are between eight and forty-five years old according to the leader and the EFL teacher that works there when asked what ages usually enroll at the institution and what ages they are teaching, respectively:
Mrs. E. (leader): From eight to forty-five.

Mrs. A. (teacher): Fourth grade to fourteen maybe (fourth grade being about nine to ten years old).

Lastly, in non-governmental institution C, located in Stockholm, where the researcher conducted interviews and observations in folkbildning or liberal education and Komvux the following ages are taught by the head teacher and teacher of liberal education and the EFL teacher of Komvux:

Mrs. Mo. (Head Teacher and teacher of liberal education): Pensioners. [...] since I work full time I have a lot of day courses and they’re people usually free so mostly pensioners. In the evening classes they are slightly younger but they are not very young. [...] Middle age, thirty upwards.

Mrs. Ma. (EFL Komvux Teacher): Between nineteen and fifty-five.

What was also observed through the interviews and later confirmed through the observations that took place, was that institution C in Stockholm structured its teaching and general functions on specific shared ideas and ideologies. This was particularly apparent in folkbildning or liberal education where the head teacher states the following to stress the emphasis that is given on the center’s policy and ideology:

Mrs. Mo.: But we work, at least I try also to work with democracy so that they grow as people and they learn to interact in a group, take things into consideration, listen to other people and leave the group as, shall we say, better people than they came?

And I have, of course, to live up to our ideology. I mean I can’t start talking about fascist ideas or so because we are on the left side and our ideology is linked to the worker’s union and so. We are not politically active, but of course our ideology is socialist.

And also I have had people who haven’t kept up, they don’t know what we are talking about so instead of everybody starting from the beginning, I said ‘I have a group I think it would suit you. Would you like to try?’ because you can’t say ‘you’re too bad’. And again it would be against our policy.

The above stated were confirmed during the observation of two of Mrs. Mo.’s classes where there was no pressure on the students for further homework or for discussing about topics they were not interested in, but rather a lot of suggestions were made as guidance and a lot of
choices have been given regarding the topic they would each like to discuss the next time. In this case, the students would bring in and discuss articles on current affairs, books and anything else they found captivating learning in this way related vocabulary and enhancing the presence of CLIL. Moreover, when a student did not have a particular topic prepared or thought about for discussion, the teacher would start asking questions about something that goes on in that student’s life so as to get him/her to speak and not feel undermined.

On any rules, policies and ideas what the owner of language center A, Mrs. R., argued was that:

Mrs. R.: The market guides me.

Referring to the methodologies and approaches used in the EFL classroom there is a strong presence of CLIL also known as Content and Language Integrated Learning as well as of the Communicative Approach in center C in Stockholm. Komvux teacher, Mrs. Ma., claims:

Mrs. Ma: I like to hand them authentic material either in writing or when it comes to speaking skills, current things in the world, in an English speaking world mainly but also globally so that there’s relation between the school and real-life and I think that’s really important. Also, choosing literature, I’d like it to have some relevance to human experience something for not only studying grammatical structures but putting everything into context. They should feel that it’s something that concerns them in their minds not only in school situations. And the grammar should be integrated, I feel it should be learned in context that feels relevant.

The material used at the time of observation was a theatrical play by a young play writer and was presented as an authentic material. Students had, thus, the opportunity to observe how the language is used in context and in particular in the context of literature and theatre. Moreover, the topic of the play was directly related to the experiences of the students as it referred to the relationship between an English teacher and one of her students. Along other structures, elements such as syntax and grammar also made their appearance and were duly integrated in the play and in the students’ learning.

5.6.2 Observations

Formulation of the results was not only based on verbal interviews of the participants, but also on observations that took place in several of their classrooms. Observations provide with a more holistic approach to presenting and analysing results and were thus employed for this
research. Out of the five themes that were identified in the thematic analysis of this study, the results that were extracted from observations belong to the theme of language organization in the non-governmental centres. Therefore, for reasons of clarity and organization the researcher decided upon devoting a separate section to discuss observation results within the area of theme 1. Considering the Observation Checklist that was utilized during the research (see APPENDIX C), there are four main categories that the observations were categorized into and so are the results of this section. These are: comprehensible instruction, negotiating meaning, content area instruction and sensitivity. Observations were only conducted in centres A and C due to availability for further research on the part of the participants. Therefore, the following sections will be categorized based on the areas formed on the observation checklist, each one discussing both centres and the results they yield.

5.6.2.1 Comprehensible Instruction

This domain focuses on how the teacher plans language teaching so as to encourage students’ participation, elicit responses and questions from them and promote their learning and thinking to a higher level incorporating a number of varied activities that facilitate this purpose. Discussing the points of the comprehensible instruction the teachers in the lessons observed in language centre A in Thessaloniki achieved comprehensible instruction or input with their students. More specifically, in all the classrooms observed the teachers made use of visuals, blackboards and interactive white boards making learning more fun for the students who responded very well to this kind of instruction. What was mainly observed was that the teachers referred back to a previously taught topic and inquired after vocabulary and grammar so as to continue with the new lesson which in two out of four cases observed was a continuation of the previous lesson and not a new subject. Both oral and listening activities were employed by all the teachers, however, the lesson was not very student-centred, but rather students were limited to their discussion in groups and pairs. This may be attributed primarily to the learners’ young age that requires stricter monitoring during collaborative tasks in order not to slow down the learning process and deviate from it. This was chiefly noticed in Mrs. G’s class of five and six year old students, however it was also noticeable to a lesser extent in the rest of the observed lessons as well.

In addition, all of the teachers observed encouraged their students to ask questions after a point was complete before proceeding to comprehension activities especially in reading and listening which were followed by comprehension questions. In the end of the lesson, the
teachers reserved about two to five minutes to answer any questions that might have arisen in a kind of review of the day’s lesson and also to assign homework for next time.

In centre C what was utilized in terms of visuals was the blackboard. In both classes observed the teachers made use of the blackboard to write down any information or vocabulary that was discussed. In particular, Mrs. Mo. made constant use of the blackboard writing down new vocabulary words that came up during the learners’ topic presentations and follow-up discussion, which the students noted down in notebooks. In Mrs. Ma’s Komvux class, the use of blackboard was only employed to note down the name of the writer that the students were encouraged to look up, the title of his work and the date of publication. Other than that activities were chiefly conducted orally for half of the lesson’s duration while the other half was devoted to an essay writing activity which the students were informed and prepared for in the previous lesson.

In Mrs. Mo’s class there was no reference to previously taught vocabulary, however, new vocabulary would be written on the board for the students to learn. In this way, Mrs. Mo was able to elicit responses from her students and not provide them with the answer straight away, but rather have them think their meaning in context. In Mrs. Ma’s class there was reference to the previous lesson because the observed lesson was a continuation of the previous one based on a theatrical play which was used as authentic material in the class. The teacher alluded back to it and asked the students to give her a summary of the play after they had discussed it in groups. Students in both classes were encouraged to ask any questions, however, in Mrs. Mo’s classes there were no set instructions and so the students did not really have anything to ask clarification on.

Activities to move the students to a higher level of thinking during the lesson were also observed in Mrs. Ma’s class mainly because she uses a lot of materials stemming from literary works and tries to elicit ideas and opinion from her students. This was also evident in Mrs. Mo’s class, however, it was the students who presented materials to her on a number of topics and she initiated discussion in the group.

Activities were solely oral in both observations and there were no instances of planned listening activities apart from the listening that was involved in group discussion where the learners had to listen to one another.
5.6.2.2 Negotiating Meaning

In this area, the observer checked for ways in which the teacher encouraged communication in the target language and modified the strategies employed, such as body language, self-speech and others in order to negotiate meaning and ensure that students understood the whole time.

In language centre A where the learners observed were mostly young and between the ages of 8 to 11-12 and one class of 5 to 6 years old, teachers used a great deal of body language to convey meaning to the students. Gestures were employed to a great extent while speaking and explaining to put more emphasis on the information provided. Mrs. G. in particular presented a special case because for young learners to learn there was movement in the classroom both on the part of the teacher and on the part of the students, even though the latter was highly limited. Teachers moved up and down, gestured with their hands and used facial expressions to facilitate learning. In addition, after instructions were presented and the students were about to work on a task, the teachers always asked the students to repeat the information they had received in order to make sure that there were no misunderstandings and the students would not find themselves in unclear situations.

Students were always encouraged to use the target language, however, some difficulty was presented especially in younger learners who were just learning how to do so. The native language of the students was employed in several cases by the teachers themselves when there was need for further explanation of vocabulary or any instructions that were not clearly understood in the target language. In younger ages, a lot of repetition occurred when it came to instructions both in the native and target languages.

In higher level classes, the teacher did not need to modify the language at all as that was the main aim of learning in the higher level: to understand how language is spoken in a number of contexts and in real-life situations. That was chiefly the case with Mrs. X.’ proficiency class where the language of instruction was English and the native language were used only sporadically. With lower level classes and with young learners, the teachers had to alter the way they spoke the target language so that learners understood better and were able to follow the teacher’s thoughts and instructions. Information was made comprehensible to the students by slowing down on the speaking process and repeating several times was being said. Moreover, there was not a great variety of contexts in lower levels that simulated real-life contexts as was the case in higher levels.
In institution C, on the other hand, not a lot of movement was employed by either teacher that was observed. Specifically, Mrs. Mo. was always sitting down in front of the students and would occasionally stand up to write words on the board creating an atmosphere of equality nonetheless, between her and the students. In Mrs. Ma.’s the teacher was always standing and monitoring when there was group or pair work involved, but in general she would move up and down at the front of the class. Gestures were not greatly employed either, however, facial expressions became noticeable from time to time.

Speaking of the language was always done in a normal pace and intonation and nothing would be altered for the sake of understanding. One thing that was noticeable, however, was that Mrs. Ma. would speak in a very low voice to the students which created, nonetheless, calmness in the classroom even though the researcher who was sitting at the back of the room could not hear very well.

Communication was always conducted in English and the students were always encouraged to speak in the target language. Use of Swedish was scarce to none at all and was only utilized in case both the teachers and the students would not remember how to explain a word in English. Using English for learning the language was not merely performed for the learning of the structures and vocabulary, but was mainly done so in a way that students could relate their own experiences to the topic at hand. There was no need to discuss something in Swedish in order to then transfer it to English and none of the students observed did so.

5.6.2.3 Content Area Instruction

Content area instruction refers to the added materials used by the teachers in order to facilitate the learning process of the core curriculum, the integration of the students’ culture and the overall inclusion of all the students in the activities planned.

In language centre A, students and teachers come from the same background, they are all Greek, and therefore, there is no differentiation in the culture during the lesson. One of the lessons observed, Mrs. L.’s class, focused on the English culture in United Kingdom to make the students familiar with a culture that speaks English as a native language.

All the teachers observed in centre A started their lesson by informing the students on the topic that they would work on that particular day and if that was a continuation of a previous lesson they would start with a brief review of the vocabulary and grammar that was taught the previous time ensuring that the students comprehended everything by asking questions and
assisting them with the review. New structures and vocabulary that were introduced were presented in both a deductive and inductive approach, but mostly the latter, where the teachers would present the structure and the vocabulary that were new to the students and try to elicit responses as to what they meant or what they discussed. That was primarily the case with higher levels whereas in lower levels the teachers would mostly proceed with the deductive approach.

All the activities planned and performed were extracted either by the book or by the teacher and were suited to the learners’ needs and levels as the students could follow the instructions with no difficulty and seemed to respond well to the tasks at hand. However, there were no clear objectives set out to the students and, therefore, the researcher was not aware of them either. Moreover, the activities were planned to include all the students mainly when tasks were performed in groups or pairs and the active participation of all the students were necessary. However, from what the researcher observed participation in groups were not always equal by all the students as some would overshadow others regardless of the teachers’ instructions.

In centre C, in the class of liberal education almost all the students and the teacher were Swedish, with the exception of one who came from Poland, but has lived in Sweden for about 24 years. Thus, there was no cultural diversity there either. In the Komvux class, however, from what the teacher informed the researcher students came from a number of different backgrounds, such as from Iran, Spain, Sweden, Poland and possibly other places as well and were all integrated in one class. In the classes observed culture was not discussed as the main topic of the lessons, however, in one of the liberal education classes, the teacher and students were interested in the researcher’s culture, asked questions about it and tried to find similarities and differences between the two countries in terms of education, politics and social life.

In the liberal education classes there were no aims or objectives of the lessons and the classes were described as conversational which means that students are there to have conversations in English and through that improve their knowledge of the language. In that way, the lessons did not have set instructions and instead the students were free to discuss anything they were interested in. In the Komvux class, however, things are more structured, but still the teacher did not give out clear objectives or the aim of the lesson observed for the students. Since it
was a continuation of a previous lesson, however, the students knew what they would discuss in that particular lesson and were also prepared for their writing task.

Lastly, in liberal education classes there are no activities planned and no specific lesson plans to be followed. However, there was participation by all the students and active discussion as well since everyone had to present a topic they found interesting in a newspaper, magazine or on the internet or any other source they had available. In the Komvux class, there was a structured lesson plan and the students actively contributed to the class when the teachers asked questions. To ensure that all the students participated, however, the teacher also included two group works in her teaching. Communication and cooperation among the students themselves and among the teachers and the students alike were observed in both the liberal education and the Komvux classes. Students worked in pairs and small groups for short discussions, mainly in Komvux, while in folkbilding they interacted freely with one another and with the teacher in class conversations.

5.6.2.4 Sensitivity

The last area of the observation checklist deals with the respect and sensitivity of the teachers in dealing with their students and most importantly in correcting their mistakes, respecting their culture and encouraging them to take risks in communicating in the target language. Respecting cultures and the background of the students was also discussed in the previous section, therefore, there is no need for it to be discussed further below.

What was mostly observed in both centres was that the teachers would correct their students’ mistakes at the moment they made them. This was mostly observed in Mrs. Mo.’s liberal education classes where she corrected errors while the students were still speaking and they then repeated the correction. While observing Mrs. Ma.’s class the researcher did not observe any corrections in terms of grammar and vocabulary, but the students did not speak too much in the class for that to be observed. When they did speak they did so in groups and the teacher could not monitor and correct each and every group.

In language centre A, there was more emphasis on the correction of the mistakes where the teacher also wrote the mistake on the board and gave the correct answer. What was noticeable in the higher class, that of Mrs. X., when the students made mistakes she would wait for them to finish and then write on the board asking the students why they think that was a mistake. In either case, there was no pinpointing of the students who was wrong and if there was, it was
presented in a fun and joking way, in centre A, where the teachers made sure that the learners would laugh it out.

5.7 Aims of the teachers and leaders

5.7.1 Students and Centres

The second theme that was identified in the thematic analysis were the aims of the teachers and the leaders regarding both themselves and their students and institution. Most interviewees when asked about what they wish to achieve concerning their students responded that they want their students to learn the language in an effective way so as to use it and to form happy students. More specifically:

*Mrs. R.*: [...] my personal ambition and the aim and the thing that I believe in is that our children, Greek children need to know a language, a foreign language extremely well and they should be competent at it as if it were their second language.

*Mrs. Mo.*: Of course, one of the aims should be, and is, that they learn their English because that’s what they are there for and I love all these ‘aha’ expressions. But we work, at least I try also to work with democracy so that they grow as people and they learn to interact in a group, take things into consideration, listen to other people and leave the group as, shall we say, better people than they came?

*Mrs. A.*: Well, I want children to be happy when they come here and to enjoy this.

*Mrs. Ma.*: They should feel that it’s something that concerns them in their minds not only in school situations.

*Mrs. X.*: Of course, the truth is that when it comes to the proficiency classes the joy comes not from the certificate but from the fact that they learn to use the language effectively, because I see that they get their get their certificate, they know their English and they study abroad; or they do things using the language and this is the satisfaction you get.

One of the aims, which was only evident in the centres A and B in Thessaloniki was the attainment of the students’ certifications. The following excerpts present this finding fully:

*Mrs. E.*: We prepare students for certificates. There is not much time for fun, but we do intend to help them being able to writing skills, listening skills, be able to speak, write, understand, we help with extra lessons.
Mrs. A.: I definitely want them to acquire their degrees when it’s time for that and I particularly enjoy teaching them English in a funny way.

Mrs. R.: Ok, now. My institution is based in Greece, which means there is nothing, there are no clients if there are no, if at the end of the road there is not a degree. However, my personal ambition and the aim and the thing that I believe in is that our children, Greek children need to know a language, a foreign language extremely well and they should be competent at it as if it were their second language.

Because we have a degree at the end of the road we are aiming towards that degree but never forgetting that they should- so we try to incorporate the fun as much as possible.

Another aim referred to by the EFL teachers in language center A was that their main aim is to create independent students and students who can help weaker learners develop.

Mrs. L.: For the student I think to be successful into learning, into helping the weaker ones and to be able to elicit things from them, to make them deduce things instead of just, you know, feeding them.

Mrs. N.: For the students it is to be independent students and I like teaching them how to listen, how to speak, how to write but most of all how to be.

The head teacher of center C also mentioned that she needs to live up to the students’ expectations as the services offered are paid:

Mrs. Mo.: I have to keep time and money. I mean they pay to come so I have to give them what they have paid for both in actual time I’m there and also so that they feel that they got something out of it. I can’t just sit there and polish my nails. So, I have to live up to that.

5.7.2 Personal Development
As for personal aims, most of the teachers’ goals are to become better and achieve personal growth and satisfaction.

Mrs. Mo.: That should be it; personal growth.

Mrs. G.: Personal satisfaction.

Mrs. X.: Personally, you want to become a better teacher, you always come up with new things, new difficulties, new challenges because personalities are so different and the thing that you cope with them is my personal satisfaction. Other than that, I teach the highest level
of my students, there isn’t anything higher than that so basically the challenge is that: new people and how to deal with them.

One of the teachers interviewed also mentioned that for her personal growth and personal achievements she would like to go into a Master’s degree in the future:

Mrs. L.: For personal growth, I would be interested in going further perhaps into a master degree but perhaps later on.

And others looked at teaching in a different way:

Mrs. N.: And for me it’s always very enjoyable to see the class as a theatre and I am the director, they’re the actors and it’s like drama in life. So I become a better person at times, I learn how to teach my students and I feel full of energy when being with them.

Mrs. A.: I think the more I teach the more I like it. I never get bored. I really enjoy that all my students, especially adult students, tell me that I really share this enthusiasm and I make them feel enthusiastic about learning the language because this is what I show them. That I really enjoy it.

Lastly, Komvux teacher, Mrs. Ma, feels as if she can further develop her own skills and strategies through her teaching because she learns as well:

Mrs. Ma.: To develop my listening skills and only to interfere only when I think I am needed in discussions. Well, to take a step back and be present as much as possible in the situation. So, that’s my aim. This is something I have to work with. I like the students to feel ‘ok now I’m here what do I need to develop, how can I do it and trying to be as clear as possible’ when it comes to explaining what they need and why to advance. It’s difficult sometimes and developing my own strategies to reach out. That’s a challenge of course and at times frustrating. A feeling of presence in what I do.

5.8 Collaboration

Third presented in the thematic analysis of this research is the theme of collaboration among teachers themselves and among teachers and leaders, and in this case also head teachers.

In language centre A, Mrs. R. strongly supports and encourages collaboration as one of the practices in her institution and especially for new teachers, which shows from the following excerpt:
Mrs. R.: Yes, I think that the general spirit of the school is collaboration so yes and in the past we have always, every time we had a new teacher it had always been the case first of all, that this person is assigned a mentor but we all work as mentors for him or her also. But there is a specific person also someone who has been doing the level for years before him who he can turn to for instructions, help.

Mrs. X. from the same center also responded positively when asked about collaboration within the institution:

Mrs. X.: […] there are frequent and regular meetings.

In language center B, both the teacher and leader that were interviewed responded positively to the existence of discussion and consultation of one another:

Mrs. E.: We consult one another, young teachers are always inspiring and old teachers have experience. So, I think a combination between these two is the perfect goal for our school.

Mrs. A.: We discuss with the language school owner but she is the one who makes the decisions. But yes we discuss.

In the third institution in Stockholm cooperation and discussion conduct depend of the department that the teacher belongs to. Mrs. Mo., the head teacher, who teaches liberal education shows preference and habit in solving arising problems herself and says so for the rest of her department:

Mrs. Mo.: I think that goes more for the Komvux part because they collaborate more, they have a plan to follow and there they can help each other follow the plan and fill in for each other much more than we can and if I can’t come to the lesson we just ring and say ‘sorry no English today’ and for very many years I didn’t work in this building. So I learned to work on my own and solve my own problems. And that’s the fact for many of us. We’re not used to having the possibility of help so most of us are loners, used to solving our own problems.

Indeed what was said for Komvux by Mrs. Mo. is confirmed by Mrs. Ma., who works as a Komvux teacher and responded in the following way when asked about cooperation in her department:

Mrs. Ma.: Now, since we have 10-week courses we have some things- some orientation between us the teachers in case we get ill the other can substitute. And also when it comes to tests, that we do them the same time so that’s more logistic. […] we had very big groups so
we had over two teachers and the other teacher was history and religion teacher and that worked very well because we had two classrooms next to each other so we could open up between, so sometimes we had big discussions or shared clips or whatever, or speeches then we opened up, we were a big group, then we could also bring aspects different aspects of question from our different perspectives. I liked that, I thought we completed each other. But that’s not anymore, but apart from that we visited each other and next week we discuss all the teachers together with the principal and she was to develop this so that we visited at least two colleagues and give them feedback, constructive feedback of course.

5.9 Impact of leadership

One of the main themes in this research is the impact of leadership on teachers and teaching and in their freedom or lack thereof in choosing their own materials and methods in their classroom. The answers will be given through categorizing the centres providing the responses of each interviewee in order.

In language centre A, when asked about the influence that is thought to be exerted on the teachers, Mrs. R., as the leader herself answered that she believes that her leadership style affects her employees, however, she also feels that she is influenced by them and their mind set as well:

Mrs. R.: I think I affect them. I think that the way a leader or a manager sees things affects people who work there. Also that might be the case because I can work with and therefore choose people that have similar minds to my own, but it’s a relationship that goes both ways because I work with people with similar minds to my own I am affected by them as well, by their reasoning.

Moreover, as a leader she supports her teachers either when they first work for her and are new teachers or when they experience some kind of plateau in their teaching. What she responded when asked how this support takes place is the following:

Mrs. R.: For many years I have been offering in house training which is for teachers that come for the first time to work with us they go through a process of training with a specific teacher who has a CELTA and who is very good with syllabus and lesson planning and stuff like that so they go through that training. Throughout that year then we have observations for the reason to give them back feedback on the things that they do well or wrong; I also do observations on my own and I go into the class and afterwards we discuss things that could
be done differently etc. Also twice a month we held meetings for the whole personnel, the whole staff was responsible for one specific class and we discussed together either problems with specific students, problems with the syllabus, how the syllabus should be going, things that we should include or leave out.

Additionally, her personnel is also consulted when it comes to educational decisions, but not on any matters that concern business or running of the centre:

Mrs. R.: When the decisions have to do with educational matters I definitely consult my staff and there are times also that I disagree with something, not strongly, but there are times that I disagree with something but I let them happen because people need to acquire the experience that comes when they’re making their own mistakes. When it comes to business decisions, I make them alone. Or consulting friends and others, not my staff.

The above is confirmed by Mrs. G. and Mrs. X. as well who agree that they are consulted on educational matters and on anything that involves their classroom:

Mrs. G.: Yes. Not in business regarding only the educational part and only for my classroom.

Mrs. X.: Educational yes, when it comes to books and stuff like that.

Following with the teachers’ responses on leadership influence and freedom of materials in the class, most of them answered that they are free to do as they please in their classroom even though there are of course some limitations from the institution, some rules that need to be followed. Furthermore, most of the teachers prepare their own materials instead of relying on the book. Freedom also depends, nevertheless, on the level of the students:

Mrs. L: In the past, in the first few years, things were more limited, but after a couple of years, especially with my advanced and proficiency class things were just flowing. I had my own material, I made my own booklets for the writing and speaking so I have the freedom to go wherever I want to go, do whatever I want to do. In my C senior class and younger classes that I have things are more limited and time is usually one problem, because you cannot match it with the material that you have to do. In younger classes, no, I don’t have my own lesson plan, I have a syllabus which is really strict and I have to know what to do each day. It’s quite limiting. Higher classes are freer. [...] But in what I really want to do- let’s say it’s a balance between 50% my choice and 50% some integration from Mrs. R.
Mrs. G.: 100%. We have a standard syllabus and from then on 100% of my capacity in the classroom to do whatever I want. No choice in materials. It was standard in the beginning.

Mrs. X.: To a large degree, but of course there are guidelines from the school, from the management of the school I mean, there are frequent and regular meetings, we know what to do when it comes to the material that we cover throughout the year, we know exactly what we do, but how these things are going to be put in the heads of the students, that is my business, but what is going to be taught to the students is, I think that we decide all together with the management as well. [...] So, we basically work on the things that we want; we take things from different books and we prepare our own material, we know what we’re looking for so this is a little bit time-consuming of course, it’s quite demanding, but we prefer it this way.

Mrs. L. also mentions that what limits her, regarding the materials and the methods that she is to employ, is the time provided for each lesson:

Mrs. L.: Well, it limits that sometimes by limiting the time I have and choosing the material that I have to do, sometimes my teaching techniques have to adapt so the material would meet the time that I have been allocated to do. So that would be the thing that I have to juggle through.

When asked if there is any support by the principal most teachers in center A replied that she is helpful and she is there when there is need even though there is also disagreement and several different ideas. However, not all of them had the same opinion:

Mrs. L.: Not always. Unfortunately not always. I mean I can see her point of view. There is a limited amount of things that a person, a student who’s graduating C senior is supposed to know, so I don’t have all the time in my hands nor hers, but the thing is sometimes as a teacher, you feel that there is a need for something more which unfortunately you won’t have time to do.

Mrs. N.: Yes, most of the time she helps when I need help. However, I always filter what I listen to and I don’t do anything before filtering, that’s for sure cause I have to understand, I have to find the purpose on my own and it’s difficult to absorb someone else’s ideas if you don’t understand it.

Mrs. X.: Well a lot. She sets the guidelines and in a way, in practical terms she is the leader and she shows the way. This is it. Of course, it is the thing that the good things in most of the things- our ideas overlap. We kind of have the same vision of how things should happen but
when it comes to decision, the final decision is for the management, Mrs. R., this is it. Even if you disagree sometimes, this is it. It’s her school, she has her special thing to do it, that’s it. Clear.

Finally, when the teachers were asked to describe her in other words, apart from those mentioned above, only positive things to be said and positive images of her as a principal emerged:

Mrs. G.: As the best leader I could ever have. She is very inspiring and supportive. I did not have any problems.

Mrs. N.: She knows a lot of things, she has her own ways, she is always helpful and willing to help us and I appreciate that because I always have someone to turn to for advice.

Proceeding with language centre B, Mrs. E. as the principal, did not answer exactly to her influence as a leader, but rather on the rules that pertain the institution and which are to be followed. The rules and the schedule of the centre are what influence the teaching that takes place. The rules are hers to be made, however, and an indirect impact on her employee by her is visible:

Mrs. E.: They all follow the schedule of the language school. It has an impact because they don’t do what they want. They have to follow some rules here, concerning teaching of course.

Mrs. A. as the EFL teacher of the center agrees with the above mentioned and maintains that as an employee of this specific institution she follows some rules and regulations even though there is some room for improvisation in teaching:

Mrs. A.: You have to improvise when you teach but yes there is a certain strategy, I follow the politics of the language school. [...] You have to adjust. It depends on the class, the learners, how fast they learn, their needs.

When inquired after a description of her principal she very gladly admitted that she has been a role model for her and therefore, influenced her in a positive manner:

Mrs. A.: She has been my role model. I mean I totally admire her for her jobs and for her teaching abilities and she is definitely my role model and she has been amazing.

Institution C presented a dissimilar case to those of language centres A and B in Thessaloniki, mainly because it is divided in departments. Mrs. Mo. who occupies both the position of the head teacher, but also that of an EFL teacher in liberal education, was interviewed following
Mrs. Mo.: Well I should say, my spontaneous answer would be totally free, but of course I have to go by the certain rules and regulations there are, as I said, I can’t force people into doing things.

As a head teacher one of her duties is to choose materials for other teachers and recommend any resources that would prove useful:

Mrs. Mo.: Absolutely! We choose ourselves. That’s what we do. We choose materials ourselves. Sometimes it’s chosen for us, but then usually I and the other head teachers have gone through materials and said this is what we’ll use. This is what is good for adult education, for example. So, some teachers cannot always choose all the material. They can if they really put their mind to it, but usually we recommend what to start with and then they are free to use material, whatever.

Komvux teacher, Mrs. Ma., also confirms that she is free to use any materials necessary to open up to students and anything that would concern and interest her students as well as stimulate them. She admits that there are several rules to be followed as far as the syllabus is concerned, however, they are characterized by vagueness:

Mrs. Ma.: Well, we have the knowledge requirements and we have to follow what should be the core content of course but it’s very vague, not too great understanding of other cultures and compare to Swedish conditions- very vague. And literature, drama, fiction are very open. We can pretty much decide for ourselves. [...] But, apart from that in the content we’re free and the leader should encourage that. So there’s no sense of censorship. [...] we’re just trying to open up. I feel encouraged to choose my material.

Concerning the leadership aspect of a head teacher’s occupation, Mrs. Mo., points out that she is available as a mentor for all the teachers and especially for the new ones. However, as she maintains asking for help may be considered a failure on the part of some teachers, but she is there in case anyone needs help. Moreover, she believes that any seminars, speeches and other educational programs organized by the institution are also of assistance to the teachers and to the personnel:
Mrs. Mo.: It’s like I’m available for them as a sort of mentor to ask questions. I mean some of my colleagues are not quite as experienced as I am, but nearly, and they don’t need help in that way. They may need help if one person in the group is not, what do you say, doesn’t live up to standards and it’s usually not the fact that they can’t understand English, it could be that they have a mental problem or they are hard to dominant or something of that kind and then we can talk about things like that. Well, I’m there. Not many of them have used me, but sometimes. And we also have meetings for our colleagues in our department at least twice a year we try to have meetings and then we invite somebody to come and give some tips, lectures, whatever, so that we get a little new energy from others. And in that way, we also have the guest giving perhaps, more influence than I do, but I am responsible for doing it. Well, if it’s the English I could help them of course if they ask questions and I could also refer them to one of the people who teach in the building somewhere who are native speakers who might know even better than I do. But, I think, I’m not so sure that they would ask that because I think that they would take it as a sort of failure so I don’t think they would come to me for that. Occasionally, they have but it’s more like details like ‘Do you know what this is called’ or so.

Additionally, she also mentions that as a head teacher and liberal education teacher there is no consultation of her in financial matters of the institution or any other related, however, leaders that do deal with those aspects of the centre do not interfere in teaching processes either:

Mrs. Mo.: Not financial, no. Other aspects. Actually as I said any leader or manager here would not have anything to do with language teaching. It’s more like, as I said we have to keep to the rules and I can’t, I shouldn’t anyway, make the students pay more to get better teaching or so. I should follow the plans.

Mrs. Ma., on the other hand, is not involved in any leadership functions, but rather to anything that concerns her own classroom and teaching. Taking into account that she is rather new to the institution, she is still taking the time to get around and learn the practices of the centre.

Mrs. Ma.: I don’t have the time to do much more than teaching and meetings [...] I don’t have the time, well I’m pretty new here so I’m getting around, getting to know what it’s like to work with others so I am learning that part.
Moreover, when she was asked regarding the support she gets from the leader or the cooperation between them she answered that there is not much time and not frequent meetings between teachers and principals, however, the teachers are encouraged by the principal to observe one another from time to time and provide each other with constructive feedback:

Mrs. Ma.: Not much. We should have had a meeting just to, she sees everybody, but I was sick so I didn’t have that opportunity. She went to my classroom and she gave feedback, but we were supposed to sit down and talk, but we never did, we never had time, so we haven’t really discussed her and me yet and I know that, well I’ve tried anyway to ignore her presence when she came, not to be too careful, do something else, I tried to throw myself to something else and I did, but she told me she liked it and I felt as if she was honest. So that gave me also more feeling of liberty. She said yes to this so that means I’m pretty free to do what I want. [...] we visited each other and next week we discuss all the teachers together with the principal and she was to develop this so that we visited at least two colleagues and give them feedback, constructive feedback of course.

5.10 Qualifications

The fifth theme to be identified concerns the qualifications of both the leaders and teachers, referring to those already acquired and to those who are required by the leaders for employment. Apart from the minimum academic qualifications needed for employment at the centres, personal features and characteristics are also discussed as prerequisite for employment by the leaders.

Divided in the three centres, the principal of language centre A, Mrs. R., has acquired the following qualifications as she herself states:

Mrs. R.: I have a degree from Aristotle University of Thessaloniki in English language and literature and then I did a master’s degree in the States which was mainly focused on American literature, however, I did some courses in TESOL as well. The degree was called Master’s in English language and literature.

The EFL teachers employed at her centre hold the following academic qualifications according to their interviews:

Mrs. L.: I hold a TESOL RSADip for overseas teachers of English. It’s before it became DELTA. It was the last year before it became DELTA. It’s a diploma for overseas teachers of
English and I’ve also been a certified Cambridge oral examiner for the past 11 years and I’ve been examining all students who sit Cambridge exams, from starters to proficiency.

Mrs. N.: I have the proficiency degree and for almost three years I’ve been attending a course on Diploma RSA.

Mrs. G.: Two certificates. One is a certificate in English teaching courses and the other one is the degree. The certificate is CELTA. (Along with a university degree).

Mrs. X.: Yes, well I got my proficiency certificate and this is how I started. I got my license and then I started working. No, but when I was first employed, the institution I was working for organized some seminars, which I had to follow because I didn’t have any experience so I did that.

The teachers were also interviewed as to the reasons they chose to acquire the specific degrees and certificates for their careers. They answered that they did so because they felt they needed extra practice and methodological guidance. In addition, they also claimed that acquiring those certifications assisted in overcoming the limitations of the book and the material and exercises that it offered as well as to develop and enhance their teaching skills. Confidence was one of the outcomes after attaining the acquired qualifications:

Mrs. G.: For extra practice and methodology. Because the university was inadequate.

Mrs. L.: Basically because I felt that I was limited from the book that I couldn’t adapt to the material and sometimes I felt that the exercises, the materials wouldn’t fit the needs of the students I was having at the current time. So I felt I needed to make meaningful adjustments and I needed to know how these would work and the results I would have instead of just, you know, changing things and see if they would work or not. [...] it gave you a freedom to adapt both the speaking, the listening, the writing, the reading different kinds of skills. More confident because I used also, I had to do, in two years I had to complete a number of assignments on different topics, each one was in a completely different topic, I had 8 TPs, teachers of Cambridge came into class examining me while I was teaching and marking me, I wrote a book of about 150 pages with research I had done, practice in class my own material and then evaluation if this was actually working so it was a bit process, a long process.

Mrs. N.: Yes, I chose it because I think it was necessary to improve my teaching skills, how to teach things in class and after that I felt much more confident and I’ve learned a lot of things and I’ve used most of them in class and by teaching different skills in different ways and not
only these skills but integrate them as well which was in the end very successful and I learned how to do the vocabulary, grammar everything and all the projects included.

In language center B, Mrs. E.’s and Mrs. A.’s acquired qualifications are the following, taken from the interview transcriptions:

Mrs. E.: I have a certificate and I have finished Michigan literature. I’m also an accountant but I have never worked as an accountant.

Mrs. A.: University degree- Yes of course.

Mrs. Mo. and Mrs. Ma. from institution C in Stockholm hold a bachelor’s degree even though Mrs. Ma.’s bachelor’s is an acting major from the UK and the Swedish license required by the government in order to teach in Sweden:

Mrs. Mo.: I have university exam, bachelor not master’s, then I have a teacher’s diploma sort of. The Swedish one. They weren’t there (certifications) when I started. The certification was first and then I started teaching afterwards.

Mrs. Ma.: Yes. I studied French and English first and then I completed a one and a half year pedagogy so I can get my certificate, certification, the teaching license. [...]And now it’s mandatory and you are not allowed to grade people without this paper or I think on the 1st of July it will become mandatory.

When interviewed on whether these obtained certifications assisted in enhancing their confidence in teaching they answered in a negative manner replying that it was experience and personal perseverance that helped them become confident in what they do:

Mrs. Mo.: I do remember thinking when I started teaching that all the pedagogy and everything I’ve learned at university was really not applicable. It was too theoretic. It was much more experience and feeling that made me use different sorts of pedagogy.

Mrs. Ma.: Not really because it is just a piece of paper. I knew I would get it since I had the qualifications, they couldn’t deny it or me. So, it was just a matter of time. I knew it would take forever but that was not of great importance for me personally.

The last sub-theme referred to the qualifications necessary and set by the employers for future teacher employment. Good knowledge of the English language is a prerequisite mentioned by Mrs. R. and Mrs. Mo. of centres A and C. In addition, a university degree is also desirable although not always necessary by the principals of centers A and B that were interviewed. It
does depend on the level for which the teachers are to be employed that their qualifications are set:

Mrs. E.: Absolutely they have to have a university degree, experience is needed but not essential.

Mrs. R.: Minimum qualifications are good knowledge of the English language, not necessarily a university degree, a person with a proficiency could do the job, depends on what level we are interested in; if we are interested in junior level then what I want more than a university degree is someone who has training as a kindergarten teacher with a proficiency degree; if we are talking about higher levels like exam levels then I need someone with experience. But I very rarely recruit somebody to come and teach exam levels, I outsource that, I mean I ask of somebody from the outside. Usually people who will get to the exam levels are usually people who have been working with us for several years and are very familiar with how things work.

In the liberal education at institution C, head teacher Mrs. Mo., puts strong emphasis on the good knowledge of English that prospective teachers need to have to be employed and it is sometimes enough for employment. Furthermore, knowledge of Swedish is not essential, but desirable:

Mrs. Mo.: Of course, the one and only thing that’s really important is that they are good English speakers. And that’s enough. Because in our department you don’t have to be a qualified teacher or so. It’s very good of course if you have teaching experience, but since we work with adult people in a very different way from school, it doesn’t always help to be a qualified teacher because there you have learned to treat people in a different way. When you work with students they are all young or pupils, they are very young and you have to discipline them in another way and you have to, shall we say, you have to be their leader in a different way. Whereas here you’re supposed to be more one of the group, only you are the one with the English knowledge. So, ordinary pedagogic methods don’t always work, not to that extent that they do in school. [...] You don’t exactly have to know Swedish. We think some of our competitors boast about having only native speakers whereas we think it can sometimes be an advantage if you’re a Swedish speaker, because most of our students have Swedish as their first or second language and if you learn, say Greek or Italian or whatever, it helps to know where the problems are.
Lastly, as far as personal qualifications and characteristics are concerned each interviewee in leadership position mentions certain personal features:

Mrs. R.: Personal qualifications, I need somebody who is cooperative, who is open-minded, who has a good aura and willing to adapt to the school spirit.

Mrs. E.: [...] being patient and hard-working and willing to work long hours.

Mrs. Mo.: Personal qualities would be, I won’t say dedication, it’s a big word, but at least that they are interested in teaching in the way that we want them to do. I don’t think it’s good if I see too much; as I said you have to be a little like one of the group, you can’t be too superior. So, the feeling of the person should be that you are interested in people, that you’re interested in teaching, of course, and not being too arrogant.
6. Discussion of the Findings

The main aim of this paper was to examine how English teaching is organized in non-governmental centres in Stockholm and Thessaloniki and how leadership at these centres affects teaching and organization. Interviews and observations were conducted to reach the results arrayed in the previous section and several themes were identified during the thematic analysis of the data collected. In this section, the results of the research process are discussed and their consistency with the relevant theories, or lack thereof, is presented.

As is delineated by the detailed analysis of the findings, the organization of the centres that participated in the research is founded on specific ideas, ideologies and aims. More specifically, there was a common understanding and sharing of a leftist and more liberal ideology that pertained institution C in Stockholm, based on which the operations of the centre are carried out. If though the employees of the centre do not actively participate in political affairs through the institution they are open about their support of the leftist ideology, the workers’ union, and employees share it and work around it. In addition, as shown from the findings, functioning around an ideology like this means that there is no forcing of people into doing things they do not agree with and less structure in planning. However, this does not necessarily imply that a more structured lesson plan is forbidden. This especially shows in *folkbildning* or liberal education, while in *Komvux* things are somehow differentiated. Despite the fact that both operate under the same building and ideology, the *Komvux* program is different mainly because of the aims that it sets as a program. The aim of liberal education is mostly in tune with a more conversational and free kind of learning, a type of informal discussion of interests, whereas *Komvux* teachers prepare students for certain qualifications to take their studies further. Nevertheless, from what became evident in the interviews the entirety of the centre’s operations is aligned with the theoretical framework of moral leadership which advocates that an organization operates based on beliefs that are shared by its members. Furthermore, emphasis is also places on the individual within the centre, who taking into consideration the ideology of the centre plays his/her own part in incorporating them in his/her actions within the institution and his/her duties.

In language centres A and B in Thessaloniki, the main aim that stemmed from the research was the attainment of a certificate or more in a foreign language, and especially English, to satisfy the demands of the market and the parents who shape it in order to create higher chances for the future prospects of the students mainly in a vocational path. Therefore, what guides the operations of the Greek centres that participated are the demands of the market and
any changes that occurred within it and several attempts towards unstructured practices are rarely crowned with success. As is suggested, this type of operation leans more towards the direction of a managerial leadership style for both centres which promotes the formal structures and elements of the centres and through the rules and regulations that are to be followed, the aims and objectives of the personnel and the centre are set and implemented.

Concerning the impact of leadership on teaching practices and on the choices of teaching materials, a number of mixed responses were received. In centres A and B the formally positioned leader is more closely associated with the practices of teaching and has an active saying and the final decision on the materials to be chosen most of the times alone and others after having consulted the teachers for ideas and opinions. In institution C there is some choosing done by the head teachers, however, no formally positioned leader is actively involved in the teaching processes. Additionally, due to the nature of centre C’s ideology the materials chosen by head teachers are presented as a mere suggestion to the rest of the teachers and not as an imposition. Consistency to the theories of moral and managerial leadership styles are evident here in a sense that, for the case of centre C, the shared ideology and the limited presence of formal leadership in the teaching operations present as a corollary the freer decision-making of the teachers for their classes in terms of lesson planning and materials to be taught. On the other hand, a more interfering leadership style is observed in language centres A and B where the leader has the final saying in every decision and where, even though lesson plans are the responsibility of the teachers to structure, there is clear influence by the materials chosen by the leaders and by the rules that are set by them for the general practices of the centres. Therefore, a more managerial and formal style of leadership is observed, consistent with the relevant theory.

Collaboration between the teachers and leaders was evident mostly in the centres A and B regardless of who makes the final decision. This would not be expected from centres which are governed by the managerial style in leadership, however, research shows otherwise. Leaders and teachers in the two centres supported the existence of meetings and the cooperation among the people of the two positions and almost all have agreed that they are influenced by such cooperation. Contrary to centres A and B, cooperation in centre C is scarce and teachers have admitted to solving any issues on their own. There are, nevertheless, occurrences during which teachers, especially Komvux teachers, find it necessary to collaborate not for teaching purposes, but for more logistic reasons, such as the carrying out of tests and examinations or substitution in case of a teacher’s absence.
In terms of the impact of leadership on the overall function of a centre, what was also addressed was the matter of qualifications already acquired and qualifications for recruitment. Almost all of the teachers in the three centres mentioned that they have a university degree, a Bachelor’s, and one teacher from centre A suggested that she started as a teacher after acquiring the proficiency certificate in English language. Only one leader, Mrs. R. and one teacher, Mrs. Ma., named their degrees, the former being English language and literature from Aristotle University of Thessaloniki and the latter an acting degree from England.

As far as further qualifications are concerned, all except for two teachers, Mrs. A and Mrs. X, and two leaders, Mrs. E. and Mrs. R., do not have a formal teaching qualification. However, Mrs. R. has acquired a Master’s degree in American Literature with some TESOL courses, while none of the teachers in all the centres mentioned anything about having reached that level of education. To get a teaching license in Sweden is compulsory and, therefore, both teachers interviewed have obtained it. On the other hand, not one qualification is formally required for employment in private centres in Greece, however, almost all teachers have progressed in their teaching with seminars, certificates and diplomas. All advocated that such a step would enrich their teaching in a number of ways.

As to qualifications necessary for employment, which relate both to academic skills and personality traits, for liberal education personal qualities appear to be more significant than formal qualification of any kind as the latter is not a prerequisite for employment in this department. However, based on the previous finding which states that a teaching license is compulsory for a teaching profession in Sweden, the researcher is led to believe that there are no set requirements and it depends on employers and institution, a statement that contradicts the finding which supports the obligatory teaching license, but which is, nonetheless, evident. The fact, nevertheless, that in institution C more emphasis is placed on personal characteristics than on qualifications underlines the importance of the individual within the centre leading to the style of moral leadership.

In language centres A and B academic and personal qualities are equally considered, with the leader of language centre B feeling more strongly on the academic qualifications. While in institution A a university degree is desirable, but not necessary, in institution C a Bachelor’s is a must for employment. Moreover, in centre A as the leader points out minimum qualifications depend on the situation of the vacancy. Thus, a more managerial behaviour in leadership is evident in centre B than A. Findings of this kind provide the researcher with
further details as to what formal leaders may expect of future employees that are in tune with the operations of a centre, thus, indirectly reflecting the leadership processes.

Further regarding the organization of English teaching in the three centres, what is observed, although to a different extent for each centre, were the use of a more communicative approach and the method of CLIL. In particular, communication was facilitated and encouraged more in the liberal education classes of centre C than in any other class observed in either of the centres. What followed was the Komvux class where there was more encouraging of the students to participate and initiate discussion making the lesson a more student-centred one. On the contrary, and even though the existence of communication and cooperation was observed in language centre A, the lessons are best characterized as being more teacher-centred with instances of structured cooperation among the students and between the students and the teachers. Thus, communicative approach was mostly a characteristic of language centre C in the sense of communication and involvement of the students.

However, another element of the communicative approach which is known as task-based instruction was mainly observed in the more structured classes of language centre A where teachers provided students with clear cut instructions and directions as to a number of tasks that pointed towards non-authentic but still relevant to real-life contexts they needed to complete in group or pair works. In spite of group and pair works being present in the Komvux class as well, these were not structured or directed to a specific task, but rather a chance for the students to discuss a question of the teacher and exchange opinions with each other before presenting them to the class.

Lastly, the CLIL component of authenticity regarding the materials used is visible to a greater extent in institution C, where teachers in both liberal education and Komvux classes utilize authentic materials from everyday resources to facilitate learning. In language centre A some use of authentic materials was observed but in higher level classes and to a limited extent, while in lower level classes this was not observed at all.
7. Conclusion

The organization of English teaching in non-governmental and private centres in Stockholm and Thessaloniki has been examined along with the ways in which leadership of these centres affects the practices of teaching. The significance of this study is also in tune with the regulations of CEFR which takes into consideration not only the formal education within the school environment, but also the private education being offered in the European countries and the cooperation between the two. The main limitation of the study was the small sample of participants, however, one should keep in mind that the main focus was not on generalization, but on strengthening the personal experience and knowledge of the researcher and the conclusions and main points drawn from the literature review. Moreover, misunderstanding due to the English language used for the conduct of the research on non-native participants was also noted as a limitation, however, this occurred to a slight extent in centres A and B in Thessaloniki. Lastly, the researcher conducted the study in an as unbiased way as possible.

More specifically, the study inquired into the overall organization of three centres, two in Thessaloniki and one in Stockholm, based on several criteria, such as the ideology that governs the centres; the aims of each institution and the leaders and teachers in each one of them; the practices of cooperating and collaborating between one another and the impact that this appears to have on the functions of the centres; the influence that leadership and formally positioned leaders exert on teachers and the choosing of the teaching materials; and the already acquired qualifications and the ones required for recruitment. The above stated were the themes identified based on the research conducted in the three centres and which were formed through the process of thematic analysis. The qualitative method constructed with semi-structured interviews, observations of the two centres and literature review, was utilized in the research process.

The context of the study along with the research findings demonstrated that there are differentiated characteristics of the centres in all the identified themes among the centres though some are presented to a lesser or greater extent. One of the main differences that the findings highlighted was the dissimilar driving forces based on which the centres’ functions are structured, which are, for the Stockholm centre, a leftist and more liberal ideology being shared throughout the centre, and for the two centres in Thessaloniki, market demands and future prospects for the students. Directly or indirectly these two forces are the ones shaping the other identified themes related to the practices of the centres.
Recognizing a specific leadership style whose characteristics define the leadership practices of the centres so that the influence of the leaders can be outlined was a necessary theoretical framework for the research outcomes. Two leadership styles were introduced and analysed taking into consideration Bush’s models (2011) based on literature review and research at the centres; the moral leadership that is mostly aligned to centre C and values shared beliefs and ideologies as well as the individual’s position within the centre; and the managerial leadership which is consistent with language centres A and B and demonstrates a more formal and structured way of organization. The personal opinion of the author, however, is that a vision may be differently viewed by each leader and it always depends on the institution and on what it strives to promote. For example, owners and leaders of centres that belong to the private sector, as are the centres in Thessaloniki that this research covers, are mostly concerned with promoting their centre as a business within which the prospective clients- i.e. the students and parents- will have all their demands met and move closer to achieving goals with assistance from the centres. In order for this to happen, therefore, there is a need for creating a plan to attract prospective clients and this comprises a sort of vision based on the aims and objectives of each organization.

Another one of the findings also recognized the use of two methods or approaches to teaching and learning namely the communicative language teaching or CLT and the content and language integrated learning or CLIL. Both were visible to centres A and C where a number of lessons were observed though not to the same extent. Authenticity of materials was more visible in centre C than A, while tasks that reflected real-life contexts but did not make use of authentic materials were mostly observed in centre A, where they were specifically designed for a level of students and adopted from books.

Standard and further qualifications acquired and required for recruitment also made for an insightful finding into the practices of the centre and especially the processes of teaching. Almost all the teachers at the three centres were university degree holders and most of them have sought to expand their knowledge and materials they use for their teaching through teaching licenses and certificates which reflects how the teachers view the teaching process and what their aims are concerning it. In addition, the leader of centre A has admitted to providing in-service training reflecting the collaborative spirit of the institution and the importance of the teachers and the success of the centre in the market. In general, nevertheless, what becomes evident is that for non-governmental centres there are no specific
academic qualifications set and recruitment depends of the duties of the position offered and the level and age of the students.

The research attempted to array the differences between the two cities, Stockholm and Thessaloniki, as far as non-governmental centres are concerned. Language centres in Thessaloniki are more often private businesses, whereas in Stockholm they are non-formal, not-for-profit centres. Their main differences also lie in the ages that enrol in each centre, with centres in Greece being attended by mostly young learners and teenagers, whereas in Sweden students usually enrol in adult education from the age of 20 and up; and, the reasons why students attend, where it becomes clear that parents have the last word about their children’s education and their scepticism towards public education in the case of Greece which drives them towards considering a private language centre for intensive language learning. Attending a private language centre in Greece tends to be more exam-oriented and task-centred, which may not necessarily replace the public sector values that are taught at schools, but put more emphasis on what the demands of the market both regarding their own profit, but also the needs of the students as far as their goals are concerned, which goals most likely involve the attainment of a certificate. On the other hand, students attending adult education in Sweden make choices themselves and the reasons they enrol involve pursuit of a higher degree or development of everyday English language competency.

Acknowledging the findings of this research and the theoretical framework consistent with them, a recommendation for further research would be to inquire into the parents’ points of view on sending their children to private language centres and the reasons why they believe that success is mainly possible through private tuition and not through the schools. This would be mostly relevant to the case of Greece, however, should the research examine all the aspects of private tuition, which also includes private tutoring lessons then the research could also be applied to the case of Sweden.

Moreover, further research could also look into the teaching approaches and practices that are employed by the centres in the two countries in a more detailed fashion and examine the diverse teaching, leadership and learning styles based on a sample that would allow generalization so as to create a more comprehensive idea of these areas in English as a foreign language.
Further research could also closely examine the motivation of learners for enrolling in such centres and the points of view of the students as to whether they feel more successful in non-governmental centres and what they hope to achieve through this kind of tuition.

As to a linguistic level, researchers can also investigate the differences of the two languages taking into account the different alphabets and dissimilar syntactical, grammatical, morphological and other linguistic phenomena so as to identify whether the linguistics of each of the two languages, Swedish and Greek, in relation to the English language affects in any way the teaching practices of English as a foreign language, especially in non-governmental language centres where tuition is generally more intensive.
References


**Appendices**

Appendix A

Interview Questions Guide
Leaders’ Interview Questions

1) How long have you been working here?
2) What ages are enrolling at the institution?
3) How long have you worked in your current capacity (leader, manager, head of the institution)? Have you worked at this institution in another capacity? If yes, what is that and how long was it for?
4) Did you have any previous jobs in EFL? Any previous experience in this field?
5) What is your own background in TESOL/TEFL (Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language)- first degree, education diploma, TESOL certificate (if so, which one)? Why did you choose this specific one?
6) What English teaching certifications do you know of in general?
7) What is the aim of your institution? What do you want to achieve? Is your institution teaching specifically for examinations and qualifications and/or for non-certificate reasons?
8) How do you make decision regarding your institution? Do you do it alone or do you consult your staff as well?
9) Do you follow any external rules or regulations apart from your own (regarding curriculum, recruiting etc.)? Do you follow them to the last detail or are you running the institution your own way? Do you have absolute freedom in running the school or are there any factors that guide you?
10) In what ways do you think your leadership has an impact on teachers and teaching?
11) How would you support a teacher facing difficulties in English teaching?
12) Do you have any teachers you consider to be very effective in EFL? Why? Do you think that they can collaborate with others? In what ways?
13) On average, how many teachers do you have working for you each month?
14) How many teachers do you need to recruit each year?
15) What are the criteria based on which you recruit an English language teacher? In other words, what are your policies for recruiting? What do you consider to be the minimum qualifications necessary and what would you like them to have if possible? Are there any other factors that you take into account when recruiting? What qualities (personal) are you looking for in teachers, apart from formal qualifications? Which are the most important of those to you?
Teachers’ Interview Questions

1) How long have you been working here?
2) What ages are you teaching?
3) Have you worked at this institution in another capacity? If yes, what was that and how long was it for?
4) Do you have any previous experience in EFL?
5) What is your own background in TESOL- first degree, education diploma, TESOL certificate. If so, which one?
6) Based on which criteria did you choose to acquire your current certification, if any?
7) Are you more confident in your teaching after acquiring your certification? In what ways? Do you manage to apply all of the strategies and skills to your teaching?
8) What is your aim as a teacher both for the students and for your personal growth?
9) Regarding leadership and management, to what extent are you free to lead your own classroom? This may include the choice of teaching materials and improvisation in teaching. Did you have any saying in choosing teaching materials? Do you have your own lesson plan or do you abide by any lesson plan given by the language school?
10) Are you consulted in leadership and managerial aspects of the language school? How are you involved?
11) In what ways do you think a principal/leader affects your teaching?
12) How would you describe your own leader?
## Appendix B
Core content of the Swedish curriculum based on school grades

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Content of Communication</th>
<th>Listening and Reading-Reception</th>
<th>Speaking, Writing and Discussing - Production and Interaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **In years 1-3** | • Subject areas that are familiar to the pupils  
  • Interests, people and places  
  • Daily life and ways of living in different contexts and areas where English is used  | • Clearly spoken English and texts from various media  
  • Simple instructions and descriptions  
  • Different types of simple conversations and dialogues  
  • Films and dramatized narratives for children  
  • Songs, rhymes, poems and sagas  
  • Words and phrases in their local surroundings, such as those used on signs and other simple texts  | • Simple presentations  
  • Simple descriptions and messages  
  • Songs, rhymes and dramatizations  |
| **In years 4-6** | • Subject areas that are familiar to the pupils  
  • Daily situations, interests, people, places, events and activities  
  • Views, feelings and experiences  
  • Daily life, ways of living and social relations in different contexts and areas where English is used  | • Clearly spoken English and texts from various media  
  • Oral and written instructions and descriptions  
  • Different types of conversations, dialogues and interviews  
  • Films and dramatized narratives for children and youth  
  • Songs, sagas and poems  
  • Strategies to understand key words and  | • Presentations, instructions, messages, narratives and descriptions in connected speech and writing  
  • Language strategies to understand and make oneself understood when language skills are lacking  
  • Language strategies to participate in and contribute to discussions  |
context in spoken language and texts, for example, by adapting listening and reading to the form and content of communications

- Different ways of searching for and choosing texts and spoken English from the Internet and other media
- Language phenomena such as pronunciation, intonation, grammatical structures, spelling and also fixed language expressions in the language pupils encounter
- How words and fixed language expressions are used in texts and spoken language in different situations
- How different expressions are used are used to initiate and complete different types of communications and conversations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In years 7-9</th>
<th>• Current and subject areas familiar to the pupils</th>
<th>• Spoken English and texts from various media</th>
<th>• Different ways of working on personal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

- Language phenomena to clarify and enrich communication
- Interests, daily situations, activities, sequences of events, relations and ethical questions
- Views, experiences, feelings and future plans
- Living conditions, traditions, social relations and cultural phenomena in various contexts and areas where English is used

- Spoken English with some regional and social variants
- Oral and written instructions and descriptions
- Different types of conversations, dialogues, interviews and oral communications
- Literature and other fiction in spoken, dramatized and other filmed forms
- Songs and poems
- Oral and written information, as well as discussions and argumentation for different purposes
- Strategies to understand details and context in spoken language and texts, such as adapting listening and reading to the type of communication, contents and purpose.
- Different ways of searching for, choosing and assessing texts and spoken language in English from the Internet and other media.

Communications to vary, clarify, specify and adapt them for different purposes.
- Oral and written narratives, descriptions and instructions.
- Conversations, discussions and argumentation.
- Language strategies to understand and be understood when language skills are lacking, such as reformulations, questions and explanations.
- Language strategies to contribute to and actively participate in conversations by taking the initiative in interaction, giving confirmation, putting follow-up questions, taking the initiative to raise new issues and also concluding conversations.
- Language phenomena to clarify, vary and enrich communication such as pronunciation, intonation and fixed language expressions.
• Language phenomena such as pronunciation, intonation, grammatical structures, sentence structure, words with different registers, as well as fixed language expressions pupils will encounter in the language.

• How texts and spoken language can be varied for different purposes and contexts.

• How connecting words and other expressions are used to create structure and linguistically coherent entities.

(Source: Adapted from Skolverket, 2011, Curriculum for the Compulsory School, Preschool and Recreation Centre, pp. 33-35)
Appendix C
Observation Guide
(Source: Adapted from Addison-Wesley, 1996)

**Observation Checklist for the use of Strategies for ESOL learners**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher _________________</th>
<th>Date ___________________</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade Level ______________</td>
<td>Observer ________________</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A. Comprehensible Instruction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actions</th>
<th>Observed/Not observed/Not applicable</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Using visuals and/or realia.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plans activities to activate students’ prior knowledge.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses a variety of questions and activities to meet the needs of students at various levels of language acquisition.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asks questions, gives directions, and plans activities to advance students to higher levels of thinking.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elicits students’ questions and encourages them to support their answers.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Links the new vocabulary and language to previously learned information.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provides activities for oral language development.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plans listening activities to assist students in developing the sounds of English.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Negotiating Meaning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actions</th>
<th>Observed/Not observed/Not applicable</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Checks for student comprehension throughout the lesson.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modifies and clarifies information by using the following: questioning strategies, defining,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
expanding, modelling and explaining information. Asks students to paraphrase information.

Encourages students to communicate in English, using familiar vocabulary and structures.

Modifies self-speech to make the information comprehensible.

Uses linguistic clues, such as gestures, facial expressions and body movements (acts out) to emphasize and clarify meaning.

Matches language with experiences; allows students to use their native language to build upon past knowledge which the student can then transfer into English.

Models the language with natural speech and intonation.

Provides opportunities for students to practice using English with different audiences for a variety of purposes.

Verifies that all students comprehend before moving on.

### C. Content Area Instruction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actions</th>
<th>Observed/Not observed/Not applicable</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Modifies personal language according to the needs of students (explains vocabulary by giving examples and definitions, explains idioms).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reviews lesson topic, ideas and key vocabulary.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Checks frequently for understanding.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connects new material to information that students already know.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizes instruction around themes and plans objectives/skills appropriate to students’ grade level.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allows ELL students to participate actively in all activities planned.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Integrates culture and content instruction.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses added resources and strategies to help students access core curriculum.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

D. Sensitivity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actions</th>
<th>Observed/Not observed/Not applicable</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Practices sensitive error correction by focusing on errors rather than form.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Accepts students’ responses positively.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Corrects errors without pinpointing students.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourages and rewards taking risks in English.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilizes and demonstrates respect for students’ home language and culture.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourages students to share their language and culture with other students.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plans multicultural activities which include all cultures represented in the classroom.</td>
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</table>