

# School in Society – School as Society

Zsolt Mogyorósi – Irén Virág

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# School in Society – School as Society

Zsolt Mogyorósi – Irén Virág



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# **1. INTRODUCTION**

## **1.1 AIMS, COMPETENCIES, CONDITIONS OF THE COMPLETION OF THE COURSE**

### **1.1.1 Aim**

The main aim of the course is to introduce the theoretical foundations of pedagogy and its border/related sciences and the changes in education and teaching. The students are going to get acquainted with the changes in the roles of children and the characteristics of alternative pedagogical thinking and education. A further aim is to reveal the social importance of education as well as its social rootedness, and the presentation of the world of public education as well as the discussion of the school system. An important, special aim of this course is to raise the sensibility and interest of the students with regards to the social aspects of schooling. Once the students manage to acquire the material of the course, they will have to solve problems in a creative way, and problem solving will impose their using of the knowledge acquired in by way of analysis, synthesis with high efficiency and will be able to assess and compare the different elements involved.

### **1.1.2 Competencies**

When planning the course we targeted the improvement of the following competencies:

- Development of the personality of the pupils, employing individual-cantered treatment
- Helping the formation and improvement of pupil-groups, and communities
- Autonomy and responsibility

#### **Knowledge, awareness**

- Should be conversant with the theoretical basics of pedagogy and related sciences
- Acquires knowledge about the characteristics of pupil-groups, the dimensions of the role of the teacher, certain peculiarities of the workings of the system of public education

- Should get acquainted with the social and economic functions of educational systems, the characteristics of their changes and development, the relationship between sociocultural background and the efficiency of the teaching process, and the paradigm of intercultural education
- Should acquire pedagogical and sociological awareness of socialization, handicapped pupils, cultural enrichment and multiculturalism
- Should understand the main characteristics of the expectations of the society towards school, the main functions and peculiarities of school as a system/institution

#### **Attitudes/views**

- Should be receptive to education aiming at developing democratic behaviour and thinking
- Should be indebted to basic values of democracy and should be characterized by social empathy
- Should deliberately attempt to accept the plurality of values characteristic of the of schools
- Should be ready to acquire knowledge and various methods aiming at developing the personality of pupils
- Should be dedicated to national values and sense of identity

#### **Abilities**

- Should be able to analyse practical pedagogical experience
- Should be able to form a real view about the world of the pupils
- Should help the groups in developing a spirit of togetherness, should help the pupils in developing awareness of and indebtedness to active participation in a democratic society, and teach them to accept local, national and universal systems of value
- Should be able to sense, interpret and employ the social and cultural phenomena which influence the progress in learning and the social chances of the pupils

### **1.1.3 Conditions of the completion of the course**

Students are expected to employ the bibliography on the basis of the knowledge acquired during the course with the help of constructive methods of cooperation and to prepare their own assignments with the

help of the e-networks available. All the lessons are followed by questions and practice tests. The students can assess their knowledge of the material with the help of the questions and the practice tests on their own and thus they can prepare appropriately for the end-course exam.

## **1.2 THE CONTENTS OF THE COURSE**

### **1. Introduction**

#### *1. Module: Basics of education and teaching*

2. Basics of the science of education and its interdisciplinary relationships
3. The functions of education
4. The structure of the educational system
5. School as an organization
6. The efficiency of a school, school development

#### *2. Module: Schools in space and time*

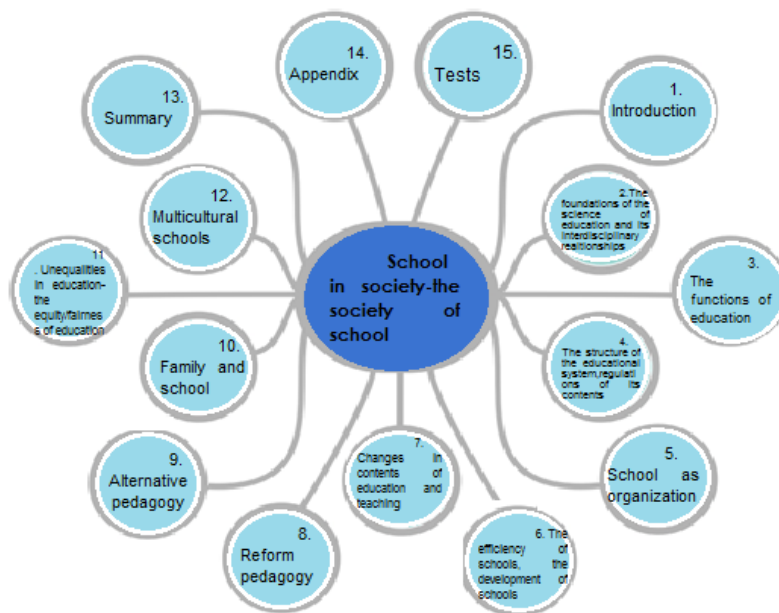
7. Changes in the contents of education and teaching
8. Reform-pedagogy
9. Alternative pedagogy

#### *3. Module: The society of the school*

10. Family and school
11. Inequalities in education – the fairness of education
12. Multicultural schools

#### *4. Module: Appendices Appendix*

13. Summary
14. Appendix
15. Tests



*Illustration 1: The structure of the study material*

### 1.3 STUDY GUIDE

The study material is devised as a modular structure; the order of the modules is arranged round and follows the logic of the concentric enlargement of the acquired knowledge ally coherent lessons. All the lessons are divided into smaller sections and summaries placed at the end of the lessons help the student memorize the material. Students can check their knowledge of the material with the help of self-assessment question placed at the end of the lessons. Updated tasks help the students employ their freshly acquired knowledge in a creative way.

The exercises are colourful; they motivate the students to use their knowledge in a productive way and to form autonomous opinions. The course employs traditional methods (conventional list of bibliography) as well as methods endorsed by network studies to help the students in their work.

The learning process is also aided by films which are going to be analysed according to given principles and hopefully this can deepen the interest taken by the participants in the material. The films are provided by Mestertanár Videoportál.

*Reference\_1:* <http://mestertanarvp.ektf.hu/>

The editors of the portal collected films belonging to different genres which offer a wide range of themes from classroom shots to lectures on theoretical issues, on alternative education or challenges of education of socially handicapped pupils. The lectures offered by well-known specialists and the ideas of teachers involved in the actual educational process create brilliant possibilities for the discussion of certain professional issues or new views.

The units are closed down by multiple choice tests which can measure the competence of the students. Some of them require alternative choice (true-false, right-wrong) others belong to the fill-in category. These involve recognition of the relationship between the elements of two groups. Analysis of such relationships presupposes a secure handling of the knowledge acquired earlier. The course ends in a mock-exam and thus offers the students opportunity for self-assessment through the self-assessment tests and thus the students can discover their shortcomings.

The study material makes autonomous preparation possible and the individual rhythm of work of the individual students can also be taken into consideration. The authors wished not only to provide up to date professional knowledge but also intended to offer a large horizon of individual possibilities to put them into practice



## **1. Module: Basics of education and teaching**

## **2. LESSON: FOUNDATIONS OF THE SCIENCE OF EDUCATION AND ITS INTERDISCIPLINARY RELATIONSHIPS**

### **2.1 AIMS AND COMPETENCIES**

The aim of the present lesson is to endow the students with the knowledge of basic theoretical elements of pedagogy and its border sciences and to introduce the basic terminology of educational science. It is a relevant aim to teach the students the system of its related sciences and its interdisciplinary connections. It is also a relevant aim to enable students to find the place of pedagogy within the structure of social sciences, and determine them to be sensitive to the complex analyses of problems...

### **2.2 BASICS AND INTERDISCIPLINARY RELATIONSHIPS OF THE SCIENCE OF EDUCATION**

#### **2.2.1 The emergence of pedagogy**

The word pedagogy is of Greek origin and it means guiding or accompanying children. The phrase is rooted in the words child (paisz) and guidance (again). The pedagogue (paidagogosz – guide of the child) was the educated slave whose task was to take the child to its private tutor in Athens in the VI-Centuries B.C. The slave helped the child with his studies at home, and his responsibilities were gradually extended and he became responsible for the moral education of the male child. (Mészáros-Németh-Pukánszky 2005)

Although education is as old as society, it received special emphasis in different periods of history, and it underwent relevant transformations as far as its contents are concerned along with education. (We are going to red about this in details in lesson 7.) The theory and practice of education were interwoven in the beginning. Pedagogy is present embedded in other sciences, as part of theology, then as a sub branch of philosophy. (Mészáros-Németh-Pukánszky 2005)

Pedagogy emerges as a full-fledged science, that is scientific pedagogy develops in the 18th century. This is the century when the demand for a systematically organised discipline, independent from theology, is formulated in Germany. The first Department of Pedagogy is created at the University of Halle and Ernst Christian Trapp (1745-1818) is appointed as its professor. (Mészáros-Németh-Pukánszky 2005)

Journals concerned with specific topics of pedagogy which discuss problems related to education and teaching are published in this period as wells.

### 2.2.2 The concept of pedagogy

The concept of pedagogy is extremely complex and a number of specific studies refer to it.

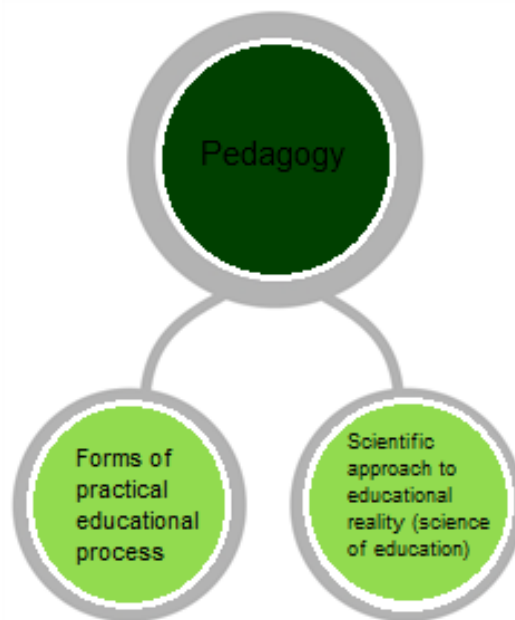
We select some of these without the ambition of offering a complete list.

In Ödön Wieszely's definition „Pedagogy is the theory of education in its reduced definition. Its aim is to state the aims, tools and methods of education and to offer explanations to questions regarding the science of education and to produce conceptual solutions for practical procedures. Finally it should organize the conceptual aspects arrived at by scientific research into a system and treat it systematically.” (Wieszely, 1905:5) Later, the author also mentions that it is not only the science providing explanations about education that is called pedagogy, but the practice of teaching, the process itself as well, and considers that this often leads to misunderstandings with respect to terminology.

Árpád Petrikás' interpretation also reveals the complexity of pedagogy: „It is a complex term used for two concepts. On one hand it designates the theory of education, the science of education; on the other it signifies the practice of education. Pedagogy as the science of education examines the processes, circumstances and conditions which play a role in education. It reveals its relationships, laws and on the basis of the former it defines the aims, basic concepts and responsibilities which grant the fulfilment of the basic concepts of education” (Báthory-Falus 1997: 138.)

„Pedagogy means the practice of education and the scientific interpretation of the educational process. The term science of education refers to the scientific approach to the phenomena of education.” (Czike, 1996: 9)

The above interpretations agree in that **pedagogy is a complex science which examines the theory and practice of education, while concentrating on the examination of the conscious shaping of man. It deals with all the forms of practice of education, as well as with the research of the reality of education, that is practice and theory is both part of this discipline.**



*Illustration 2: Interpretation of pedagogy<sup>1</sup>*

While reading related bibliography we quite often come across references to the fact that in common usage pedagogy and the science of education merge, that is they are often used as a kind of synonyms... (Dietrich, 2001:117 See Stein, 2009:12). We are going to examine the way in which the difference between the two terms could be grasped.

### **2.2.3 Interpretation of the science of education**

Let's take into account some definitions given to the two terms by special literature.

„Pedagogy or the science of education is the science which observes the process of education, training, learning, or socialization; it interprets and explains them, and forecasts the effect of the above processes and hands over this knowledge to persons involved in pedagogical practice.” (Dietrich, 2001:117)

„The science of education examines the activity aiming at the intentional transformation of the human being. It examines the

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<sup>1</sup> After Czike (1996: 9)

relationships, cause-effect factors, and laws of the process aiming at the transformation of human personality and the possibility of developing it as well as their system and effects. [...] The theory of pedagogy – the science of education – is the science which reveals the conceptual questions of education and examines its aims, tasks and tools. The subject of pedagogy is the process by way of which a human being assumes a distinct personality.” (Kozma 1996: 6:9)

„While pedagogy is concerned primarily with knowledge related to the practice of pedagogy, the concept of the science of education is associated with the description of observations concerning education and training, and it also formulates the potential of pedagogy to become an academic science.” (Krüger-Grunert, 2006:112).

„The subject of the science of education is the intentional transformation of personality, self-willed transformation and it formulates aims and transfers values; it helps creating communities with the help of adequate methods and tools in different fields and areas of education; it deals with the system of effects of communities, the educator and the pupil, and it assesses the results obtained.” (Oláh, 2004.6)

On the basis of the special literature consulted we can assert that the really merge in common usage.

From now on we are going to interpret pedagogy on the basis of the following possible definition:

- ☞ **Pedagogy is an autonomous, complex science which deals with the theory and practice of education, problems related to acquiring and disseminating of knowledge, and formulating directions regarding the practice of education.**
- ☞ **The science of education interprets and examines, and describes the already existing pedagogical practice, it observes and describes the practical elements of the educational process.**

#### **2.2.4 Fields of science related to pedagogy**

Similarly to other sciences pedagogy also has sub branches, a state of affairs justified by the earlier mentioned complexity of the discipline. Scientific literature is not entirely equivocal with respect to the delimitation of the sub branches and we can find different classifications in related bibliography. Kozma (1996) distinguishes the following sub branches of pedagogy:

**General Pedagogy:** a branch of science which is essentially theory centered and examines the basic questions of education, and its general

relationships, it mainly reveals laws which are true in all the situations created by the process of education in the case of all age groups.

**Theory of education:** examines the relationship between the effects of education and its results.

**Didactics** (theory of teaching): is a branch concerned with basic questions of the process of education and organized teaching-learning processes. Its main topics include: the general system of aims and tasks of the educational process, the contents of education, the strategies of education, methods, forms of activity, and assessment.

**Subject pedagogy or subject methodology:** science concentrating on the specificities of the teaching-learning process in the case of different subjects (mathematics, physics, geography, physical education etc.). It provides practical information for the pedagogue teaching the respective subject.

**History of the science of education:** a branch of science which deals with the educational practice, the system of organization, or views on education of certain periods.

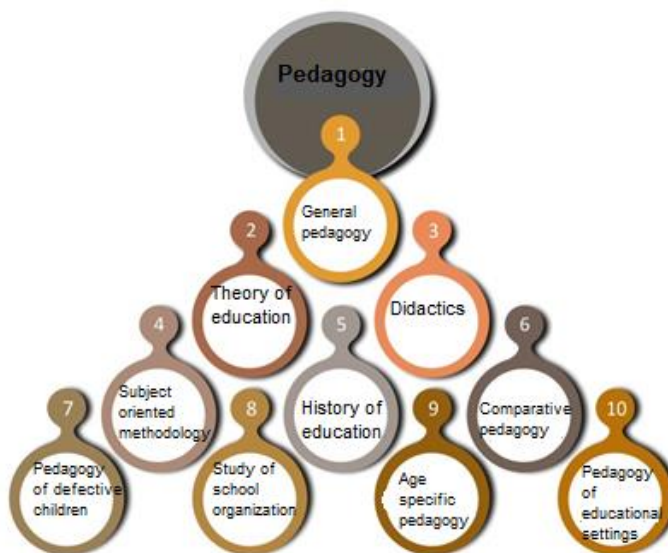
**Comparative pedagogy:** it reveals the specific characteristics of given educational systems by comparing the educational systems of different countries (for example: the system of teacher training, the length of school education, the stratification of the educational system, and its different levels).

**Pedagogy of special education:** Deals with the possibilities of educating physically, mentally handicapped children and related special problems.

**Institutional pedagogy:** It deals with schools as institutions and their pedagogical relevance. (The institutional form of the school, members, the social, legal and sociocultural background of the schools)

**Pedagogy of age groups:** Pedagogies of special age groups: pedagogy of kindergartens, school pedagogy, higher education pedagogy, pedagogy for adult education (andragogy).

**Pedagogy of different educational settings:** deals with problems related to the different settings of the process of education, like family education, boarding school education, in-day schools, media pedagogy.

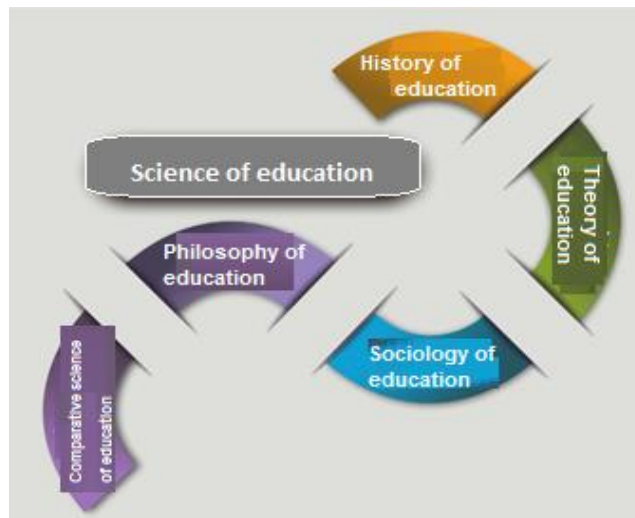


*Illustration 3: Scientific sub branches of pedagogy*

### 2.2.5 Sub branches of the science of education

As literature quite often defines the science of education as a sub branch of pedagogy, that is it describes the science of education as the science which examines the theory of real education we are going to have a look at the different areas of sub branches of the science of education.

- **History of educational science:** examines the changes in ideas and concepts regarding education in different historical periods; it examines the practice of education, the studies, the works of pedagogues, conducts research with regards with and examines the system of institutional education.
- **Theory of education:** reveals the laws of education, it examines the relationship between the effects and results of education.
- **Sociology of education:** examines the relationship between education (as social activity) and society, the characteristics of school education, and the behaviour of pupil communities.
- **Philosophy of education:** a branch of science preoccupied with more general, abstract aspects of education.
- **Comparative science of education:** see comparative pedagogy



*Illustration 4: Sub branches of the science of education*

### 2.2.6 Sub branches of pedagogy and the science of education

Pedagogy and the science of education can be enlisted among the other social sciences.

Quite often there is need for examination generated by more sciences in order to interpret a certain aspect of reality. When different sciences examine the same complex social phenomenon or set of problems from more perspectives using different scientific approaches we speak about interdisciplinary of sciences.

We highlight the following from among the interdisciplinary relationships of the science of education:

- **Philosophy:** its relationship with pedagogy can be traced from the very beginning, what is more for quite a long time pedagogy was a science subordinated to philosophy. In pedagogy ethics, aesthetics and axiology are determinant elements of pedagogy.
- **Biology:** it supports the science of education among other things with respect to laws of the development of the nervous system, the build of the body, and hereditology.
- **Psychology:** one of the sciences most closely related to pedagogy; especially with respect to general psychology and ontogeny, social psychology, and mental hygiene.



- **Sociology:** together with the sociology of education it provides help in the examination of the relationship between the individual and environment and individual and society.
- **Statistics:** statistic database and analyses made this science indispensable in the course of researches.
- **Economics:** economics of education provides help in the interpretation of the rules affecting the relationship of education with outer environment.



*Illustration 5: Interdisciplinary relationships of pedagogy and of the science of education*

Pedagogy is an independent branch of science but it very often employs the results of other sciences in the course of research and analyses. So we can attest that pedagogy is basically an interdisciplinary branch of science, and besides its complexity one of its characteristics is its cooperation with other sciences.

When we are examining whether pedagogical assessment involves the age of the pupils and the textual assessment and the efficiency of marking we can not only rely on the results of pedagogy but also on the results of the science of psychology.

If we want to find out whether the link between the performances of the pupils is in direct relationship with the family background or the standard of education of the parents, the science of sociology is going to help us in obtaining exact results in the course of our analysis.

## **2.3 SUMMARY, QUESTIONS**

### **2.3.1 Summary**

The unit introduced the basics of the theory of pedagogy, the basic terminology of pedagogy and of the science of education, the system of its sub branches, its interdisciplinary relationships and placed it in the system of sciences. Pedagogy is as old as mankind, the questions of education and teaching have been present in all human societies and cultures, although with different emphases. At first pedagogy was not present as an independent science, but as part of philosophy and theology. It only became an independent science in the 18th century.

There is a quite bulky bibliography available with respect to the definitions of pedagogy and of the science of education. Pedagogy is a complex concept. On the one hand it deals with practical aspects of education and provides orientation/guidance for practicing professionals; on the other hand similarly to the science of education it examines the processes, circumstances and conditions which contribute to the process of education. The science of education is a theoretical discipline which attempts to give answers to the questions generated by the practical phenomena. It reveals the relationships, laws of education; it defines the aims, basic principles, responsibilities, and methods and procedures, regulations which grant the success of the basic principles of education.

As pedagogy is an extremely complex science, it can be partitioned into a number of branches, like the history of pedagogy, theory of education, didactics, subject pedagogy, and medical pedagogy, pedagogy of age groups, special pedagogy, or comparative pedagogy. Some other sub branches of the science of education include: psychology of education and philosophy of education. As pedagogy as well as educational science always examines complex problems, their interdisciplinary relationships are relevant; among the sciences involved are philosophy, psychology, biology, sociology, statistics and economics.

### **2.3.2 Self-assessment questions**

1. Look up some further definitions for the concepts of pedagogy and science of education in the textbook „Interpretations of the science of education”!<sup>2</sup> Define the concept of pedagogy and science of education! Share your definitions with your partners in the Moodle!

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<sup>2</sup> Brezsnýánszky László – Buda Mariann (editor) (2001): Interpretations of the science of education. Debrecen. University of Debrecen Kossuth University Press. ISBN: 963 472 559 7

2. Introduce through individual examples the sub branches of pedagogy! Share your examples at the forum!
3. Use the forum to discuss through brainstorming the way in which a freshly graduate teacher can most efficiently employ theory in practice!

### 2.3.3 Practice tests

Choose the correct answer!

Pedagogy is a word of .....origin.

- a. Hebrew
- b. Latin
- c. Greek**

Pedagogy became an independent science in the ..... century.

- a. 17th
- b. 18th**
- c. 19th

Choose from among the sciences enlisted below the one that is not a sub branch of pedagogy.

- A. didactics
- B. medical pedagogy
- C. ethics**
- D. subject methodology
- E. science of education

### 3. LESSON: THE FUNCTIONS OF EDUCATION

#### 3.1 AIMS AND COMPETENCIES

The main aim of this unit is to introduce the concept of education and the functions of education. It is an important goal to contribute to the development of the communication skills of the students and their teaching competencies through the information handed over to them. It is a special aim to teach the students the basic terminology of didactics and of the science of education and to enable them to use the acquired knowledge through examples. The students should be enabled to list the functions of the system of education, should be able to interpret the inherent conflicts among different functions, and the joint effect of these conflicts in strengthening their effects. The students should also be able to interpret the role of the educational system in mobility and to identify other relationships between social subsystems and social institutions which contribute to mobility.

#### 3.2 THE FUNCTIONS OF EDUCATION

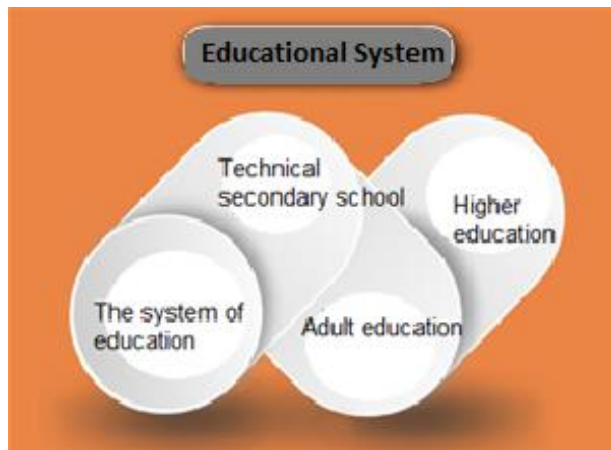
##### 3.2.1 Meanings of the concept of education

Gaston Mialaret (1993) the French educational scientist interprets the meaning of education on three levels. They are the system of education, the product of education and the process of education. On the two last levels the obtainable goods that become accessible through education, or the processes which make the goods obtainable can be discussed through the perspectives of didactics. The didactic approach, or in other words the perspective of the theory of the science of education implies a view according to which the process of education is nothing else but the process of teaching and learning. (Nagy 1997) On the one hand this suggests that learning is a willed and active activity on behalf of the pupil in the course of which the pupil acquires cultural goods while shaping his personality as well. That is the student acquires goods- in didactic terminology *knowledge* (which can be information, terminology, law, theory), *skills* like the capacity to employ knowledge in problem solving, *abilities* like automatic components of actions, *abilities* mint alike the ability to perform a larger scale of activities, or tuning like responding to value statements, and patterns of behaviour accessible through the process of learning. (Falus – Szivák 1997; Nagy 1997) The pupil enriches his own personality with all the above goods, and by using them the pupil contributes to his own survival and wealth. On the other hand a

really emphatic element of the teaching-learning process is teaching. This is the activity of the pedagogue, in the course of which the teacher plans, supports, motivates, and assesses learning. The conventional setting for this process is the school.

### 3.2.2 The system of education as social subsystem

Although conventionally the setting of the impaired relations is the school, when thinking about education we have to take into account the fact that in the course of history schools were interlinked both at regional and at national levels, their tuition programmes were built upon one another and formed school systems. If we have a look at Europe we can say that beginning with the 18th century and in the course of the 19th century national schooling systems emerged in the nation states. After Kozma (2006) we interpret the educational system as the interrelatedness of educational institutions which consist of: the schooling system, (system of public schools/public education), vocational and technical training, adult education and higher education. The role of the national state is important in the financing, contents regulation, and directing of the modern educational systems. Similarly modern society is the sum total of interrelated systems and subsystems. Education is a social subsystem, in which – similarly to other subsystems given forms of activity are performed in independent institutions. (Halász 2001) From social point of view it is important to know what responsibilities and activities, that is, what functions characterize education.

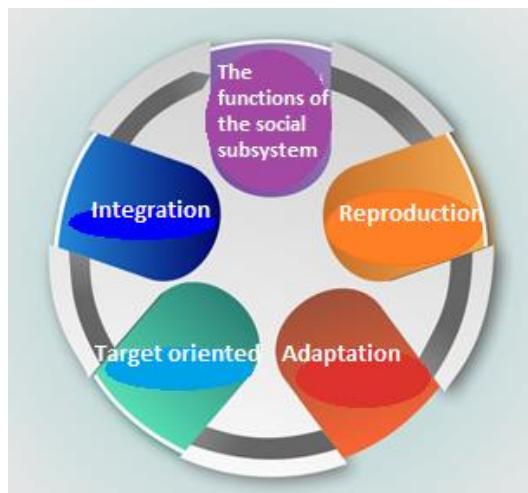


*Illustration 6: The system of education*

### 3.2.3 The functions of educational institutions and social subsystems

The system of education/Technical secondary school/Adult education/Higher education

In modern societies from a sociological perspective the functions of educational institutes include education, as the transfer of knowledge, education, as the development of personality, and the integration of young people into society. The first one endows young people with necessary knowledge and cultural aspects for certain roles in adult society the second shapes their personality. The third function can be achieved through the first two ones, as young people develop a sense of belonging to a community and nation. (Andorka 1997) On the basis of sociologically determined perspectives we usually differentiate four basic functions when examining social subsystems, yet these functions are met simultaneously but to different degrees. These are the functions of *reproduction*, that is function related to the reproduction of society, *as the function of adaptation*, that is the function which supports adaptation to the social system possible, *the function of targeting*, that is the function linked to establishing and achieving social targets, and the function of *integration*, that is the function which supports social integration. The educational system as social subsystem can also be said to perform these function to certain extent. (Halász 2001)



*Illustration 7: The functions of social subsystems*

### 3.2.4 The functions of the educational system

Halász (2001) describes eight major functions when describing the functions of the educational system, and he emphasizes that they are in continuous interaction, and that they can simultaneously support and hinder one another. The author finds it important to mention that these functions are not exclusively interior functions stemming from the educational systems, but are the expressions of the social pressure building up on them. On the basis of Halász's description of functions, the following functions are going to be discussed briefly in the thematic subchapters that follow: the reproduction of culture, that is, *cultural reproduction*, shaping of the personality of the individuals, the *changing or the reproduction of the social structure*, support of the functioning or growth of economy, that is *the economic function*, the *legitimation of the political system*, ensuring *social integration*, meeting the expectations of the functions generated by demand for various services, that is, *the services function*, and finally fostering or hindering social changes, that is, *the function supporting social changes and development*. Later we shall have to discuss the fact that important social interests are related to the completions of the functions to be discussed, and through the conflicts among these the functions will also get into conflict with one another.

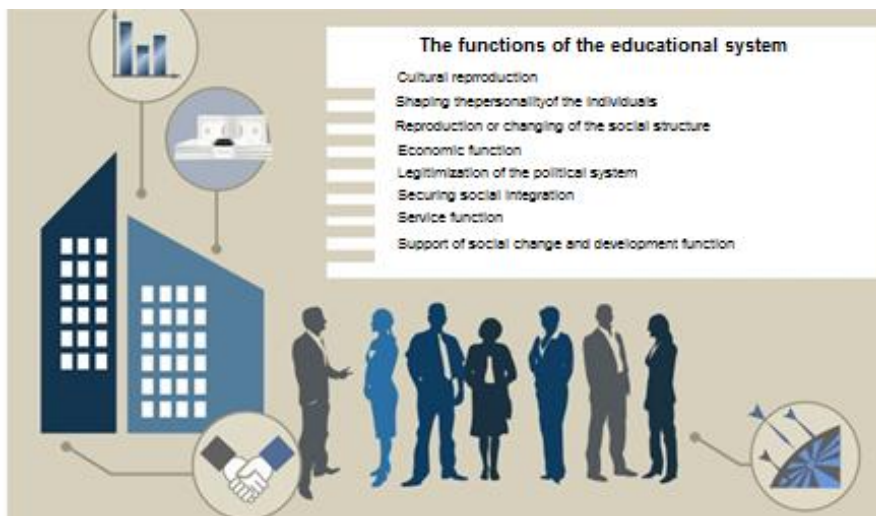


Illustration 8: The functions of the educational system

### **3.2.5 Cultural reproduction**

Cultural reproduction is probably one of the best known functions of the system of education. The transfer of moral values and expectations is also relevant, as well as learning the norms, and rules so as to enable the individual to participate in social life and economic activity. Education is a key element in the transfer and integration processes above mentioned. Transfer of knowledge is performed primarily on the basis of fixed standards and rules, which are clearly stated in the curricula, requirements of exams, and rules of assessment the implementation of which is closely monitored by the authorities.

### **3.2.6 Shaping the personality of the individuals**

Learning does not only mean the acquisition of social culture for the individual but it also contributes to the development of his personality. It should be noted that these processes are not separated at the level of the individual. Nahalka (2003) draws our attention to the fact that shaping the individual's personality is part and parcel of the same pedagogical activity which is responsible for cultural reproduction aims, but while the latter transfers cultures already construed by society, there are as many variants of support for the development of personality as unique and impossible to fully know human personalities exist, that is as many as pupils. It should also be noted that the curricula, the documents which regulate different levels and the specialists involved in practice dealing with the development of personality have different theoretical backgrounds, conceptions, sometimes the difference is so great that they approach the educational system from definitely different perspectives and determine the educators to develop antagonistic attitudes while planning and organizing the educational process and requirements. Thus we can state that due to the variety of the pupils' personality the process of education differs at the individual level. From a social point of view on the other hand what is important is what characteristics of the pupils' personality are formed by school to ensure participation at the level of social coexistence. After Nahalka (2003) we can consider this function *the function of educating citizens*.

### **3.2.7 The reproduction or changing the social structure**

A number of sociological analyses demonstrate that educational systems play an important role in the reproduction of the class and layer structure of society, and they play an important role in their transformations. Reproduction essentially ensures the maintenance of the social structure, while transformation results in the change of the



social structure. Reproduction is achieved in a direct way through the distribution of grades necessary for getting different social functions, and indirectly it can reward or ignore, at the level of the institute of education, knowledge characteristic of previous knowledge linked to certain social layers, which finally determines the distribution of grades. Social mobility signals the changes in structure that is it describes the changes in roles of individuals and social groups. Nahalka (2003) points out that although school plays an important role in social mobility, but social mobility is influenced by the social processes determining the environment of the respective school. We should add that it is not only education and school, but other subsystems (e.g. economy) and other social institutions (e.g. marriage) have a say in social mobility, similarly to the case of other functions already discussed and to be discussed.

### **3.2.8 The functions of legitimation of the economic and social systems**

Education plays an important role in the functioning and growth of economy. Educational systems are linked to the system of economy through at least three points. First they are strongly related to the economic and fiscal system as the functioning of an educational system requires serious contributions from the budget in any developed country. Second education appears as a product on the purchase market, and what is more as the value of knowledge is increasing on the purchase market there is increase in demand for it. Third, it trains workforce and contributes to the proper functioning of the economy, contributes to the efficiency and productivity of workforce and thus it supports the growth of economy.

It is also the duty of the educational systems to enable the citizens to become members of the political nation that is to enable them to use their political rights and possibilities. At the same time education plays a determinant role in shaping the acceptance of political systems that is to in developing their legitimacy. This is a relevant factor both in the democratic and in the dictatorial systems as well. Nahalka (2003) points out that, legitimation is mainly supported by the development of knowledge, abilities, skills and attitudes which are linked to the topic of the rights and responsibilities of citizens, and that schools very often meet this requirement through activities related to political education.

### **3.2.9 Functions supporting social integration, services, social changes and development**

Halász (2001) emphasizes that the educational system contributes to social integration through its other function, that is it links individuals and social groups and it shapes their patterns of behaviour and interpretation of reality. Yet, the function of integration of the educational system can be perceived separately and it can be observed within the process of education. In modern industrial societies school has assumed an important role in the integration of children through the fact that children spend a considerable part of their time there, it looks after them while their parents go out to work. Nahalka (2003) points out that school assumes an important role in the handling of phenomena precipitating integration (e.g. drug prevention); furthermore it assumes social functions by the help of which it supports the function of social integration. The author also emphasizes the fact that the functioning of schools can be conceived as a sort of service, what is more a given institution can provide certain services for its direct social context with the purpose to help it by playing an active role in solving the respective problems (e.g. protection of the environment). Another important statement is that although in most cases indirectly, the educational system assumes a role in helping, or hindering social changes by disseminating new knowledge and technology or it prevents their spearheading.

### **3.2.10 Conflicts among different functions**

When characterizing the relationships among different functions Halász (2001) points out their mutual support as well as their inherent conflicts. The basic motivation for the completion of the different functions is the interest directed upon them. As far as the educational system is concerned there are certain social groups which have great interest in the fulfilment of certain functions even at the expense of other functions. An example for this is the group of employers interested in the supply of skilled workers with certain specialization and education which prepares the pupils for immediate participation in the working process, while other groups regard more general education of a given age group a priority. At this point we can speak about the conflict between economic and cultural reproduction functions. The conflict between the functions of cultural reproduction and development of personality is also typical. This is essentially the conflict between knowledge-centered and child-centered educational concepts in the world of schools. A number of sub branches of this concept can be encountered in pedagogy, like the dilemma whether schools should provide children with practical

knowledge applicable in the world of work or it should provide them with abilities which make it possible for the pupils to acquire the knowledge needed themselves. Supporters of the first concept concentrate in the central position of the study material; those of the second view consider that it is the abilities to find relevant knowledge are central. The former prefer *material* training, the latter prefer *formal* training in education. (Falus – Szivák 1997) Similar conflict generating problems are involved in the preparation of the curriculum, as the knowledge of the material (knowledge of information, concepts) and knowledge of tools (individual acquisition of knowledge, using knowledge independently), up to date curricula join these attitudes as they consider them to be complementary.

### **3.3 SUMMARY, QUESTIONS**

#### **3.3.1 Summary**

The teacher plans, supports, motivates and assesses the pupil's learning activity. The process of teaching-learning and its results can be described with through the observation of the relationship between the teacher and the pupil. This provides the backbone of education from a didactic point of view. It should not be ignored though that school education has extended throughout history, so a number of school systems and educational systems developed. Besides the public expectations formulated with respect to education are joined by more and more complex social and national expectations as far as the national educational systems are concerned. Educational systems function as social subsystems in complex, modern societies that are they contribute to the aims and development of society as greater system. They also play an important role in preparing society to meet new challenges, they play an important role in the continuous working of society as a larger system through reproduction, and in integration aimed at keeping the great system together and in linking the subsystems and, their institutions and their members together. In modern societies educational institutions, as units of the educational system, prepare the youth for their future roles as adults through the knowledge the share, the institutions also support the development of their personalities, shape their attitudes and their behaviour. In the course of the educational and teaching processes the institutions also contribute to the social and cultural integration of the pupils. In this unit we discussed the differentiation of the functions of the educational system. Yet we have to highlight at this point as well that they are in a continuously changing interrelationship. With one another. The character of this reciprocal influence can be supportive or limitative with regards to certain functions. The conflicts among the different

functions can be spotted in the policy of education as a means of leadership, as well as in the educational concepts present in individual schools. Functions can support one another as well. That is effective and fruitful transfer of knowledge does not exclude the possibility of effective education, as several examples have shown it in a number of educational institutions.

### **3.3.2 Self-assessment questions**

1. What can be the given activity, which is an institutionally separated, given form of activity, and which occurs in a specific way in education as a social subsystem?
2. Look for examples for knowledge, skills and abilities from your own field of education!
3. Enlist the functions of the educational system!
4. What are the guarantees for the transfer of the knowledge, values and norms accumulated by society to be transferred in the course of cultural reproduction?
5. Search for examples for the role played by other social subsystems and social institutions playing a role in social mobility!
6. Present and explain some conflicts among different functions of the system of education!
7. Look for examples of cases when the functions of the educational system are supportive of one another!

### **3.3.3 Practice tests**

True or false? Decide on the basis of the above statements!

We measure the efficiency of the activity of the teachers in the course of the teaching process from a didactic point of view. T – F

Abilities are the automatized components of willed activities. T – F

Higher education is not part of the school system. T – F

## **4. LESSON: THE STRUCTURE OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM, REGULATION OF CONTENTS**

### **4.1 AIMS AND COMPETENCIES**

The major aim of this unit is to introduce the structure of Hungarian public education, to offer a review some institutions, and the regulations which determine the contents of education. It is also our aim to help the students understand the different kinds of curricula, and levels of planning.

The unit is supposed to contribute mainly to the development of the competencies of the teachers in the field of planning and performing of the pedagogic activity, planning and monitoring of the learning activity..

### **4.2 THE STRUCTURE OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM, REGULATIONS CONCERNING CONTENTS**

#### **4.2.1 Public education**

Public education in Hungary is regulated by the 2011. CX. Law regarding the regulations of national public education, which was published in the 2011/162 Issue of the Hungarian Publication of Laws. (The law was passed by the Parliament at its 2011, December 19th session).

The law declaredly includes among its aims and basic principles that „The aim of the present law is to create a public education which fosters the harmonious spiritual, physical and intellectual development of the children and young adults, develops their skills, abilities, knowledge, proficiency, emotional and will characteristics by developing them through planned development suited to their cultural and age group expectations and thus educate responsible citizens who are able to coordinate their private interests and aims with those of the community. Its emphatic aim is to prevent the creation of socially handicapped groups and supporting talent with the help of the tools accessible to education and teaching.” (2011, CX, law, paragraph 1. § (1))

The law declares that „Public education is public service, which creates the long term conditions for the development of the Hungarian society in the interest of the upcoming generation, and the frames and guarantees for it are provided by the state. The entity of public education is determined by knowledge, fairness, order, freedom, equity, and the

moral and intellectual values of solidarity, equal treatment, and is determined by the education focusing on sustainable development and healthy lifestyle. Public education serves both public good and individual aims which respect the rights of others.” (2011, law, CXC, paragraph 1. § (2))

In the pedagogic culture of the institutions the ambition to handle individually, to accept the child, the age specific requirements, criteria oriented assessment scheme which guarantees the development of the child, trust, kindness and empathy are primordial.

„Providing the right to free and obligatory secondary school education and teaching up to the successful school leaving exam, and preparation for the first skilled training are the public obligations of the Hungarian state as stated in the Constitution?” (2011, law CXC, paragraph 2. § (1))

Legal background:

- 2012, law CXXIV, regarding the modification of 2011, law CXC, regarding public education. – Hungarian Bulletin 99. Issue 2012. July 24.
- The government decree about the Klebelsberg Centre for Educational Institutions 202/2012. (VII. 27.) – Hungarian Bulletin 102.
- The Government Established a Central Office on 1 September 2012.
- The 2012/ CLXXXVIII. Law transfer of some institutions functioning under local authorities under the guidance of the state – Hungarian Bulletin Issue 164/7 December 2012.

## **4.2.2 The institutions of public education**

### *4.2.3.1. The kindergarten*

Kindergarten is the institution which provides the education of a child till the beginning of its obligatory schooling. In case the institution enrolled all the children older than three years in the district/settlement it can accept children who are going to be three within a six months period following the exam. The child who is three years old by the 31st of August of a given year is obliged to take part on a four hours/day basis in kindergarten programmes of the respective academic year. On demand the parish can grant dispensation from under the compulsory kindergarten education to children younger than five in case its family background, its abilities, and specific circumstances support it. (2011. CXC. law/ 8. §)

#### *4.2.3.2. The primary school*

Primary school is a basic institution which provides eight year teaching and education which meets uniform national expectations and prepares the pupils for their further studies in secondary school education in accordance with their interests, abilities and their talent. (2011. CXC. law/ 10. §)

#### *4.2.3.3. Grammar school*

Grammar school is an institution of education which provides pupils with basics of general culture and prepares the pupils for the baccalaureate and higher education. Grammar schools can function of a four-, six-, or eight forms basis (in the case of foreign language preps. five-, seven-, or nine forms). The six-and eight- forms institutions have the special task of educating talented pupils. (2011. CXC. Law/ 11. §)

#### *4.2.3.4. Vocational secondary school*

Vocational secondary schools besides providing pupils with general cultural knowledge prepares them for vocational school leaving exam and further vocational studies as well as and related employment. From the 9th to the 12th forms it teaches the pupils general subjects and provides them with theoretical and practical knowledge concerning their specialized training related to the baccalaureate, from the ninth form to the twelfth form on the basis of a given curriculum frame. Following the twelfth form „the pupils are prepared for the specific vocational exam required by the vocational school leaving exam of the respective branch.” (2011.CXC.Law§) as stated in the National Training Register.

#### *4.2.3.5. Technical secondary school*

Technical secondary school provides pupils with general knowledge necessary for the completion of the requirements of the respective certificate in the course of its three forms as well as the theoretical and practical training of the pupils. An institution can provide „training which is contained by the curriculum-frame specified in the National Registry of Trainings.” General education is performed on the basis of the general frame-curriculum for technical secondary schools; preparation for the technical final exams is regulated by the law concerning technical final exams. Following a successful technical exam the pupils have the possibility to sit for a baccalaureate if they participate in a two-year secondary school education.

Requirements for application to Technical secondary schools include: completed primary school studies, in case this is not met, the pupils should be older than 16 or the completion of the Bridge programme provided by the respective school. To help pupils with special educational needs technical schools could function as special technical schools, special technical institutions Secondary schools aimed at developing pupils' abilities, or preparatory schools for the development of the abilities of mentally handicapped pupils. (2011. CXC. Law 13. §)

#### *4.2.3.6. Bridge Programmes of Public Education*

Bridge Programmes of Public Education provide complex educational, social, cultural support also aiming at developing their personality and abilities on the basis of pedagogical activity to help them participate in secondary school training and education, vocational education or take up a job as well as acquire knowledge necessary to start independent life.

Primary schools can offer pupils who completed primary school but were not accepted by any institution of secondary education and whose age imposes compulsory participation in public education the possibility to participate in Bridge I programme. The programme supplies the pupil with the basic knowledge and competencies necessary for participation in secondary school education by providing different means of development based on individual abilities and needs. Bridge I Programme prepares for the entrance exam to secondary school institutions.

Bridge II Programme also provides on advice of primary school institutions for pupils who did not complete their primary school education and are fifteen years old, but should have completed at least six forms of the primary school. Pupils involved into this programme should acquire the knowledge necessary for starting technical training, as well as the basic technical and practical knowledge they need to join the technical training. Following the successful completion of Bridge II programme the pupils prepare for the final exam in the respective branch.

Bridge programmes can be organized in primary and secondary schools, the institutions which can participate in this programme are appointed by the government. (2011. CXC. Law/14. §)

#### *4.2.3.7. Institute of education and teaching of backward and defective children, institute of conductive pedagogy*

Institute of education of backward and defective children and institute of conductive of pedagogy provides for children and pupils who need peculiar educational treatment. Children with peculiar educational needs



are gravely and extremely handicapped children and are provided development education and development education and teaching beginning with the year they are five. This activity is performed by institutes for the education of for handicapped and defective children and conductive pedagogical institutes. Development can be conducted in its own institution or in a group specially created for this purpose, in domestic conditions or in the institutions which provides care for the child.

The gravely and multiply handicapped child meets the expectations imposed by public education beginning with the academic year during which they are six. Development education and training is compulsory up to 16 years of age, and it can be continued till the age of 23. (2011.CXC. Law/ 15. §)

#### *4.2.3.8. Secondary school of arts*

The basic secondary school of arts has at least six, and a maximum of twelve forms scheme and its task is to develop art related talent and abilities and to provide preparation for further studies in the field. Education and tracing is organized in pre-, basic-, and re-training forms in the fields of music, fine arts, applied arts, the art of puppet theatre, dramatic art, the art of dancing. Following the completion of the last basic form the pupils may sit for a basic exam in arts, while following the last form of re-training the pupil can sit for a final exam in arts. Training involves tuition which covers weekly 6 lessons in the major subject and the compulsory annual art auditions. (2011.CXC. Law/ 16. §)

#### *4.2.3.9. The hostel*

The hostel is an institute of education and teaching which provides accommodation to pupils who study far from their homes, or children who do not stay at home due to factors precipitating their physical and mental integrity and health, or prevent regular and appropriate preparation for school. Hostel accommodation is available for pupils older than 10. Hostels can also function as special hostels in case they provide special talent management and development programmes. „Education in hostels is performed in accordance with the basic national programme for hostels on the basis of the local pedagogical programme.” (2011. CXC. Law/17. §)

#### *4.2.3.10. Pedagogical consulting boards/services*

Pedagogical consulting boards support the educational activity of parents and pedagogues, and help the institute of teaching and

education in meeting its responsibilities. The tasks of the pedagogical consulting board are:

- „a) to help the education and teaching, early development, teaching and management of backward or handicapped children
  - b) To provide development through education,
  - c) To provide expertise and rehabilitation activity in the examination of learning abilities, and to take part in national expert and rehabilitation activity,
  - d) To provide expert advice on education,
  - e) To provide speech therapy services,
  - f) To provide further education and career guidance,
  - g) Provide conductive pedagogic services,
  - h) To provide medical physical education for handicapped children,
  - i) to provide school psychological expertise in schools and kindergartens,
  - j) To guide and support uniquely talented children and pupils.”
- (2011. CXC. Law/18. §)

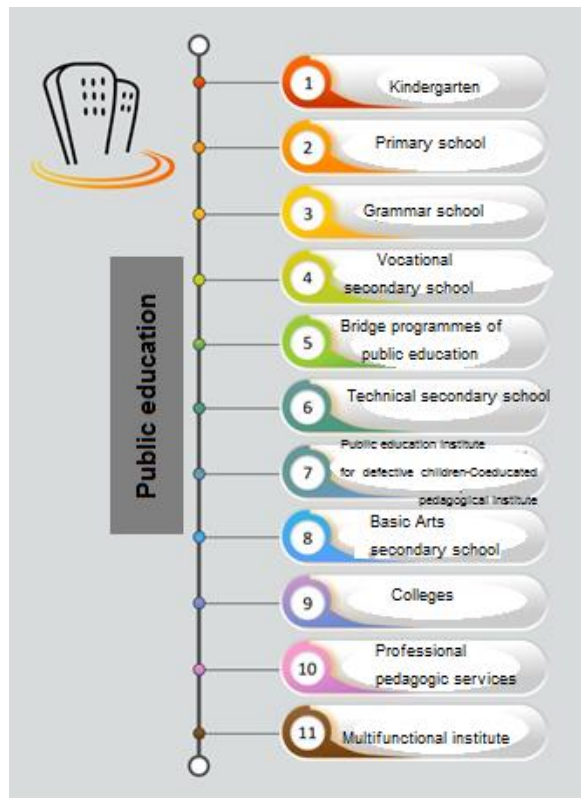
#### *4.2.3.11. Multifunctional institutions*

Should all the material, physical, technical and personal conditions be available for the foundation and functioning of a multifunctional institution, the following multifunctional institutions can be established:

- a) joint crèche-kindergarten: „if the local authorities are not obliged to run a crèche, and the number of children does not make the setting up of separate crèche and kindergarten groups, joint crèche-kindergarten groups can be set up to help the education of children aged two or older, together with children who are normally kindergarten education.”
- b) Homogeneous school or complex school: an institution which is uniform as far as its organization and tasks are concerned.
- c) Institute of public education with shared board of directors: units of institution with autonomous professional profile and organization which perform the functions of different teaching and educational institutions.
- d) centres of general education: are autonomous units of institution from the point of view of organization and professional activity, perform educational and teaching tasks and provide at least one of the following: cultural, art, sports, and/or, the task of dissemination of culture.
- e) Unified institution for defective and handicapped children and conductive pedagogy (EGYMI): creates the premises for the joint education of average pupils and children with special

needs, in order to support the education of the latter. Besides tasks characteristic of expert boards EGYMI can also assume the tasks of pedagogic/professional consulting boards as well. It can also assume the role of the board for family support, school health service, and it should support kindergarten, primary school and secondary school activities within an institution. (2011.CXC. Law/20. §)

The institutions of public education are subordinated to the authority of the Klebersberg Centre for the Support of Public Institutions and on the basis of the directive of the government 202/2012. (VII. 27.) Which is the centre directly subordinated to the minister in charge of education (KLIK). The Centre also created districts of education which perform the duties of the functioning and maintenance of the primary schools, basic art schools, and grammar schools in the specified areas. Vocational schools, hostels, institutes providing special consultative professional and pedagogical services are run and maintained by educational centres of the municipal authorities.



*Illustration 9: The institutions of public education*

### 4.2.3 Regulation of the contents of public education

#### 4.2.3.1. Definition of the curriculum

The document which regulates education and teaching is a curriculum. Special literature offers us a number of definitions for it, and the historical development of the changes in the main lines in its interpretations can also be traced back in history. We have chosen some from among the definitions without the ambition to offer a full list.

In Szabó's (1985) interpretation a curriculum is the document of planning, it is the most important tool for the regulation of the social dissemination of knowledge. In the definition of Falus-Szivák (2004:28) „It is a pedagogical document directing education, which depending on its type contains and decides on the most relevant elements of the educational process: its aims, the study material, requirements, methods, tools, teaching and learning tasks and assessment procedures.” In

Ballér's (1996) definition it is a pedagogical document, which prescribes the value system of teaching-learning in schools, the system of aims and requirements, cultural contents and their arrangement. According to Hunyadi-M. Nádasí „The curriculum of studies is the basic printed document of the practice, guidance and control of education. It contains the contents, the aims of school education in general terms, the concrete aims of individual subjects, the requirements regarding the knowledge of the pupils, the time allotted, and the tasks the pedagogue is supposed to perform”. (Hunyadi-M. Nádasí 2000:69) In Báthory's (2000) interpretation it is the frame for school erudition, a means of contact/transfer between culture and school and the representatives of culture and teachers.

Classification of the curricula of studies can be done on the basis of different aspects. (Ballér 2003) Depending on their scopes we can speak about central, local and bipolar curricula. The central curriculum contains valid prescriptions regarding national, regional, and foundation sponsored schools. The local curriculum is a document regulating only some of the local schools. The bipolar curriculum basically follows the national prescriptions, but it represents local sovereignty in its details. From the point of view of the character of the study material we distinguish study material knowledge cantered, activity cantered, ability cantered, efficiency cantered, requirement cantered and process cantered curricula. If we examine its generic characteristics we can distinguish the syllabus which only gives the outlines of the study material. The system of curriculum concentrates on the relationship between the aims of education, the choice, the order and treatment of the study material. The curriculum of education from its aims to its results. The basic curriculum is the document of education which is decided centrally, and which constitutes the foundation for local or school curricula as well as for the choice of didactic means, tests and assessment. And subject modules.

On the basis of the subjectivity of implementation within the declared curriculum we have to distinguish the so called „translated curriculum” (Ballér 2003), that is the curriculum which is really achieved in the practice of teachers and pupils, in other words, the curriculum interpreted and acquired, which contains the earlier knowledge of the pupils, the influences of its environment, as well as the prescribed interpretation of the educational level by the teacher. The hidden curriculum (Szabó 1985) contains the psychic reactions (specific behaviour, modes of reaction, attitudes), which are acquired by the pupils in an organized form, yet their content is not included in the declared curriculum.

It is clear then that both literatures which approach it from a larger context or the one that approaches it from a more restricted perspective

agree that the curriculum is the most important regulatory document. It is a tool of educational policy which reflects the demands of society and intends to provide a shared cultural basis.

#### *4.2.3.2. Variants of the curriculum*

On the basis of the character of the school management can be nationally uniform in the case of given types and levels of schools, these and their modified versions, as well as the curricula worked out by the sponsors can coexist; schools can use local curricula as well.

In the case of centralized education, when the state is the sole manager the curriculum is also uniform for all the given types of schools. National curricula are prepared and issued at the order of the ministry responsible for education. The accepted curricula are introduced in schools on the basis of the decision of the parliament, of the government, or of the minister in charge of education.

In the case of management which considers pluralism to be a desirable condition naturally besides the national curricula their modified versions and the curricula devised by the management are both present, and their relationship with the national curriculum is always regulated. State management of education can make it possible or it can prescribe the functioning of individual schools on the basis of individual curriculum. By 1998 all schools had created their own local curricula on the basis of their aims formulated in their pedagogical programmes on the basis of the National Curriculum (NAT).

The curriculum can be input or output oriented on the basis of its conception. (Hunyadi-M. Nádasí 2000)

The input oriented curriculum concentrates on the contents of education. Regulations of inform contents of knowledge and regulation of the teachers' activity are important. They define in details the material to be covered and the time allotted for it.

The output oriented curriculum concentrates on the results the pupils are supposed to obtain. Requirements or partial requirements are defined in such a fashion to ensure that the pedagogue plays an important role in the methods by which they can be met.

On the basis of the detailed description of the contents of education the curriculum can be detailed, or frame curriculum, but there are combined solutions as well. The detailed curriculum is descriptive as far as the study material to be covered is concerned. The frame curriculum specifies the study material in broader units and thus allows for the autonomous decisions of the pedagogue.

The study material can be embedded into the subjects and cultural areas horizontally. In Hungary the former is widely spread, but in cases

when the aim is to develop the unified worldview of the pupils, or the task is to discuss areas that merge, the definition of areas of culture is also a possibility.

#### *4.2.4.3. The national curriculum*

The National Curriculum is a central basic curriculum which defines the requirements of development and the minimal requirements regarding the contents of the process of education. The national curriculum was accepted in 1995, and it is

1. Uniform in accordance with the character of the management.
2. It is education oriented.
3. It is output oriented.
4. It gives the definition of the contents of education in the form of a frame.
5. The horizontal arrangement of the contents of education is performed in complex cultural areas.
6. The vertical structure of the study material is mainly organized as the combination of linear and concentric arrangement.
7. The division of study material and of the requirements is linked to cycles of age groups and remains within a given cultural area.
8. It only defines the time frame of individual culture as in the form of percentage.

Individual schools had to prepare their local curricula on the basis of the above. (Hunyady-M. Nádasí 2000)

The 2012 May 16 Government decree re defined Nat stressing the transfer of value in the course of the teaching- educational process. The highlighted areas of development and education and their goals specified by Nat 2012 are:

- moral education
- sense of national identity, patriotic education
- citizenship and democracy
- development of identity Development of self-knowledge and social culture
- physical and spiritual health
- family life
- assuming responsibility for others, volunteering
- sustainability, sense of environment

- career orientation
- economic and financial education
- media awareness
- teaching learning

In the field of competence development, transfer of culture and knowledge the following key competencies were mentioned:

- Communication in the pupils' mother tongue
- Communication in foreign languages
- Mathematical competence
- Competencies in natural sciences and technical sciences
- Digital competence
- Social and citizenship competence
- Initiative and entrepreneurial competencies
- Aesthetic and art consciousness and expressive abilities
- Effective individual learning

In relation with general culture and contents the system of essential knowledge, abilities, skills accepted by the community which can be further developed appear as a priority which makes possible the perception and understanding of basic natural/social phenomena, processes, and relations. Knowledge is enriched continuously and concentrically. (Kaposi, 2013)

Nat defines the following cultural areas:

- Hungarian language and literature
- Foreign languages
- Mathematics
- Man and society
- Man and nature
- The Earth – our environment
- Arts
- Informatics
- Lifestyle and practice
- Physical education and sports



#### *4.2.3.4. Frame curricula*

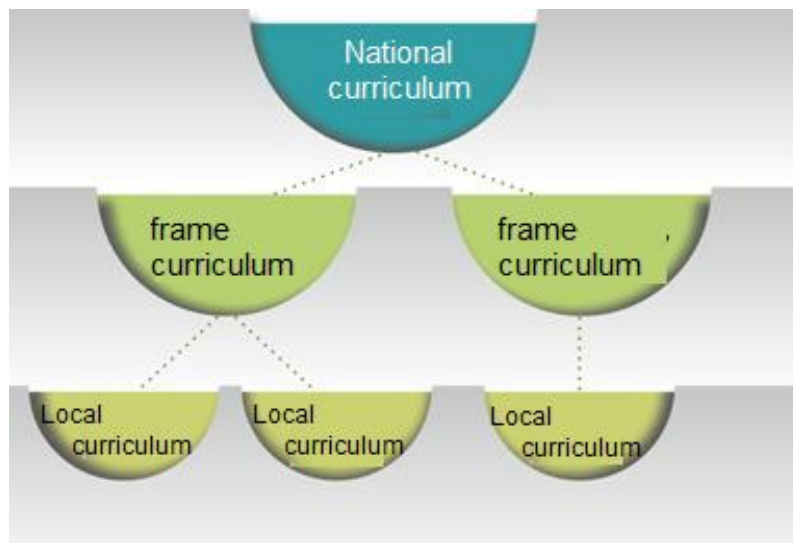
The frame curriculum is the curriculum which contains detailed requirements of individual subjects and forms.

„The principles formulated by Nat are converted to reality by frame curricula. Frame curricula for given types of schools and phases of education contain: the aims of teaching and education, the system of subjects, the themes and contents of individual subjects, as well as the requirements of the given subject for one or two forms, the tasks of developing the fields of knowledge and abilities and define the compulsory and optional time frame available for the completion of the requirements.” (Nat 2012) According to the 2012 November directive of the ministry the frame curricula are as follows:

- Junior section
- Senior section
- Four year grammar school
- Six year grammar school
- Eight year grammar school
- Vocational secondary school
- Technical secondary school

#### *4.2.3.5. Pedagogical programme /local curriculum*

The school prepares an own curriculum by completing the curriculum issued by the minister as part of its pedagogical programme. The local curriculum mentions the frame curriculum issued by the minister responsible for education and decides on maximum ten per cent of the time frame of the classroom activates of the compulsory and optional subjects. The local curriculum is an organic element of the pedagogic programme of the respective schools, it is a curriculum which takes into consideration local peculiarities and the image of the school, but strictly observes the principles of the frame curriculum.



*Illustration 10: Regulation of the contents of public education*

## 4.2.4 Changes in teacher training

### 4.2.5.1. Teachers' competencies

Teacher training underwent a number of relevant transformations in the last years, the dual continental training tradition was exchanged by the two cycle teacher training beginning with 2006. Teachers' diploma was obtained by students who graduated from the first three year cycle (BA/BSc) and completed the next two year masters training (MA/MSc). The final requirements of teacher training include the following competencies:

1. Developing the pupils' personalities
2. Supporting and developing pupil teams, and communities
3. Planning of the pedagogical process
4. Developing the cultural standard, skills and abilities aided by the help of specific science
5. Effective development of competencies creating the competencies necessary for lifelong learning
6. Organizing and guiding the learning process
7. Applying various methods of pedagogical assessment
8. Professional cooperation and communication

9. Indebtedness to professional development and independent self-education

Pedagogues have to demonstrate development in terms of these competencies within the pedagogical life model. Pedagogical life/career model consists of the following levels (Kotschy 2011):

- Level 0 level: meeting the conditions for practice
- Level 1: teacher's diploma
- Level 2: accredited teacher
- Level 3: experienced teacher
- Level 4: excellent teacher
- Level 5: master teacher. (for more see Kotschy 2011)

The undivided training form replaced the bologna type training beginning with 2013 that is the student prepare for the teaching profession from the beginning of their studies.

### **4.3 SUMMARY, QUESTIONS**

#### **4.3.1 Summary**

This unit discussed the tasks and institutions of public education on the basis of the 2011. CXC. Law concerning national public education, the documents which regulate the contents of education, the curricula; the 2012. Basic national curriculum, the concepts of the frame curricula and of the local curricula.

We could see that the curriculum is not only the document which selects and orders the study material, but one that influences the process of education and its results. Besides its guiding role it has the emphatic role to transfer the complex contents which ensure the development of the pupil's abilities and to develop the links between different factors of education.

Teacher training should prepare students in such a fashion as to be able to work in institutions of public education as efficient pedagogues and develop their teachers' competencies. Although the short lived two cycle Bologna system (2006-2013) was replaced by the undivided teacher trains in September 2013, both training form aim at preparing the students for the pedagogue career in an efficient way.

#### **4.3.2 Self-assessment questions**

1. Define the tasks of national public education on the basis of the 2011/ CXC. Law!

2. Introduce the institutions of public education, prepare an accompanying presentation!
3. Based on what principles can curricula be grouped?
4. Compare the curricula of two institutions which function under different management! Highlight and interpret the differences!
5. Read József Kaposi's essay entitled: Changes in the national regulation of contents (2011-2013). Write a summary and discuss it with your colleagues at the forum.

#### **4.3.3 Practice tests**

Decide whether the following statements are true (T) or false (F)!

The syllabus is a curriculum which contains only the brief presentation of the study material. **T** – F

The bipolar curriculum is a curriculum which is identical in any given two institutions in Hungary. T – **F**

The curriculum is more detailed than the syllabus. **T** – F

## **5. LESSON: THE SCHOOL AS INSTITUTION**

### **5.1 AIMS AND COMPETENCIES**

The main aim of this unit is to introduce school as an institutional system. In order to achieve these specific characteristics of the functioning, the interpretation and descriptions of these functions and the specific characteristics of schools as institutions are in the focus of the material. It is an important aim of competence development to foster recognition of the importance of cooperation within the institution, and through this to lay the foundations of the ability to cooperate.

### **5.2 THE SCHOOL AS ORGANIZATION**

#### **5.2.1 The definition of the term organization/institution**

In the course of human history social systems developed as the result of social customs and patterns of behaviour in the course of long periods. Before the appearance of the industrial societies families, relatives, neighbours, communities satisfied their needs themselves, provided their own food, provided education for their children, organized and performed work, and even their own entertainment. Yet this is not so any more in modern societies. Satisfaction of our needs and expectations depends on people whom we very often do not even meet. All this can be achieved through the way in which different institutions coordinate human activities and resources. (Giddens 2003)

The starting point for the definition of organization can be the word „to organize“. This designs the organization of activities with shared aim. The process of organizing harmonizes the activities of the participants in the given action, that is, it coordinates their cooperation. Kozma (1999) points out that the stabilization of coordination serves as the basis of organizations. At the same time it is important to note that to organize and organization are different concepts. That is the relatives can organize the building of the house of one of the families, but it will not become an organization, a building company. Sociological terminology concerning the concept stress that organizations are basically created for the division of labour – *are created for the sake of the division of labour, are set in a given space (building, material environment), their functioning is planned in advance, and they are regulated by formal prescriptions.* (Farkas 2003; Giddens 2003; Kozma 1999)

### 5.2.2 Organization as the sum total of positions

An organization can also be described as the functional network or interconnectedness of certain statuses (positions) or roles developed with the aim of achieving organizational aims. (Farkas 2003) This also means that people who work for the achievement of the aims of the organization perform well-defined tasks, and given achievement and behaviour is expected from them. The tasks are defined, that is they are formally prescribed and to achieve them there is need for special knowledge. That is there is vacancy available for the person who performs a certain function (status) and the person who fills it in is expected to fulfil it and to help through his behaviour. Special knowledge is not person oriented, many people can possess it. Filling it in does not compulsorily mean personal contact. The status can be filled in and it can be maintained with the help of the special knowledge employed and performing of the desired roles. On the basis of the above we can say that organization/institution is a group (of people) based on their impersonal contacts created for the sake of achieving certain aims. (Giddens 2003) We also have to note that the totality of activities serving the interests of the organization provides the functional link between activity statuses and roles into the system of an organization. On the basis of the above the statement that *organization/institution* does not simply consist of individuals, but it is *the totality of positions*, which positions can be abandoned, but their vacant places can be filled in by others. (Kozma 1999)

### 5.2.3 Organizational structure, organizational functions

Those who have certain positions within the organization have more or less influence on one another. Those who can exercise greater influence on the activity and behaviour of the others have greater power. It also should be mentioned that they differ with respect to risk and the responsibilities they assume. Power and risk, right and responsibility are unevenly divided among positions. This results in the sub and over ordination of positions and develops the vertical structure and the arrangement of the positions. The coordination of the positions is shown by the horizontal structure in which there is no essential difference among the positions from the above mentioned points of view. The vertical structure, or in other words the established hierarchy of the positions ensures the continuous coordination of the activities and through this the fulfilment of the aims of the organization. (Kozma 1999) The fulfilment of the aims usually differs from the planned ones, which means that unexpected, unintentional results have to be taken into

consideration as well. The description of the functions of the organization serves the interpretation of this phenomenon. Functions do not only mark tasks and functions but they also refer to consequences which were monitored and lead to the consolidation and flexibility of the organization. Dysfunctions decrease the stability or the flexibility of the organization. Manifested (official) functions are consequences which are revealed and intentional and they increase the stability or flexibility of the organization. Latent (hidden) functions are not intentional and unrevealed consequences, which can be functional or dysfunctional. (Farkas 2003)

#### **5.2.4 Organization and environment**

It is a characteristic of organizations that they remedy the shortcoming, and satisfies the needs and expectations that arise in the course of human coexistence. The organization performs its coordinated activities to meet the demands of human expectations, as it was created for this purpose. This means that when the organization reaches its goal it satisfies needs. The system of activities leading to this can be interpreted as organizational function, so the function can also be described as the system of meeting needs. (Kozma 1999) Earlier we stated that the ambition of the organizations to reach their aims usually does not match former plans. The reason for this is the difference between the official functions and the real (manifest and latent) functions, as well as the emergence of dysfunctions acting against the official functions. In the background of the phenomenon on one hand we can identify the demand of the outer environment of the organization and its changes, on the other hand the interior environment and the functioning of the structures of the organization. This partly means that the demands of the environment do not urge the organization to meet the planned expectations and functions (thus increasing the latent functions), and that changing needs impose the adaptability of the organization (adaptation), that is they result in the appearance of new functions. The interior structure most characteristically consists of statuses, roles, power relationships, organizational units, division of labour and forms of communication. (Farkas 2003)

The interior relationships of the interior of the organization is not only characterized by contacts and relationships recognizable along formal (official), horizontal and vertical structures, but also by the informal (not official) personal drives present in the case of the members, which also influence these functions.

### **5.2.5 Bureaucracy and management**

It is a peculiarity of modern organizations that their functioning is more or less bureaucratic in its character. Bureaucracy as a peculiar type of organization is characterized by dominant hierarchy. In this directives come from up to the lower levels, and the positions with most rights are situated at the peak of the pyramid of the organization. The activity of the clerks working for bureaucratic organizations is regulated by written rules, they perform full time activity for a salary separated from their homes, and these do not own the office tools. (Giddens 2003) Bureaucratic organizations functioning on this basis are more efficient than the ones that function on a less formal basis. In other words the more complex the organization is and the more differentiated its division of labour, in case the aims do not change and the tasks are repeated, the more effective its functioning as bureaucratic model it is. Should the conditions change, and the activates of the organization are renewed, then functioning on the basis of the so called flexible model, in which cooperation between colleagues, professional communication and the flexible definition of tasks and responsibilities becomes a priority, is more fruitful. (Farkas 2003)

Management of the organizations as the form of exercising power should also be mentioned. In this relationship managerial style exercises an effect upon satisfaction and efficiency. The basis of managerial authority is – as Fracas (2003) points it out, legitimation and professional supremacy, but personal characteristics also have a say. On the above basis we can speak about positional, professional (functional), and personal authority.

### **5.2.6 The organization and structure of schools**

School as an organization can be characterized as a system of positions and as a system of related roles. Although this can be stated in the case of all organizations, but school organizations have some specific peculiarities. Kozma (1999) considers the integration of the organizations of the teachers and the organizations of the pupils, which as organizational units have own memberships, own tasks and can be defined separately in time and space. The functioning of a school is over structured and endorsed by other organizational units as well, and it is not only the teaching staff or the organizational unit of the form itself, but the afternoon study period, study groups, professional teams and other organizations. (See illustration 11) It is also characteristic that the structure of other educational organizations can complement and alter the system of position of a school. We witness this phenomenon in the



case of hostels and boarding schools. Another characteristic is that the organizational units of a school are not independent from the socio cultural characteristics of their members. We can also say that given organization units own layer-specific characteristics. The social diversity of the pupils of specialized and catching-up forms is a good example for this.

Specialised forms usually have a favourable social composition from the point of view of the acquisition of the cultural goods while the catch-up/follow up forms has unfavourable social composition. Favourable social composition essentially means that the pupils who participate in the teaching learning process are in a more advantageous situation on the basis of their earlier studies, and they naturally will acquire more knowledge as a result of the teaching learning process, which becomes the source of further advantages as far as their advancement in the schooling system is concerned. One of the important signs of the social composition is the education of the parents. This means that children of parents with higher education occupy more advantageous positions from the point of knowledge acquisition in the educational structure.

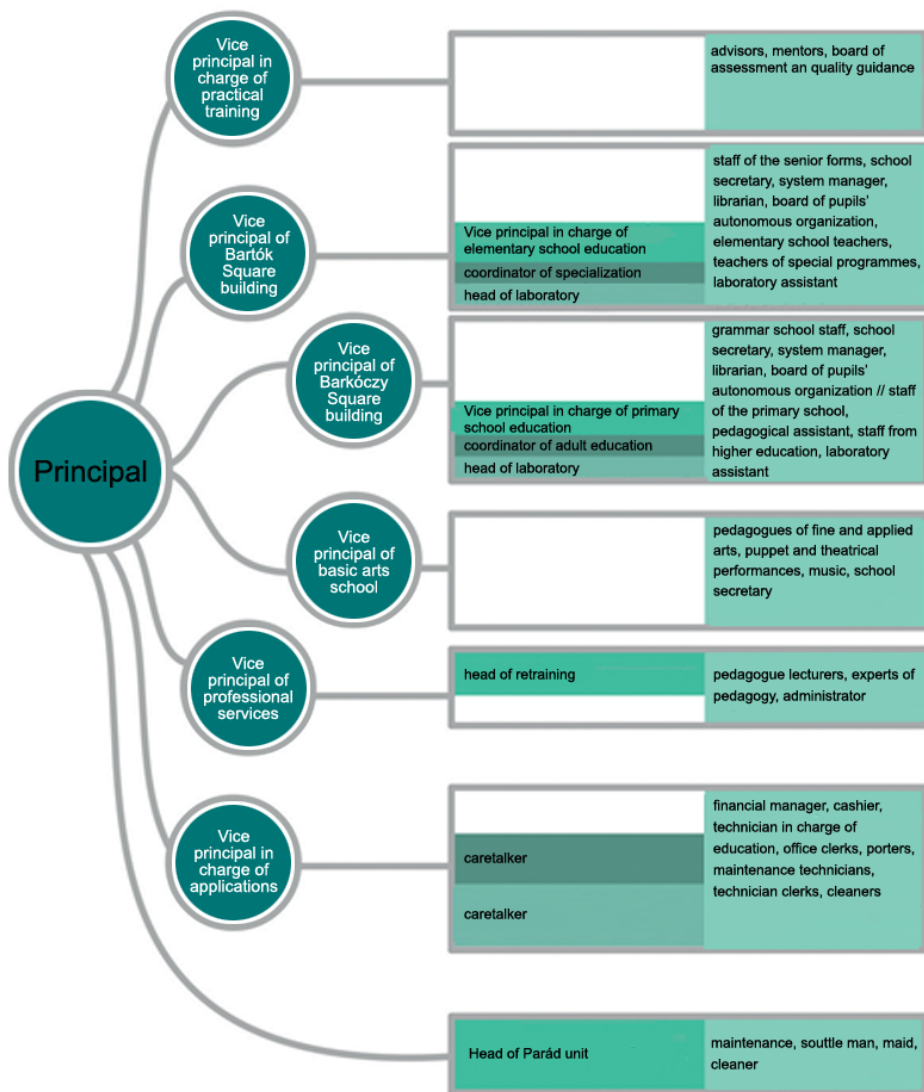


Illustration 11: The organogram of the school organization

### 5.2.7 Aims and functions of school

On the basis of the empirical research of the aims of schools Kozma (1999) points out that there is an identifiable correspondence between the manifest school aims and the aims of the teaching staff, but at the same time directorial aims often present themselves as goals targeting concrete educational or organizational aims. The pedagogues preferably

insist on aim fixed in documents while directors deviate from them. Behind the phenomena there could be the fact that directors assume the risk of declaring independent opinions. Of course as we discussed it earlier people in leading positions have greater power and thus they assume greater risks and responsibilities. This picture is slightly modified by the research according to which the leaders of schools formulate the aims of their schools in accordance with the expectations of educational policy at the surface level, while their answers given to open questions are closer to their real aims. And these concentrate on the management of the school, its maintenance, the effectiveness of assessment of the students' achievement. (Szekszárdi 2006) /15\_05\_V01/

It is possible to describe and group the functions of schools as organizational answers to environmental needs on the basis of functional analysis. In this way the circle of the answers reflecting the achievement or failure to achieve official and the non-official needs can be described. We can include the meeting of requirements specified by the curriculum as a means of meeting official needs, the non-accomplished requirements of the curriculum, as official, but not honoured requirements/needs, participation in temporary jobs as meeting non official needs, or refusal to start course as the refusal of a non-official request (Kozma 1999)

#### **5.2.8 School management and division of tasks/responsibilities**

Managing a school is a profession as well, and as such it can be learnt, but undoubtedly personal qualities also play a role in shaping of managerial behaviour. The best known managerial styles (autocratic, democratic, and anarchic) can be identified in the management of schools as well.

(See.: [http://www.ektf.hu/hefoppalyazat/nevtarsal/klasszikus\\_vezeti\\_stlus\\_ok.html](http://www.ektf.hu/hefoppalyazat/nevtarsal/klasszikus_vezeti_stlus_ok.html)) From the point of view of the theory of school management organization is a tool which can help achieve the aims of the director. The aims are designated at the level of the board of directors, at the level of the teaching staff and the pupils perform the prescribed activities. (Kozma 1999)

Yet, on the basis of empirical research it can be seen, that there would be need for a strong mid-level school management due to the challenges posed by the changes occurring on the environment of the schools. Mid-level management lost faith because it is poorly financed, and there aren't too many who are willing to assume the extra tasks that come with the position of form teachers or leaders of the professional teams, while part of the decisions and special tasks fall on them in the

organization. It is characteristic for the principals to rely on the leaders of the professional teams for the choice of curricula, and they prefer to rely on the form teachers when they have to deal with complaints of the parents and pupils' behaviour. When it comes to the assessment of the activity of the teachers the spectre is even narrower, it is essentially the principal, the vice principal and the leaders of professional teams who have a say. (Szekszárdi 2006)

Researches highlight an important tendency of the last decade, namely that the principal shifted towards the managerial tasks due to economic and social challenges and this increased the role of the vice principals who help his activity directly in the organization. (Török – Szekszárdi – Mayer 2011)

### **5.2.9 The atmosphere of the school**

Kozma (1999) points out the importance of school position-related and the of the dissolution of the conflicts between these roles, the importance of the style of the principal – which can be basically oriented upon person or task, as well as to the importance of the confusion of roles in the case of the pedagogues – which may be traced back to the compulsion created by their joint activities (*educator, specialist and clerk*), as factors which determine the atmosphere of a school. At the same time we have to add that in schools displaying effective organizational function the relationship between the different actors of a school (pupils and parents included) based upon mutual trust, acceptance and respect. (Szekszárdi 2006) On the other hand general lack of mutual trust ruins relationships and by doing that influences atmosphere in a negative way. Bad atmosphere at school influences the functioning of the institution in a negative way.. Good atmosphere, stimulating general mood and mutual assistance together with other factors has a positive influence onto the health of the pedagogues, as it strengthens their self-assessment and thus it increases their efficiency. Further factors which generate positive atmosphere include, in Szekszárdi's opinion (2006): the attempt of the principal to attract the pedagogues into decision making, respect for the personal ambitions of the pedagogues, and the reliable functioning of the organization.

## **5.3 SUMMARY, QUESTIONS**

### **5.3.1 Summary**

In this unit we saw that an organization does not simply appear, but it is planned and created intentionally, for the sake of the division of labour

and its physical borders are stated, and its activity is regulated by plans and prescriptions. An organization thus created does not only consist of individuals but it is also the sum of positions, and thus its activity is ensured independently from individuals on the long term. The expectations formulated towards those who fill in certain positions are the roles which are shaped by the individuals themselves.

Performing certain roles is not independent from the personality of the individuals which means that similar types of organization possess unique characteristics at the level of formal (official) relationships as well. Relationships which are shaped by personal intentions (not official) further differentiate the individual functioning and atmosphere of the organization. We can say that there do not exist two identical school-organizations even if their organizational units are ide respect to their layer specific characteristics.

On the basis of the data available by 2010 the aims and activities of school leadership concentrate on three areas: management, maintenance and results of the pupils which can be assessed. Principals perform mainly managerial tasks, while in many areas the role of the vice-principals is enlarged. Mid-level leaders (leaders of the professional teams, form teachers) constitute essential organizational level n schools due to the enforcement of adaptation processes.

Good atmosphere in schools basically depends on good relationships, trust and mutual respect. Atmosphere is considerably influenced by the roles assumed, the dissolution of role conflicts and the style of leadership. Good atmosphere, participation in decisions, the availability of personal ambitions and predictable functioning of the school support the good spiritual/mental condition and effectiveness of the pedagogues.

### **5.3.2 Self-assessment questions**

1. How can the difference in meaning between the concepts of organizing and organization be grasped?
2. What does the sum of organizational positions mean, what consequences does it have with regards to the relationship between the individual and the organization?
3. Interpret the meaning of fiction, introduce the organizational functions!
4. Explain which organizational model does provide more chances for effective functioning on the basis of the concept of organizational adaptation?
5. What are the consequences of the fact that the organizational units of schools have layer specific characteristics?

6. How can the functions of schools be grouped in function of answers given to organizational answer given to environmental needs?
7. What characterizes the structural relationship and the activity of school leadership of schools with respect to the division of tasks in school organizations?
8. Characterize good and bad school atmosphere and enlist the reasons leading to them!

### **5.3.3 Practice tests**

True or false? Decide about the following statements!

In organizations personal acquaintance is not a pre-condition for filling in a position. **T** – F

The vertical structure of the positions is determined by the sub and over- ordination of the positions among themselves. **T** – F

Pedagogues insist on school documents to a greater degree than principals do. **T** – F

## **6. LESSON: SCHOOL EFFICIENCY, SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT**

### **6.1 AIMS AND COMPETENCIES**

The main aim of this unit is to introduce the results of research on school efficiency and to sum up the conclusions stemming from their survey. Similarly to the previous lessons it is our essential competence development aim to reveal the importance of cooperation, and to strengthen personal professional responsibility and initiative with regards to professional development.

### **6.2 SCHOOL EFFICIENCY, SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT**

#### **6.2.1 The phases of school efficiency analysis and research**

Judit Lannert (2006a) points out the essence of school efficiency research, stating that such research investigates to what extent do different the factors of school influence the amount of knowledge of the and the ways in which this can be measured with the help of tests. Performance measurement based on tests has been and is still present mainly in American and British educational culture, and as it is natural, these states play a leading role in the assessment of school efficiency. On the basis of earlier research we can distinguish four phases, and our aim is to highlight their similarities.

In the first phase the researchers were trying to find the answer to the question regarding the influence of the schools upon pupils' achievement. On the basis of the Coleman report this influence was really slight in the USA. The Brits started examining the question whether schools really do not have influence upon pupil achievement following the Americans. They also enlarged the scope of the research and did not only examine academic achievement (pupils achievement in school) but they also examined it in social terms (absence, falling out). They found the influence of school to be greater. In the second phase besides the output data the factors determining the process were also examined. Classroom data became important and the American researchers also found the functions of schools more important, while some British researchers found them less important. In the third phase the data of achievement research were linked to school development and the question how development could result in more effective schools. In Britain the temporal changes in effectiveness in the case of different

schools attracted attention to the necessity of follow up research. The Brits developed the follow up system in the fourth phase, they managed to measure added value and they considered that its relationship with school development was closer. In the fourth phase in the USA the main question is how we could create good schools in general. (Lannert 2006a)

### **6.2.2 Phases of school development**

Hopkins and Reynolds (2001) offer an overview of the phases of school development on the basis of the report of the International School Development Project of the OECD /1983-1985/. They state that the initiatives aiming at school development did not contain systematic, programmed and coherent approaches with regards to changing schools in the beginning. Although emphasis is detectable with regards to the processes aimed at changing the school system, self-assessment and the related responsibilities brought about by these changes (schools, individual pedagogues), they were very loosely related to pupil efficiency and other problems.

The synergy of approaches was developed with the agreement of the school efficiency researchers and pedagogues involved in the teaching practice in the nineties. The shared perspective of the representatives of school efficiency researchers and school development researchers was enriched with elements like added value centered methodology, or the examination of the participants in the activity of the school, that is pupils and teachers. The revelation of the database regarding the elements which contribute to the increase in pupils' efficiency became important, as well as providing schools with the guidelines and strategies which if introduced, result in changes on classroom activity.

By 2000 changing of the entire practice of school activity came into prominence. Its starting point was still provided by the measurement of pupils' efficiency, but the level of learning, the behaviour of the teacher in organizing and performing the teaching-learning activity and an increasingly conscientious development of the abilities of the school came into focus. Besides the development of the abilities of the pedagogues this extends to strategic planning, introduction of changes and the methods of implementation.

### **6.2.3 Authentic school development**

Following the turn of the millennia it is the so called authentic school development that we can identify, which - as Mária Bognár (2004) highlights it – on the one hand contains theory regarding the changes in



educational policy built on practical experience, and on the other hand, it lays the foundations of a coherent system of values. Yet, the author points out that in practice processes formulated as answers to the challenges posed by the need for reform and genuine strategic decisions are often rendered irrelevant by the need for fast changes and it is reform initiatives that remain important. At the same time it can be seen that the theory of school development piled up much knowledge and experience in the course of the last decades upon which really successful school- and institution- development programmes could be built.

Successful institution development based on formerly accumulated knowledge and experience has the following characteristics in Bognár's (2004) opinion that bases his research on Hopkins (2001):

*It concentrates on pupils' achievement:* concentration on the achievement of the pupils and developing the pupils' learning abilities,

*It is based on the active participation of those involved:* endowing the involved parties with knowledge and abilities so as to enable them to become agents of change,

*It is relationship specific:* taking into account of the specific conditions, providing strategy built upon the analysis of the context,

*Building up capacity which is hidden in its nature:* that is, it is capable of continuous development, creating an organization which presupposes and supports this,

*It focuses on implementation:* it concentrates on classroom processes and pupils' learning,

*It is constructed on strategic intervention:* a long term programme aimed at improving the situation of the system, with mid-term expectations and corresponding priorities

*It is supported from the exterior:* it creates the support system of different organizations and supports the creation of networks which help the spreading of good practice,

*It functions as a system:* it perceives social and political environmental reality and it can adapt to external changes in order to meet new responsibilities and thus it recognizes the need for creativity and cooperation within the system.

Actually we can observe among the key components of authentic school development the acceptance of research as an element of efficient school and school development, the results of organizational development, the attitude of the teachers to changes, the learning of the staff, the interior conditions of school development, and the strategies which support it. (Bognár 2004)

#### **6.2.4 Interior conditions of authentic school development**

The interior conditions of authentic school development, which is actually a shared competency of school, are components which enable a school to react in an efficient way to changes. These components include: the amount of knowledge, and the abilities of the educational staff, the professional organizations, the coherent programme and technical resources. The core of this is the organization of the school which is functioning in the interest of the development of the learning process. (Bognár 2004)

In McMahon's opinion (2006) the representation of the concept of school culture as a mutually supportive pupils' organization demands important behavioural and organizational changes in many schools. This is understandable as the characteristics of a staff' learning organization as a professional organization involve collective sense of responsibility assumed for the learning of the teachers, the putting into practice of professional reflexivity, cooperation based on shared targets aimed at development, which generate mutual professional learning beneath the help identifiable on the surface. In the process of supported professional learning, team and individual learning are more often collective, than individual and all the teachers are pupils as well together with all their colleagues.

#### **6.2.5 Transformation into learners' organization**

McMahon (2006) points out that we have few research data regarding the way in which school cultures can change in this direction, what measures are required from leaders and teachers in order to create the community of professional learners, and their organizations. Qualitative research into these questions stated that as all schools are unique and peculiar, the individual characteristics of schools which might have positive or negative influence on the functioning of schools as learners' organization have to be taken into consideration. The answers also showed that it is often all the adults, but especially those who support education and teachers, who form these groups. It also turned out that the best known characteristics of school culture perceived as learners' professional organization, like shared values, and view of the future, the sense of responsibility of the professional staff for learning were present in high percentage in the answers given by the teachers.

All these can be achieved by way of dissolving the isolation of the teachers, and by increasing the dedication of the teaching staff to the reflexive discovery of the teaching-learning process, by rendering the availability of necessary time and resource possible, and adjustable,

through activities which serve collective learning, like collective planning of the activities, pair or team teaching, assuming roles in the research activity of the school, and planning the role and function of all these into school day routine. Creating the possibility of these out of class activities, either by the fact that a team of the teaching staff share one room, - or even better there is time and demand for collective debates, are essential. Financial support is also needed for this type of school based learning, as well as, for the learning achieved through networks among different schools and out of school retraining activities and development. (McMahon 2006)

### **6.2.6 School development activities and strategies**

On the basis of approaches characteristic of the year 2000 Bolam (2006) sees school development possible through the teaching learning process organized to increase pupil efficiency and through strategies help to improve the conditions which support it. He stresses that these strategies are directed towards the improvement of the abilities of schools and their aim is to provide improved equality education. On the basis of the research data school leadership has an important role in school development. The management of successful schools displayed certain characteristics; such is strong and targeted leadership, which relies heavily on wide consensus with the teachers, and attracts them into decision making with regards to the aims and values of the school, or continuous support for the development of teachers and pupils.

On the basis of research data Hopkins and Reynolds (2001) also stress the fact that effective schools had to adapt specific strategies to achieve increase in pupils' achievement on the basis of practice based on the analyses of socio-economic statuses. In schools with good results the successful strategies contained the following elements as emphasized by the authors;

- Intellectual and practical space provided for teachers, so that they could experiment with new form of the curriculum and teaching learning forms,
- Restructuring of the level of learning and its links with other levels of school activity,
- Articulating and debating the educational- teaching values and of related practice,
- Providing pupils with the right to decide in learning situations, and involving them in the changing of the teaching-educational process. (Hopkins – Reynolds, 2001:466)

### **6.2.7 Analyses of efficiency and school development**

The experiments of the international assessment of school efficiency show, that besides strategies there are four factors which play an important role in the efficiency and good results of schools: *school infrastructure, school leadership, the pedagogic activity of the pedagogues (especially pedagogic assessment), and differences in the composition of the forms as far as pupils are concerned*. Research revealed such important phenomena in relation with the above factors like the classroom position of pupils, which can increase the communication among them improving their willingness to cooperate, or they make the identification of such leader marks on the basis of which the transformational leader type, who is able to achieve changes in school, could be described. Collegiality is also part of this cultural transformation which means shared drive to improve and openness collective planning. Besides planning of the learning process, designing and adapting of the study material, grouping the pupils in teams, transferring requirements which determine assessment, the teacher's activity can be assessed too. In the light of PISA – research (for more see lesson 11) populations of heterogeneous pupils held together till the age of 15 have greater efficiency than populations selectively divided at an earlier age. The most astonishing result of the research is that quality and fairness or equity goes together. (Lannert 2006a) – That is quality education and improving equality of chances together contribute to improved efficiency that can be measured, that is in the case of good quality education, better learning performance can be achieved by pupils who are handicapped in various ways.

### **6.2.8 Hungarian experiences with respect to the factors which influence efficiency**

The starting point of Lannert's (2006b) own analysis – which targets primary schools – is the presupposition based upon the results of literature and qualitative research that the efficiency of schools depends on the composition of their pupils, on the activity of their teachers, and on the policy of school leadership. In schools where the teaching staff work together, and which are achievement and problem solving oriented, take part in decision making, the climate of the school can be considered productive.

We sum up the experiences of the research below:

„In efficient schools focus falls on the acquisition of learning skills by pupils, so they maximize the time allotted for learning and they try to use it in the best possible way. Monitoring of the results obtained by pupils is

also an important element. The practice oriented retraining and development is organized in schools to improve teaching efficiency. The involvement of parents in these schools is outstanding. Leadership can have an effect through effective teaching and education organization and through implementation of new strategies. It is also characteristic of efficient schools that they impose high level-, yet appropriately operational expectations on their pupils. (...) Teaching-learning is effective if it contains a well-defined section of the aims specified in the curriculum, if it stresses the acquisition of basic skills, the contents are appropriately structured, and assessment and feedback are present as well." (Lannert, 2006b:43-44)

## **6.3 SUMMARY, QUESTIONS**

### **6.3.1 Summary**

In this unit we described the resources of research concerning school efficiency and school development, its phases of development, the influence of the results of research. The synergy of the directions of research focus on pupils' achievement, learning, the teachers' organizing and leading activities, their behaviour, and the development of the abilities of a school.

In our subchapters dealing with the presentation of authentic school development we pointed out the knowledge elements produced by the research on school development which can be starting point for successful institutional development. Among the interior conditions of authentic school development we emphasized the school organization aimed at developing learning. This is essentially the so called professional learning organization. Professional learning organization besides development presupposes the learning of all parties involved. We offered an overview of the needs and changes necessary for the transformation into learning organization in the light of quantitative research data. In relation to school development we also offered an overview of the most important activities and strategies which proved effective, which can be connected with the most effective strategies of the most effective schools.

Besides the strategies we also pointed out that from among the four factors employed in the analysis of school efficiency it is school leadership that can achieve cultural change in schools. This could be a milestone in school development, as team spirit, the ambition for further improvement, and collective planning is part of the cultural transformation.

Finally we also looked into national research concerning school efficiency. The results supported the idea that efficiency and school development are achieved through processes which endorse each other.

### **6.3.2 Self-assessment questions**

1. In what can we grasp the difference between expertise of school efficiency and school development research?
2. What would you include among the key components of authentic school development?
3. What are the interior conditions of school development?
4. What measures and changes does transformation into learning organization presuppose?
5. Which are the proven successful strategies of efficient schools?
6. Explain the statement attesting that the results of national research into school efficiency supported the statement that school development and school efficiency are achieved through processes that strengthen each other.
7. How do you interpret the statement that school leadership can be the cornerstone of school development?

### **6.3.3 Practice tests**

True or false? Decide about the following statements!

The practice oriented training of the staff serves the interest of increasing teaching efficiency. **T – F**

Quality education and decreasing of lack of equal chances together produce better pupils' results. **T – F**

Thinking in terms of the system means that successful institutional development takes into consideration political realities. **T – F**

## **2. Module: Schools in space and time**

## **7. LESSON: CHANGES IN THE CONTENTS OF EDUCATION AND TEACHING**

### **7.1 AIMS AND COMPETENCIES**

The aim of this chapter is to introduce the changes in contents of education and teaching in various periods of the history of education. The unit offers a survey and also discusses some of the most important milestones, but it does not discuss whole periods in details. It is an important aim of this unit is to help students get acquainted with the social and economic processes, and circumstances which influenced the transformations of education and to be able to examine and interpret them in the future.

As far as competencies are concerned the students will get to know the economic functions of different systems of education, the laws of their changes and development, and the main characteristics of social expectations towards schools.

### **7.2 CHANGES IN CONTENTS OF EDUCATION AND TEACHING**

#### **7.2.1 Ancient times**

We can only draw the conclusions that the contents of education in given communities were determined by the need for the acquisition of practical knowledge and skills necessary for survival, kinship, or customs and we cannot speak of literacy in this period we can only rely on research in the field of ethnography and the findings of anthropology, so we start our expertise with the discussion of ancient times.

##### *7.2.1.1. Riverside cultures*

Power was in the hands of the god king in ancient eastern slaveholder societies. Development of the sciences, which were mainly practiced by priests, was mainly determined by agriculture, commerce and craftsmanship. The foundation of the first schools dates back to this period in ancient Mesopotamia, Egypt, India and China. (Pukánszky–Németh 1996)

The emergence of the first schools for training scribes, aimed at educating literate people can be traced back to church schools in Mesopotamia in the 4th millennium B.C... Two different types of scriber training schools functioning by the 2nd millennium B.C., the „blackboard house” which provided basic educational „the house of the board”, and



was available for children coming from common families as well, and the „house of wisdom” which provided knowledge of higher quality.

Besides writing, reading, calculation, and basic knowledge of sciences pupils got acquainted with the texts of the most important works of poetry, myths, hymns, and incantation. Priests, judges, doctors were trained in the house of wisdom but those who attended these schools also studied higher level mathematics, geometry, theology, elements of law and medicine, and design of calendars.

Although physical punishment was customary in Mesopotamia, children were held in great esteem as tokens of future. (Pukánszky–Németh 1996)

In Egypt literate people and scientists were respected people just like in Mesopotamia, as scribes also played an outstanding role in the workings of the state apparatus here as well. The first scriber training schools were organized during the MidEmpire (2060–1785 B.C :). The contents of the training which lasted four or five years included besides the basic skills (writing, reading, and calculating) astrology, geography, religion and basic moral education. Next in the seminars of churches in greater towns they taught mathematics, geometry, astrology and theory of music. Only free people had the right to study. In Egypt they also considered the education of children important, they considered the introduction of traditions, everlasting norms, and of divine to be of most importance.

The conquest of the indo- European tribes put an end to the flourishing of the Dravidic culture in India. The conquerors created a system on castes separate from the conquered and individual schools were organized in accordance with castes as well. This is how the Brahman school concerned with the training of priests, the Kshatriya schools for children of elite members of the army, and the vaisya schools intended to educate the commoners were founded. They did not establish schools for the conquered natives (suras). Change was brought about by the emergence of Buddhism. They organized uniform education the centres of which were the monasteries. Priests and men of the world were allowed to learn arts, medicine, logics and philosophy. Children were viewed as creatures that could perform self-education and could be developed by way of teaching, and the aim of education was the creation of harmony among the known worlds. (Mészáros–Németh–Pukánszky 2002)

In China uniform educational system emerged by the end of the 2nd millennium. Besides free basic school there was tuition fee charging secondary education provided by county and regional schools. Mandarins, the children of state clerks could attend institutes of higher

education. Children were taught compulsory unconditional respect for parents and adults. (Pukánszky–Németh 1996)

#### *7.2.1.2. Greece and Rome*

In polises (town centered states) of ancient Greece aristocratic republic emerged where aristocracy owned power. During the archaic period (13-4 c. B.C.) we cannot speak about institutionalized education as the first educator of a child was the family. The aim of the education was to bring up brave warriors. Sons learned the art of fighting when they left their families and they could practice popular assembly, a great assembly a science of oration. In the period between 8th-6th centuries B. C. Sparta was one of the cultural centres of the Greeks where power was in the hands of the army aristocracy. Due to the military character of the state the aim of education was to create merciless, well trained and fanatic warriors and for this reason besides strict physical training the child was required unconditional surrender to orders. Girls also participated in these hard trainings. Boys became members of the arms at the age of twenty, and their military education continued in wars.

In the 6th-5th centuries in Athens the leading layer of the polis included besides the aristocracy the citizens with largest incomes. This influenced the aim of education as well, which in Athens was to educate „good citizens for the polis”. In the beginning professional and general knowledge could be acquired from private teachers in the form of muse education a muse (grammar-literature, music) and gymnastics education gymnastics (sports and expressive movement), later different types of schools emerged.

Basic-, secondary-, and higher education schools teaching philosophy, medical sciences and rhetoric emerge during the period of Hellenistic education (336-30 B.C.). (Mészáros–Németh–Pukánszky 2002)

In the Roman Empire the emergence of institutional education dates back the period in which Rome becomes a great power, earlier family education was replaced by private schools which were teaching grammar and rhetoric. This was complemented later with law schools. Meeting social demand a good Roman clerk/official had to be endowed with a system of knowledge, that is, he had to possess knowledge of languages (Latin, Greek, grammar, rhetoric, dialectic) and „scientific” training (arithmetic's, geometry, astronomy, theory of music), as well as solid moral standing. These formed the „seven free sciences” or „the seven free arts” (Septem artes liberales). The aim of Roman education is to bring up children so as to become good people, who are in possession of

adequate general and professional culture. (Mészáros–Németh–Pukánszky 2002)

### **7.2.2 The Middle Ages**

#### **7.2.2.1. Attitude towards children**

Baby mortality was extremely high during the Middle Ages, which was partly due to the hygienic conditions, partly due to the primitive character of medical science. Babies were often given to nannies, where they were kept till the age of two. When they got back into the family they spent there just a few years, after which they were employed as servants, or in families which were better off they were sent to school, so no intimate relationship could develop between children and parents. Children were handled as if they were miniature adults, a fact that can be seen on representations on contemporary fine art. (Pukánszky 2001) Undesired children were simply thrown out; the church took them in custody and brought them up.

God centeredness was essential both in education and in education during the middle ages. Children were considered to be sinful creatures, which were extremely perceptive to crimes. On the basis of the above an important task of education was to teach them indiscriminate respect for God and keeping to religious norms.

#### *7.2.2.2. Clerical/religious education*

On the former territories of the Roman Empire monasteries and holy orders of monks developed continuously starting with the 4th century. Nuristan Benedict (480-547) who founded a monastery on the Hill of Monte Casino around 529 is considered to be the father of western monkhood. The strict regulations of this monastery served as model for the other monasteries for a long time. In the 6th-8th centuries the monasteries became intellectual and economic centres, the monks were studying holy books, taught and performed hard physical work as well.

By the end of the 8th century in Europe the Frank empire strengthened and the frank king Charles the Great created the system of schools by the 9th century which was used as a model in many other European countries as well. Settlements which had parsonages established school which taught basic clerical knowledge (reading and singing). Higher education was provided by schools based in monasteries and cathedrals of certain areas. Some outstanding schools based in cathedrals invited clerical teachers with wider knowledge (who were members of the church) and thus managed to provide education of higher quality for its pupils. In the 12th and 13th centuries some special

sciences like theology, law and medical science emerged. These cathedral based schools were the foundations of later universities. (Pukánszky–Németh 1996)

#### *7.2.2.3. The schools of the bourgeoisie*

Starting with the 13th century town bourgeoisie was strengthening alongside church and merchants, craftsmen, and clerks had influence on education. The needs of bourgeoisie were also taken into consideration when they created the curriculum for parsonage based schools in towns. Children were taught Latin grammar besides reading, writing and singing in these schools. They were followed by practical knowledge necessary for their future careers (editing certain official documents, financial studies, practical mathematics, accounting, business correspondence, basics of geography and astrology), and finally complete areas of knowledge.

### **7.2.3 Renaissance and humanism**

Humanism is one of the influential philosophical trends of late Middle Ages, the ideological background of renaissance style started in 14-15th century Italy with the rediscovery of the classical authors of the antiquity. Earlier tenets about the central position of god were replaced by the central position attributed to man, and man became the measure of everything. In the period of humanism and renaissance more and more parents took their children to school, often to boarding schools, far from parents, where they were taught basic knowledge (reading, writing and calculating). Children were grouped not on the basis of their age but on the basis of their acquired knowledge.

Physical punishment was a common method of disciplining of children, and it was the task of the father of the family at home, but schools often employed it as well. (Pukánszky 2001)

The most outstanding pedagogues of the period were Erasmus of Rotterdam (1469–1536) the humanist scientist from the Netherlands, monk of the Agustin holy order, philosopher and theology-philosopher and theologize, and Johannes Amos Comenius (1592-1670) the Czech-Moravian pedagogue and writer.

### **7.2.4 New Age**

The enlightenment, the spiritual movement which prepared the bourgeois revolution started from England in the 17th century. It reached its climax in France in the 18th century, and its effect was felt in the states of central and Eastern Europe in the first half of the 19th century

as well... Its thinkers placed reason, rationalism in the centre. They thought that man is good and can be improved with the help of laws and education and it can live a moral life without the intervention of religion as well. The enlightened man looks for and finds his happiness on earth and his happiness are related to the happiness of others. The most important pedagogues of the enlightenment are John Locke (1632–1704) English philosopher, doctor and politician and Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712–1778), the French philosopher. (Fináczy 1927)

Professional literature calls the 18th century the century of education or pedagogy, because education became a public concern, as they considered that public education and public teaching can help solve social problems.

The attention of writers, philosophers, and statesmen turned towards education, and ever greater number of treatises on pedagogical themes, and books were published, with the aim to shape the child's soul. From the middle of the 18th century due to the development of sciences, the general improvement of hygienic conditions and the introduction of vaccines baby mortality decreased and life expectancy increased. The role of children assumed greater value in families and the parents paid more attention to their children. (Pukánszky 2001)

Philanthropy which was based on the ideas of the enlightenment developed in Germany by the end of the 18th century. It attempted to change education and which became monotonous, through the study of authors of the antiquity and grammar centeredness in language teaching. It placed practical knowledge, live language teaching in the centre instead.

### **7.2.5 The 19th century**

The nineteenth century started relevant social changes in Western Europe. The French Revolution created new values; the industrial revolution and urbanization changed people's lives. It was still only the male members of the society who had political rights, the main task of women remaining running the household, bringing up children and organizing household chores.

In the 19th century, the emergence of popular education opened a new chapter in the educational policy of Europe, cultural education and public education became national aims, important areas of social publicity.

Enlightened absolutistic rulers (Frederick the Great, Maria Teresa and Joseph II.) rendered basic education compulsory by introducing the law of compulsory education, and extended their authority over public education.

Motherhood grew in importance and women started preparing for their role as parents. In the homes of bourgeois families children's rooms appeared which were separated from the adult sections, and they were furnished with suitably sized furniture and other accessories that were meant to meet children's expectations and needs.

Childhood got its right, as a special phase of human life, and special spheres of children's life like toy industry, genuine children's literature emerged. The main task of a child was to integrate into society, yet childhood was still regarded as a period of life which was full of dangers.

Besides the positive changes child labour appeared especially in industrially developed countries, and they were trying the limit it by implementing new laws.

The century has a number of important pedagogues, from among whom the pedagogic views of Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi (1746–1827) and Johann Friedrich Herbart (1776–1841) exercised the greatest influence in the following periods. (Mészáros–Németh–Pukánszky 2002)

### **7.3 SUMMARY, QUESTIONS**

#### **7.3.1 Summary**

This unit offered an overview of the most important stations in the history of education from the beginnings to the 19th century. It revealed the attitude of the given societies in certain periods towards the education of children, what aims they articulated, and what expectations were formulated with regards to schooling. We offered a view of the reactions of education in space and time to the changes undergoing in social, economic and political changes of respective periods. The study material did not touch upon the most outstanding pedagogues of the respective periods; instead it attempted to reveal the changes in contents of education with respect to the process of education and its relationships.

#### **7.3.2 Self-assessment questions**

1. Explain the way in which the aim of education and teaching changed in ancient times in riverside societies.
2. Interpret individually Rousseau's most important pedagogical reflections. Introduce the pedagogic concept of the enlightenment through your material!
3. Look up Bruegel's Children's Toys (1560) painting with the help of the internet! Introduce the view of the Middle Ages on children with the help of the above painting!

4. Which century is called the century of education? Why?
5. Which are the most characteristic changes of the 19th century?

### 7.3.3 Practice tests

Mark the right answer!

The first scribblers' church schools were founded in

- a. 4th millennium B.C.**
- b. 3th millennium B.C.
- c. 2nd millennium B.C.

The aim of education in Athens was

- a. brave soldier
- b. moral man
- c. good citizen of the polis**

Children's' room appeared in the

- a. 17th century
- b. 18th century**
- c. 19th century

## **8. LESSON: REFORM PEDAGOGY**

### **8.1 AIMS AND COMPETENCIES**

The aim of this unit is to present the formation of reform pedagogy, the phases of the process and the most outstanding concepts of reform pedagogy. It is also an important aim to provide the students with knowledge of the main aims of various trends of reform pedagogy, their attempts with regards to didactics and different ways of organizing the process of learning. Endowed with the knowledge of the above the students can enrich their own methodological repertoire, and get support in their efficient and fruitful activity within the context of the school environment they work in. As far as the development of teacher's competencies are concerned this unit supports the development of competencies regarding *the development of the personality of the pupil, the predominance of individual treatment*, as well as support for *the development of pupils' teams and communities*.

### **8.2 REFORM PEDAGOGY**

#### **8.2.1 The emergence of reform pedagogy**

The emergence of reform pedagogy was generated by processes caused by the social and economic changes of the 19th and 20th centuries. In the 19th century the schools system was criticised because it was overcrowded, and grammar school pupils were overburdened and its critics were asking for reforms. A new perception of children emerged which broke entirely with the view of the middle Ages of children which considered children to be miniature adults. This view stressed that a child was different in quality from an adult; it has an autonomous world of its own, an own view of life, own problems, values and forms of accumulating experience. The art pedagogy movement emerged at the turn of the 19th and 20th centuries. Its main ambition is based on the principle that art, as a form of perception of reality is a valuable tool of education (it helps develop personality and it teaches the pupil „to see”). The role of literature and the fine arts and music increases. (Pukánszky–Németh 1996)

Productivity increased considerably in the 20th century and it produced the so called „consumer” man. The social role of the child increased, the quality education and teaching of children came to be considered important. School and age-group gained more and more



important role in the life of a child. New pedagogic movements and trends emerged.

Excursions in nature Developed, interest in folk cultures also increased. People started showing greater interest towards sports and arts. Ellen Key (1849–1926) Swedish primary school teacher's work entitled „The century of children” (1900) is considered to be the first basic document of reform pedagogy. (Németh 1996)



Source: <http://hirnok.wordpress.com/2009/06/10/ellen-key-1849-1926/> downloaded in 2014. 08.30.

*Illustration 12: Ellen Key (1849–1926)*

In her book the author demands the radical reform of the schooling system and methods which are in harmony with the particularities of the child's development. She contrasts the curriculum centeredness of the old practice with the child oriented perception of the new one, the earlier passive interception with the activity cantered new one, and the exclusively emotional cantered teaching with the multilateral development of abilities of the new one. The aim of reform pedagogy can be grasped in its concern for the autonomy of a child's individuality, the creation of properly sized schools adjusted to the needs of the child, and the need for radical change in the case of traditional institutions.

We regard Németh–Skiera's definition (2003:65) of reform pedagogy to be central: „The term reform pedagogy is used for the definition of child cantered pedagogical thinking and practice of education, it is an joint expression employed for concepts and pedagogical trends which emerged mainly in the USA and Europe starting with the last decade of the 19th century up to the twenties of the 20th century.”

### 8.2.2 The phases of reform pedagogy

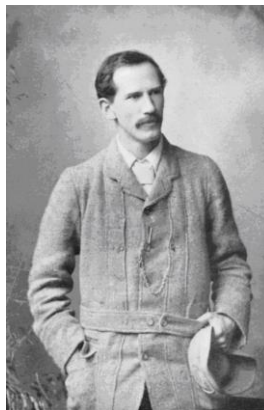
When defining the phases of reform pedagogy we follow Németh's work (1996). On the basis of this we can distinguish three classical phases. The first phase covers the period between 1889–1918, professional literature enlists the New School movement, the pedagogical concepts of Maria Montessori, Ovide Decroly, Georg Kerschensteiner and Adolphe Ferrière. The second phase is the period between 1918-1945, this is the period of flourishing of reform pedagogy, when the movement spreads worldwide, and individual schools start communicating. The third phase covers the period between 1945–1990, which is mistakenly often associated with alternative pedagogy, and although undoubtedly alternative pedagogy develops in this period, its beginning should be traced back into the sixties.

The chapters that follow offer you an overview of these classical periods, and highlight some of their most outstanding representatives.

### 8.2.3 The first period of reform pedagogy (1889-1918)

#### 8.2.3.1. *The New-School*

The basis for the New-School reform pedagogy was provided by private boarding schools. The first institute which served as a model for schools was Cecil Reddie English teacher's educational institute founded in 1889 in Abbotsholme.



Source: [http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Cecil\\_Reddie.jpg](http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Cecil_Reddie.jpg)  
downloaded in: 2014. 08.30.

*Illustration 13: Cecil Reddie (1858-1932)*

Abbotsholm was a boarding school which provided really useful culture in lifelike conditions for boys coming from the social elite. The school created the harmony of the physical, spiritual and moral values of its pupils.

The set of tools used by the school consisted of a number of elements. One of the most important elements was the strict daily routine.

Aesthetic and art education had great priority, which is obvious if we consider the daily routine, and from among the elements of the didactic methodological elements teaching resource analysis, observation, and individual experiments are relevant. A new dimension of teacher-pupil relationship can be observed in the institution, the teacher appears as help in the process.

The earlier mentioned familiar character was determinant/dominant as well as the volunteer activity performed for the local council, as well as the presence of religion.

The private boarding schools which were located in the countryside in an environment which emanated family atmosphere assumed responsibility for the entire education of their pupils. The new schools were adopted in a number of schools in Europe, and they exercised the greatest influence in German speaking territories. (Németh–Skiera 2003)

#### *8.2.3.2. Ovide Decroly's pedagogy*

The Belgian doctor and psychologist Ovide Decroly (1871–1932) was preoccupied with the education of handicapped children in the beginning, for whom he founded an asylum in 1901.



Source: <http://educationmuseum.wordpress.com/2011/12/14/ovide-decroly-1871-1932/> downloaded in: 2014. 08.30.

*Illustration 14: Ovide Decroly (1871-1932)*

Decroly turned his attention towards the education of mentally healthy children only later. In 1907 he opened his private school for mentally healthy children called „Ermitage” in Brussels. The workshops of the school laid the foundations for the individual acquisition of knowledge by pupils.

In his conception nature provides the foundations and conditions:

„Days and nights, summers and winters, birth and death, physical, chemical, astrological biological phenomena occur in a sequence which is well defined in advance [...], in the given form or in the form in which man privatizes them according to his taste or needs.” (Németh 1996:63)

On the basis of the above he considered that school prepared children for life by following the natural order of life and as a result he grouped the four basic needs of children around so-called centres of interest like:

1. Nutrition,
2. Defence against the hazards of weather,
3. Defence against dangers and enemies,
4. Collective work.

Different fields of knowledge were not organized in the form of subjects; they were replaced by different creative activities the children were supposed to perform. Knowledge was concentrically enlarged, first came knowledge regarding self-awareness of children, and they were followed by complex system of knowledge regarding natural and social environment.

Children observed the processes directly and they learned on empirical experience. The teacher did not guide them directly, work was performed freely and children acted collectively supporting each other.

#### 8.2.3.3. Georg Kerschensteiner and workshop like school

Georg Kerschensteiner (1854–1932) was a German mathematician and pedagogue.



Source: [http://stadtmuseum.bayerische-landesbibliothek-online.de/files/portrait/88\\_Hilsdorf\\_Kerschensteiner\\_G\\_M\\_GR\\_28-1434.jpg](http://stadtmuseum.bayerische-landesbibliothek-online.de/files/portrait/88_Hilsdorf_Kerschensteiner_G_M_GR_28-1434.jpg) downloaded in: 2014. 08.30.

*Illustration 15: Georg Kerschensteiner (1854–1932)*

As the adviser of München School he reformed the curriculum of the popular schools of the town, introduced workshop education, school gardening, and founded kitchens and laboratories, and organized the system of retraining of schools for boys and girls.

In Kerschensteiner's interpretation the new type popular (public) school was a work cantered school, that is the school for masses was supposed to prepare people for physical work. In his view the value of popular schooling was not provided by the acquiring of high level/standard culture, but by preparing pupils for hard, precise work.

In the course of the training the pupils got acquainted with different forms of manual work related to the process of production. Besides work

cantered training pupils were offered teaching of basic cultural elements as well; writing, reading, composition, and calculation, basic knowledge of nature and society and hygiene. Collective work had an important role and assuming responsibility and providing help during the working process. (Pukánszky–Németh 1996)

#### *8.2.3.4. Maria Montessori*

Maria Montessori (1870–1952) was an Italian doctor, pedagogue who was considered a pioneer in many respects in her time.



*Illustration 16: Maria Montessori (1870–1952)*

Source: <http://www.bpmontessori.hu/nappali/index.php/component/users/> downloaded in: 2014. 08.30.

As her primary interest was in natural sciences she pursued technical training first and then she applied for the medical university. She was the first woman to be accepted by the university and the first one who graduated successfully from it. After this she took part in psychiatric practice where she was shocked by the conditions and treatment of the

patients. In 1899 she founded an institute of medical pedagogy institute, and in 1907 she founded the Children's House („casa dei bambini”), where she laid the foundations of her method, which she published under the title *The book of my method* in 1909. Rousseau's, Pestalozzi's and Fröbel's views on pedagogy influenced her pedagogical method, as well as the results of contemporary medical science and the results of natural sciences, and podiatrist, ambitions aimed at educating mentally handicapped children. (Németh–Skiera 2003)

The two basic principles of Montessori pedagogy are: the activity of children and their freedom. The basic principle of education is: the activity of the child that is we should let the child act independently, because this creates the possibility for the development of the senses, and the acquisition of individual experience. „We do not help life when we suppress its attempt to express its feelings, but when we help its emergence and defend it against dangers [...] This is why we should avoid the impediments which the child encounters in the course of his development, and this is why we should take into consideration its needs and ensure the conditions for the natural and spontaneous materialization of its spiritual life. [...] That is we should attempt to help the child to achieve everything it is able to perform independently [sic].” (Németh 1996:55)

The aim of education is to provide optimal help in support of independent activity of the child and to remove the barrier from its development, so as the child could be granted the possibility to perform everything individually according to its abilities. Her slogan was: „Help me work on my own!”

She believed that the child possesses the ability to construct its personality alone. She distinguished three periods of the child's development:

1. Age between 0–6:
  - a) Ages 0–3 the instinctual acceptance of sensual experiences
  - b) Ages 4–6: development of knowledge, the appearance of the self and of individual will;
2. Ages 7–12: „social embryo” – the period of „extroverted intelligence” (basics of scientific knowledge, social and moral openness);
3. Ages 12–18: „social babyhood”: (independent decisions, the need for defence and security, openness towards roles, truth and human dignity in adult society).

She imagined a „universal curriculum” applicable in the course of the educational process based on the phases of a child's development, the cultural contents of which contained knowledge of the evolution of life

and of culture on earth, and regarding the cosmic plan. Within the organizational pattern free work aimed at self-development was the main phase of the didactic- methodological process. She also found important the creation of a pedagogic space in which environment and tools adjusted to the child's needs provided the conditions for the child's active participation. „The activity thus designed is aimed at the creation of the possibility for the child to achieve ever autonomy of ever greater value and ambition for perfection through its hard work.” (Németh–Skiera 2003:118)

Among the most important methods we could mention the daily routine, the activities (rhythmic gymnastics, selenium), besides which the chief characteristic of the method was provided by the tools designed to help sensory abilities.

Maria Montessori managed to achieve recognition in her lifetime. In 1929 the International Montessori Association was founded. A new element of the development was education for peace and the design of cosmic education from the 1930s, and from the 1960s the development of further tools, as well as the development of secondary school.

#### *8.2.3.5. Adolphe Ferrière*

Adolphe Ferrière (1879–1960) a pedagogue of Swiss origin founded the „International Office of New School” in 1899, which provided the different institutions organized alongside different principles of reform pedagogy to communicate with each other.

Ferrière worked out the pedagogic concept of active school („école activ”), which contained the ideas of new pedagogic trends in reform pedagogy.

„The school, which is based upon child psychology, and addresses the individual in its entity: its emotional world, its reason and its will, in short can be called an active school”. (Ferrière in: Németh 1996: 76)

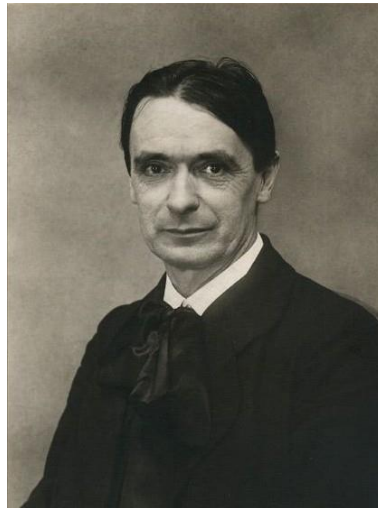
### **8.2.4 The second phase of reform pedagogy (1918–1945)**

The main characteristic of the second phase is that the reform of pedagogy assumes an international dimension that is the European setting is enlarged to America as well. Another new element of the period is the requirement to join the many different motives of child centered pedagogy into some sort of synthesis, and of the need to place the child into social frames in the course of its individual education. The representatives of the epoch; the Waldorf pedagogy, Freinet's pedagogy, the Dalton-plan, the Winnetka Plan and the Jena-plan.



#### 8.2.4.1. *The Waldorf pedagogy*

The founder of the Waldorf pedagogy was Rudolf Steiner (1861–1925) Austrian philosopher, writer, dramatist and teacher, who founded the Waldorf School for the children of the workers of the Waldorf Astoria factory in 1919.



Source: <http://www.rsarchive.org/Portrait.php?steiner-reitman-1915.jpg> downloaded in: 2014. 08.30.

*Illustration 17: Rudolf Steiner (1861–1925)*

The basis of Steiner's worldview is provided by anthroposophy. According to this view of this man is the reflection of the cosmos in which he progresses in it according to determined stages of development towards spiritual existence. He divides development into the following seven year-cycles:

- From birth to 7 years of age: the empirical interception of the world
- Ages 7 to 14 years: obedient following of examples
- Ages 14 to 21 years: the age of autonomy and rezoning
- Ages 21 to 28 years, the age of wisdom.

They accept the charma (the law of fate) and reincarnation (rebirth), the aim of education is to integrate the individual into the cosmic development, and help the individual acquire concrete knowledge to succeed in the „outer“ world. From the point of view of child anthropology

and psychological development man consists of four „bodies”, which develop along seven years rhythm cycles. They are as follows:

1. physical-
2. ether-
3. astral
4. 'self'- bodies.

Through these bodies man is interrelated with all that exists; the mineral world, the plants, the animal world, and the creatures of the spiritual world. The individuality of children is provided by the mixture of the four temperaments the choleric, the sanguine, the melancholic, and the phlegmatic.

The concept of learning is shaped by the development of the „bodies”:

1. Copying;
2. Following;
3. Factual thinking;
4. Self-development with the help of the self.

In the course of the learning process the teacher exercises influence upon the children through shaping his own personality, and of the environment, and by properly handling of the temperaments. The task of the teacher changes in accordance with the different phases, in the beginning he is an example, then an authority, following this performer of professional teaching and finally providing vocational training.

In the curriculum of the Waldorf School all traditional subjects are present by they have a specific antroposofical orientation. The arts, crafts, and practical knowledge have emphatic relevance in education. Children learn foreign languages and instrumental music from the first form. Characteristically peculiar subjects are eurhythmy, woodcarving and gardening.

Teaching of main subjects is performed in cycles of about four weeks, or epochs. The pupils write their own epochal exercise books, books are hardly used.

Organic-genetic learning is emphasized in the course of the process of teaching, that is, how do we get from the seeds to bread, or from a tree to a wooden tool. In schools form teachers teach the pupils from the first form up to the eighth form, after which the professional teachers of different subjects appear in the process. Marking does not exist in Waldorf schools; teachers write textual assessments and certificate poems.

In these schools the cooperation of the parents is very important. (Németh-Skiera 2003)

#### 8.2.4.2. Freinet's pedagogy

The French reform pedagogue and teacher Célestin Freinet (1896–1966) developed his pedagogic concept following the lung injury received in the war: „When in 1920 I returned from the great war, with my lungs injured, I was a hero with breathing difficulties, unable to speak for more than a few minutes during the lessons. With the help of different pedagogy I might have been able to continue my beloved profession in spite of my breathing difficulties. But teaching pupils, who- as their gaze clearly betrayed them- did not pay attention and did not understand what was going on, having to frequently interrupt the lesson to attention the daydreaming pupils and the naughty ones with the usual phrases: Could you please pay attention?... All this was a meaningless attempt in the suffocating atmosphere of the classroom, where they could sense my physiological abilities. Similarly to the drowning man who does not want to get under the water I was obliged to find a way to survive. For me this was a matter of life and death.”(Németh, 1998:89)

He opened the gates and took the children out into the environment where they could observe the craftsmen who were working, the animals and the plants. On their return to school from these walks they discussed their experiences and impressions; they wrote compositions and built them into their studies. He changed the interior design of the classroom and also changed the function of the teacher's desk. He moved it into the centre of the classroom, and the objects collected during their walks were deposited there, so it became a space for illustrations which could be surrounded, and can be touched by everybody. The classroom resembled a workshop; the position of the desks and chairs changed so as to suit the activities performed. Later he bought a manual printing machine, and they edited a newspaper publishing the composition of the pupils, which they delivered to neighbouring schools as well. Thus correspondence between schools started. Following this they edited the textbooks using the newspapers written by the pupils and broke with traditional textbooks.

The most important characteristics of Freinet's pedagogy are:

„Experimental searching”: is built on the natural curiosity of children. Transfer of knowledge is not an exclusive priority, the acquisition of the method of research, and of the way of thinking are more important.

Free self-expression: All children carry in themselves the embryo of their self's development. The task of the educator is to help it, to create the atmosphere needed for the child's free expression, help it express its thoughts and feelings. (Pukánszky–Németh 1996)

Valuable community life: Collectively performed work teaches cooperation and mutual help. The community accepts difference and allows individual peculiarities to succeed.

The Freinet techniques that can be used in contemporary pedagogical practice as well are:

1. Free self-expression
  2. Communication techniques
  3. Techniques for the study of the environment
  4. Techniques for the individualization of teaching
  5. Techniques of organizing and cooperative life.
- (Németh–Skiera 2003)

#### *8.2.4.3. The Dalton Plan*

The Dalton plan was created by the American reform pedagogue and teacher Helen Parkhurst (1886–1973).

Parkhurst was Montessori's student in Rome, and between 1915–18 she was her colleague and representative. She created her mixed school in Dalton, USA in 1920, so the scene of reform pedagogy was extended to America as well. She organized her school on the basis of popular basic principles of reform pedagogy like freedom, individuality, and collective spirit/of community. She discards frontal teaching on the basis that it does not observe the personal peculiarities, abilities, and the different rate of development of the emotional life of children. She dismissed/discarded traditional closed form structure, and thus failure to pass disappeared.

She transformed traditional classrooms into professional laboratories, she provided with equipment/tools e.g. professional literature, pictures, maps, models, experimental tools. Professional laboratories, like those of history, geography, natural sciences, mathematics were created this way.

During the educational process everything happened according to the rate of development and interest of the pupils. Each individual pupil received a test forms in all the subjects which contained the time allotted. The pupils reached an agreement with their teachers, and they assumed the responsibility of completing the task.

The pupils worked individually in the professional laboratories; the teachers were present and provided help to pupils who needed it. The teacher created the appropriate environment for the educational process and the exercises, acted as the guide and help of the pupils, encouraged them and acted as a professional authority in the laboratory. After having done their tasks the pupils could enrol for an exam, and if they passed it, they could require new tasks. All the pupils could progress according to

their own abilities to progress, and they could check their achievement on the basis of the chart of education.

The morning activity based on volunteer work was followed by team work like physical education, music, drawing, crafts, and activities at local authorities in the afternoon. (Németh-Skiera 2003)

#### *8.2.4.4. The Winnetka Plan*

The Winnetka plan can be linked to the name of Carleton W. Washburne (1889–1968), who did not establish an own school, but implemented his reforms in a suburb of Chicago called Winnetka.

Washburne divided the curriculum into two basic units:

1. The general knowledge and knowledge needed for the continuation of studies. They included writing, reading, calculating, geography, history, knowledge of industry, or economics.

The level of knowledge attainable by individual forms was stated, the pupils could acquire the prescribed knowledge individually or through team work, and the results obtained were assessed with the help of tests.

The other unit was constituted by creative work and team work where the forms of activity were selected in function of the personal interest of the pupils. Such form of activity included debates, discussions, participation in the autonomous school board and different clubs, drama circle, editing school newspaper, crafts, drawing, physical education, music etc.

The traditional leading and guide role of the teacher ceased in Washburne's school as well, the teacher becomes more of an organizer of the individual and team work, who provides advice and help for the pupils.

#### *8.2.4.5. The Jena Plan-pedagogy*

The school model of Peter Petersen (1884-1952) the German university teacher and reform pedagogue can be interpreted as the synthesis of the ambitions of reform pedagogy of the period. Petersen was the professor of Jena University since 1923, and he worked out the Jena Plan concept in the practising School of the university between 1924 and 1950 and he continued to perfect it in the coming years.

He developed group rooms designed to foster individual learning and children's discovery to replace traditionally designed classrooms. He broke with traditional form system and he divided his ten-year experimental school into four subgroups, in which he gathered more forms, of about 30 to 40 children:

- Junior group, pupils of forms 1 to 3 (7 to 9 years old).

- Middle group; pupils of forms 4 to 6 (10 to 12 years old).
- Senior group; pupils of forms 6 to 8 (12 to 14 years old)
- Youth group, pupils of forms 8/9 to 10 (14 to–16 years old).

Pupils were admitted to individual groups on the basis of their general maturity, the level of their education (physical development, behavioural patterns and culture, moral characteristics etc.).

Similarly to Parkhurst's school pupils do not have to repeat forms, they do not fail. Education is performed in the community for the benefit of the community and its aim is to transform the child's individuality into its collective personality of the pupil. (Németh 1996)

Instead of traditional timetables pupils had to study on the basis of a „rhythmical weekly routine.” Basic cultural forms are achieved in the form of various pedagogical situations; conversation, game, work, holydays. Similarly to earlier concepts the traditional role of the teacher disappears here as well, the pedagogue is the leader of the team and a member of the study group at the same time. New contents elements enrich education that is the child should be able to find its place in the world, and act in a creative way while it understands things, phenomena and itself.

The classroom becomes a school living room and workshop where different activities can be performed. Autonomous study is performed by numerous tools made available, project oriented educations exceeds the limits of traditional curriculum of specific subjects, learning is individual and is differentiated on the basis of the individual's needs and development, the implementation of the Freinet-techniques and the Montessori tools, and the integration of handicapped children are some of the characteristics of his plan. (Németh–Skiera 2003)

### **8.2.5 The third phase of reform pedagogy (1945–1989)**

The third phase is identified by many as alternative pedagogy, which is only partially true, because although alternative pedagogical trends emerged in this period, but they were created to meet the social expectations and needs formulated in the sixties and seventies. (For more information see chapter 9.) Variants of reform pedagogy are still present in Western Europe and in the USA in this period, and more and more people get acquainted with these trends, but they do not spread considerably in either of the two school systems.

### 8.3 SUMMARY, QUESTIONS

#### 8.3.1 Summary

The reform pedagogy movement which emerged in Europe in the 18th and 19th centuries attempted to radically change education and teaching. It broke with the curriculum centeredness of earlier schools, the one dimensional development of the intellect, and it placed the child, empirical perception and accumulation of experience, and the multilateral development of abilities was placed into its centre. In the first phase of reform pedagogy a number of basic views, aims, elements of contents, methods developed and in the second phase the ambition to offer a synthesis of the various trends appeared, and the setting of reform pedagogy exceeded the limits of Europe and started spreading in America as well the movement became global.

The different concepts of reform pedagogy did not replace public education, they only attempted to give answers to questions and needs to the given periods and societies. The fact that there are certain elements of preform pedagogy which are still present demonstrate the fact that it addressed important needs and expectations which are still valid in later periods as they exceed the social and economic needs of the periods in which they emerged and the produced deep pedagogical, didactic, methodological elements which grant heir long term importance.

#### 8.3.2 Self-assessment questions

1. Formulate the essence of reform pedagogy in your own words!
2. Enlist the historical periods of reform pedagogy and highlight an outstanding representative of the respective periods. Explain your choice!
3. View the films made in Hámori Waldorf School on Mestertanár Videoportál ([mestertanarvp.ektf.hu](http://mestertanarvp.ektf.hu)). Write an essay about the practical application of Waldorf pedagogy on the basis of these films.

#### 8.3.3 Practice tests

1. Mark the correct answer!

Reform pedagogy emerged in the

- a. 17th century
- b. 18th century
- c. **19th century**

2. Mark the earliest of the representative of reform pedagogy enlisted below!
  - a. **Cecile Reddie**
  - b. Maria Montessori
  - c. Peter Petersen
3. Is the following statement true or false!  
The views on pedagogy of Rousseau, Pestalozzi and Herbart influenced Montessori's views on pedagogy. T – **F**



## **9. LESSON: ALTERNATIVE PEDAGOGY**

### **9.1 AIMS AND COMPETENCIES**

The aim of the study material is to introduce the background of the development of alternative pedagogy, the alternative schools and their characteristics. The students will get acquainted with examples taken from the practice of Hungarian schools, and through this they will acquire knowledge concerning social processes and as well as processes between different groups, the functioning of democracy and self-culture. This will enable them to help the team members in developing sense of community and dedication to it, help them assume a responsible and active role in a democratic society, accept the universal and local human values, and furthermore they will become able to interpret and employ the social and cultural phenomena which influence the changes, their life in school and out of school. The unit will primarily support the students in developing techniques to help the formation of groups of pupils, or communities and their development as well as the development of the teachers' sense of autonomy and responsibility.

### **9.2 ALTERNATIVE PEDAGOGY**

#### **9.2.1 Definition of alternative schools**

Alternative schools are very often confused with reform pedagogy in everyday usage. Their roots can be traced back to it but the two terms should be interpreted in different periods and social contexts when we define them. It very often presupposes constructive pedagogical solutions, alternatives that are it aims at the positive solutions given to problems of public school system. In his attempt to offer a more complex frame of interpretation Brezsnyánszky (2004) is trying to approach the possibilities from more points of view. 1. In common usage it means the new, the different, the modern, and the progressive, the free but if we accept these definitions they also might mean the clearly better, the more updated as well which presupposes something which cannot always be demonstrated and fails to grasp the pedagogic essence of the problem. 2. From the point of view of funding, management it suggests that it refers to a school system which is not funded by the state, is not regular, is not dominant, and is not traditional. Brezsnyánszky considers that this context mainly emphasizes its independence from the system as opposed to freedom. 3. From a historical or chronological point of view the definition spread mainly in association with the schools and waves of

reform pedagogy. In reality schools created as the result of the expectations formulated by the civil needs voiced in pluralistic democracies in the 1960-s and 1970s were the ones that called themselves alternative schools. 4. From the ideological and programme critical point of view of pedagogy the term refers to not traditional schools which do not function on the basis of Herbart's spirit. Yet, this definition narrows the connotation of the term too much.

? What is alternative school in reality?

„Alternative school is a term which refers to different school models. This name is given to schools which in their aims, contents and mainly in their methods differ essentially from the institutions of education which could be called usual in a given area and period. The difference is a peculiarity of a scale which influences the (philosophy) of the whole programme, it can be interpreted as a self-reliant model. [...] the epithet *alternative* can be used for schools which offer a real variety of choices, genuine pedagogic possibilities of some difference, and models with alternative value to the teachers and pupils, and to the (public) educational system alike. They are not compulsorily definite counterparts of the others and there is no one single, exclusive alternative to given mass practice. They promise and offer different pedagogical alternative, different education, different school from the others. They might not be real counter models of the others, yet they might be real rivals as far as their pedagogical structure is concerned. They may be purports of future solutions (this generates much of the professional and pupil expectations), but they can serve limited training and educational interests, and can become professional dead end sass well.” (Brezsnyánszky 2003)

Németh – Pukánszky (1996) highlight the factz that alternative schools are heterogeneous group of institutions the pedagogical programmes, organizational frames of which differ and offer alternatives for different forms of mass public education.

Alternative schools do not usually follow a traditional trend, they are more likely to shape their pedagogic image individually, freely, in a creative and differ significantly from the images of other institutions of public education.

### **9.2.2 The emergence of alternative schools**

Németh – Pukánszky (1996) place the emergence of alternative schools in the third phase of development of reform pedagogy (1945-1989). Most of the European alternative school which is active today was created in the reform period of the sixties and seventies of the last

century and thus they were expressive of the characteristic ideological-intellectual trends of the period. Consequently quite heterogeneous elements can be observed in their theoretical background; equal rights, equal chances, liberal concept of education, psychoanalysis and humanistic psychology (Neill, Rogers), Ivan Tillich's ideas about de-schooling, as well as Gordon's conflict solving forms based on equal rights and cooperation can be found in it as well. Alternative school emerged in Europe in the seventies. Their different definitions reflected the peculiarities of the states in which they were established; in Germany they were called Free Schools (Freie Schulen), in Denmark they were called Small Schools (Lilleskoler), in Switzerland and Austria besides „free“, „alternative“ they also were called „active“, „democratic-creative“, or „cooperative“. (Pukánszky-Németh 1996)

Their emergence is explained on the basis of the massification of public education which imposed the need for other optional solutions, and alternatives. In the beginning those company and private schools called themselves free which had their own regulations and were functioning on the basis of their own pedagogical concepts.

In these cases school is most often is the free enterprise of parents, teachers, and children aimed at creative the life of their own school/institution according to their own ideas. „From the funder's point of view, in general, they are trying to find an alternative which provides greater freedom for their concept and practice of school which differs from mass education.“ (Brezsnyánszky 2004)

### **9.2.3 Characteristics of alternative schools**

Schools constructed upon concepts of alternative education differ enormously, yet there are shared characteristics which correspond in spite of different practices. Brezsnyánszky (2004) sees the similarities with respect to the following:

- In bourgeois democracies alternative schools are created and run by private groups, private persons, foundations, social institutions that is parents, pedagogues, churches etc.
- Very often these institutions are called into existence by local needs, for example the need to educate young people with problems, „pressure“ from or initiative of parents or teachers. Occasionally certain schools are created with the intention to test a certain programme that is they are created from „above“.
- The social composition of the pupils is mixed; there are schools who are aiming at this intentionally.

- Alternative schools are mainly primary or secondary institutions of education.
- As they are not meant to meet large scale needs, most of them have a small number of pupils. Their main attraction is individual handling of pupils' needs, and increased attention of the educators.
- Willing self-interpretation and ambition to express one.
- Besides the above in practice we may encounter a number of organizational and methodological elements, which are characteristic of alternative schools, like:
- Theoretically these schools have a complex foundation, that is, they achieve a certain pedagogical or psychological system of views, stated by a specialist, a researcher, a practising specialist and a group of pedagogues organized around him create it (e.g. The Programme of Transfer of Values and Development of Abilities)
- They work out their own curricula and special frame curricula.
- The period of training and education is longer compared to that of traditional schools.
- Multilateral development of abilities is emphatically important so they offer their pupils a wide repertoire of activities in order to honour this need.
- The ordering of the study material differs from school to school and this makes modular arrangement and project oriented education possible.
- Arrangement of the study periods in the epochal system also differs from the traditional ones (individual subjects are taught in continuous 3 to 4 weeks cycles) or education is organized in rhythmical weekly systems.
- It employs methods of organized learning in individual learning and group learning as well (projects, cooperative learning etc.).
- Instead of marking assessment of the pupils' achievements textual assessment is dominant in the case of each and every pupil.

#### **9.2.4 Alternative schools in Hungary**

In pluralistic democracies alternative schools emerged in the sixties and seventies of the last century, in Hungary their emergence can be dated to the turn of the eighties and nineties. In our country we can

speak about institutions which reach back to the traditions of reform pedagogy, and developed some sort of adaptive variant. Kemény Ferenc Sports Primary School in Eger is such an example (<http://kemeny-eger.sulinet.hu/>), as well as the Rogers School and Kindergarten of Budapest which is founded on the principles of Rogers (<http://www.rogersiskola.hu/>).

There are also alternative institutions which adapted their educational structure and alternative pedagogic concepts to the conditions and educational structures of Hungary. Such institutes are Treasure Hunter School founded by Márta Winkler in 1988 (<http://www.kincskereso-iskola.hu/>), the Lauder Javne Jewish Community Kindergarten, Primary School, Secondary School and Basic School of Music and Arts (<http://www.lauder.hu/>) founded by Gabriella Natonek, the schools associated with the name of József Zsolnai, the schools which belong to the Programme of Transfer of Values and Development of Abilities which have accredited curricula since 1996, and The Alternative Grammar School of Economics founded by György Horn in 1988 (AKG). We are going to introduce the two latter institutions in the next chapter.

### **9.2.5 The Programme of Transfer of Values and Development of Abilities (ÉKP)**

The programme of transfer of values and development of abilities was worked out by József Zsolnai and his team of researchers. The ÉKP is a programme which is integrated into the NAT (national curriculum) in the case of 1 or 2 forms.

The Programme of Transfer of Values and Development of Abilities, which is communications cantered and extended version of „Educational programme of language, literature and communication” (NYIK) is considered by professional literature (Csík 1994) to be the most developed and best described form of the Zsolnai programme, the setting of which was the The Experimental Primary School of Törökbálint (today Márton Bálint Primary and Secondary School).

A new research was initiated in 1981 under the leadership of József Zsolnai in the Education Research Institute, which started from the concept of the contemporary demand of social politics to compensate for cultural handicap of pupils and the development of talented pupils desired by the leaders of economic policy within schools. All these were expected to be handled as a unit which could be achieved with the help of the tools available to pedagogy. They wanted to define the potential role of the school in the development of abilities and talent. (Kiss 2002a)

It is an important aim to make the multilateral development of abilities available to everyone and schools should provide the setting for this.

Children should be offered the possibility to test their abilities in many areas and to allow them to develop their own interest.

The ÉKP is a whole day school, the arrangements of the education are adjusted to the „intellectual” state (spiritual) of the pupils (in the morning: mathematics, natural sciences, Hungarian language and literature, in the afternoon: subjects developing skills: puppeteering, folkdance, environmental and visual culture).

The programme provides wide areas of activity that is it teaches more subjects than a traditional school. Knowledge of man, religion, moral principles, philosophy, drama, history of arts and of visual culture, criticism of the fine arts, theatre, aesthetics of music, photography, media studies, flower design, the role of books and the use of books, folk dance, puppeteering etc. (Zsolnai 1995)

The subject programmes are interwoven with linguistic and visual communication. Contact culture has an emphatic role: well-articulated speech, high quality oral and written composition, respectful and tolerant behaviour. The programme has specific didactic tools, teaching programme, and pedagogy and since 1996 accredited curricula.

The programme of the ÉKP for forms 1-3 was declared an alternative programme in 1988, the programme for forms 4-6 was declared an alternative programme in 1991. The school programme of ÉKP for forms 1-12 which is adjusted to the national curriculum, its cultural areas and the general requirements of the teaching of cultural areas, following several testing and improvements, can be chosen by individual schools on an optional basis since 1986.

The programme reached its climax in the academic year 1995/96, when education was performed on the basis of the ÉKP programme in 104 schools. Following this year the withdrawal of the school network can be observed, mainly due to the approval of the National curriculum (NAT) and the introduction of the frame curriculum, which meant some sort of compulsory adaptation for the educational- teaching process, although the adaptation of the programmes to the various cultural areas was completed. As a result in 1998 65, while in the 2001/2002 academic year only 40 schools assumed the task of performing its educational- teaching activity in the spirit of this programme. (Kiss 2002b) – On the basis of the data provided by Éva Kiss on the academic year 2009/2010 only 25 institutions functioned on the basis of the ÉKP curriculum.

The Alternative Grammar School of Economics (AKG)

The institute founded in 1988 was the first foundation school of Hungary, and was created at the initiative of a team of pedagogues led by György Horn. In the beginning the elements the concept of AKG emerged from the critique of the contemporary school system. The aim of

the founders was the creation of a school which had independent programme, was uniform and independent from the state authorities and autonomous, which they wanted to base upon new financial support system and programme. (Bende 2006)

The Alternative Grammar School of Economics insists on the ideas of reform pedagogy of the 20th century not only in its name but also in its programme. In the interpretation of the institution alternative means that it regards sovereignty, autonomy, and uniqueness and intends to provide real alternatives for its pupils. To achieve this AKG is simultaneously a grammar school and a technical secondary school; the pupils can choose independent programmes and could start in different directions. AKG offers three directions of training, in the course of the seven year training it attempts to offer its pupils real alternatives. (Pedagogical Program: [www.akg.hu](http://www.akg.hu))

The general basic concept of the school: The child is not preparing for life but lives. AKG is an alternative school which insists on the present, on freedom, and concentrates on the individual. Its concept of present means that it insists on short term success, the joys of the respective day, it tries to dissolve the real problems and conflicts.

They gave up the tools which regulate an institution (e.g. index), and replaced it with the freedom of information, the free decision making of the pupil, the personal touch, material interest and interest taken in the educational process.

The programme of AKG is strongly connected to the reform pedagogy of the beginning of the century to the pedagogic alternatives; alternative values, norms and training to its pupils.

The training period of the institution: is 7 years which is divided into three phases. **1. The junior secondary school phase: from 7 to 10 forms**, this is the basic education, which offers general and uniform training, yet this phase is also characterized by practical problem centered approach, the epochal teaching, the projects, the differentiated forms of activity which nevertheless are prescribed for everybody and knowledge is acquired through forms predominantly characteristic of schools, are practice oriented, and rely on experience. Pupils do not get marks in this cycle, the pupils get written assessments. Education is organized in larger cultural areas, in the form of subject blocks:

- Mother tongue,
- Communication in foreign languages;
- Social sciences;
- Mathematics;
- Arts;

- Natural sciences;
- Practical subjects (computing, creative art activities, entrepreneurial activities, communication, methodology of learning, physical education).

**The second phase of the training is the language and communications phase, in the 11th form.** Besides the intensive teaching of the second foreign language (Spanish, French, German) the pupils are taught informatics, physical education, English level maintenance and development is carried on.

This cycle is closed down by individual annual projects. The third period is the senior secondary school phase **consisting of forms from 12 to 13**. In the grammar school the training is complete with alternatives and is closed down by a school leaving exam, and the specialized sciences appear autonomously in this phase. This phase is characterized by individual learning, individual timetables for the subjects and several levels of teaching in all the programmes. The pupils are given marks as the general aim is to guide them in their choice of career and preparation for the school leaving exam and entrance exams.

The possibilities and the regional characteristics of the school determine the circle of those who use this kind of school. Parents cover around one third of the expenses, and although the sum of the subsidy is differentiated, it is generally the families whose income exceeds the average and have higher social statuses choose this institute of education.

The premises of AKG are in Raktár Street in Old Buda; consequently it is mainly attractive for families who live in Buda or the residential areas surrounding Buda.

### **9.3 SUMMARY, QUESTIONS**

#### **9.3.1 Summary**

Schools organized on the basis of alternative pedagogical concepts emerged in pluralistic democracies in the sixties of the twentieth century and in our country they were established in the eighties and nineties. Although their pedagogy is rooted in reform pedagogy, and literature mentions them as belonging to its third phase, they do not follow individual trends of reform pedagogy, but they shape freely their different educational and teaching practice. New social expectations and demands which cannot be satisfied by public education are also needed to the creation of the alternative schools. Alternative schools are not designed to demonstrate what public education should be like; they offer



examples of how many kinds schools can be. As alternatives for public education they create the possibility for everyone to find the type of school which suits him or her. It should be noted that while in Western Europe alternative education can be achieved, in our country the current regulations limit the functioning and sustainability of non-traditional schools.

### 9.3.2 Self-assessment questions

1. How would you define alternative schools?
2. Highlight the shared characteristics of alternative schools!
3. Give examples of possibilities for the formation of alternative institutions!
4. How can the difference between reform and alternative schools grasped?
5. Give a detailed interpretation of the concept of alternative schools!

### 9.3.3 Practice tests

True or false? Mark the correct answer!

The concepts of alternative pedagogy and reform pedagogy are synonyms. T – **F**

In most cases, alternative schools are free enterprises of parents, teachers and children aimed at shaping the life of their school according to their demands. **T** – F

The theoretical background of alternative schools is heterogeneous and their roots can be traced back to reform pedagogy. **T** – F

- ✿ Download the latest Pedagogic Programme from the homepage of AKG ([www.akg.hu](http://www.akg.hu)). Look up the pedagogic tasks. Write a one page essay about the tasks, and reflect on the changing pedagogic roles. Upload your essay into the frame system.
- ✿ Choose a European country the official language of which you can speak. Look up the existing alternative schools of the respective country. Prepare a thought map to illustrate the interpretation of the concept given to alternative schools in that country.

- ✿ What possibilities does alternative ness creating public education? Debate the topic in the forum.
- ✿ Choose a Hungarian alternative school! Prepare a presentation on it and share it through the frame system.

### **3. Module: The society of the school**

## 10. LESSON: FAMILY AND SCHOOL

### 10.1 AIMS AND COMPETENCIES

The main aim of this unit is to introduce the relationship between family and school from an educational sociological perspective. To this aim the unit discusses the family as a social institution and a space for socializing. Another important aim of this unit is to demonstrate that the children of families with different socio-economic and cultural backgrounds undergo a long socializing phase which bears general and specific characteristics alike. With regards to general characteristics we are going to get acquainted with the functions of socialization, their different peculiarities generated by their respective social backgrounds, and their influence on school career. Another important aim is to demonstrate that the influences of social characteristics are not impossible to change, but on the contrary they can be transformed. If we apply the pedagogic practice observed in successful schools the success rate of handicapped children can also be increased. Naturally this imposes knowledge of family background and of the general characteristics of the pupil, as well as cultural openness and competence in supporting the pupil's learning.

### 10.2 FAMILY AND SCHOOL

#### 10.2.1 The family as social institution

We met basic definitions of sociology like social system, subsystem, or organization in the course of the previous lessons. We have to note that the above concepts basically design social institutions. Andorka (1997) emphasizes that the individual does not meet macro social structures in human societies, but the social institutions which link them.

*„Sociology calls the interrelated norms and values of some systems of accepted and related activities, which organize social life in such a fashion as to enable the members of the society to perform socially important functions social institutions. Such social institutions include: family, the educational system, the economic system (companies etc.) and the government, the political institutions. Occasionally religion is also included into this category.” (Andorka, 1997:351)*

This means that family, relatives and marriage also belong to the most important social institutions of different societies. Social institutions maintain/preserve historically fixed patterns of behaviour, behind which there are widely accepted norms and values. All institutionalized patterns

of behaviour are defended/protected through sanctions. In fact social institutions impersonate the different methods by way of which the members of the society perform certain activities. (Giddens 2003)

### **10.2.2 The family – basic terms**

In this subchapter we are going to get acquainted with social institutions and concepts of theoretical sociology which can help us interpret the concept of the family as a social institution on the basis of literature on sociology and of the sociology of education (Andorka 1997; Kozma 1999; Giddens 2003). We are going to get acquainted with concepts by the help of which we can describe family contacts/relationships.

Different approaches stress the idea that the family is a group of people who are linked through well-defined ties. This tie is generated by way of marriage, descent, or adoption.

In the case of the family the group means a small number of people, the members know each other personally, furthermore they are linked to the group through their entire personality, that is not only through their role in the organization. We can state then that *the family is a small group, an informal group* (that is it is regulated by personal relationships not by formal prescriptions), and at the same time it is a *primary group*, since the multilateral quality of the links presupposes participation involving the member's entire personality, and this means that groups of this kind are the primary territories of socialization. (Andorka 1997)

Giddens (2003) highlights, that the members of the family are linked by direct kinship which is created by way of marriage or descent. The latter is a sexual communion between two people accepted by the society, which at the same time links wider groups of relatives. Extended family ties include the *nuclear family*, which means the coexistence of a man and a woman bringing up children in a shared household. If three or more generations live together we are speaking about *extended family*. We are born into our family of origin, while we enter the biologically determined family.

### **10.2.3 The functions of the family**

The family shows changes not only in different cultures but also in different historical periods in terms of family ties and family functions. In the case of historical changes it is well known that the spreading of the nuclear family became common in the societies of the developed countries in the course of the 20th century, women go out to work or characteristically young families settled down at larger geographical

distance from their families of origin. It is also obvious that there were changes in family relationships and functions before the emergence of industrial societies.

Educational sociology (Kozma 1999) discusses the biological, economic and social functions when analysing the functions of the family. In the first one reproduction, that is the perpetuation of the population is stressed as well as the satisfaction of sexual demands, in the second one stress falls on consumption and production while in the case of the third one the handing over of social differences and socialization. It attracts attention to the change within the economic function, as the production function was more powerful, yet in our days the consumption function is the dominant one, as today we do not produce, but we buy the consumption goods. From the point of view of the analysis of the social structure the perpetuation of the social differences practically means the perpetuation of the social status of the family of origin, that is, the social position (status) of a pupil coming from a working class is the same as that of his family. The sociology of education, by virtue of its subject, pays emphatic attention to the socializing functions, we are going to discuss in details in the next subchapters.

The sociological approach to the changes of family functions (Andorka 1997) highlights the *functions of production, consumption, reproduction, the function of adult psyche, and the function of the children's socialization*. Earlier the family itself functioned as a production unit (for example as farmers), but consumption was present as well. In industrial societies the consumption of the household is more significant, but at the same time it should be observed that part of the family consumption exceeds the limits of the family (for example part of the /meals food). Maintenance of the population, the function of reproduction, basically happens in the family, but the number of birth outside the family is increasing. Certain social institutions assumed ever greater share in the psychic defence of adults and the socialization of children. We can mention here the mental hygienic... or the schools themselves.

#### **10.2.4 The family and socialization**

Socialization is the process in the course of which man learns the different required patterns of behaviour, and acquires the different values and norms, from early childhood to maturity and his personality is formed. (Andorka 1997; Kozma 1999; Giddens 2003) The process of socialization does not end when the individual reaches adulthood, it lasts through the cycle of one's life. The basic processes of socialization occur mainly in primary groups like the family and age groups, as well as in institutions like schools. These are called generically socializing

platforms. The media and the institutions and organizations belonging to the world of work can also be included in this group.

The sociological education approach highlights the importance of learning, especially that of the so called sociological learning as the engine of sociological process. According to Kozma (1999) social learning is a collocation of complicated human activities (so not a theory) in the course of which we learn the culture of the community as its members and which ensures the twofold efficiency of the process of socialization. That is it ensures the perpetuation/survival of (culture) the community on the one hand and for the new generation not to have to start the whole thing from the very beginning in its attempt to respond to natural and social challenges.

From among the ***socializing factors of the family***, from the perspective of sociological education (Kozma 1999) we have to take into account *childcare* as satisfying the physiological needs, the basis for biological development, as well as the creation of *the sense of safety* which serves as the basis for psychic development. *Teaching talking* will be important because the system of experience of family culture can be transmitted efficiently, while as the first interactive space introduces the child into the system of activities of the family. Naturally both of them also transmit patterns of behaviour, which can be directly observed in the *model securing* function. The first models importantly contribute to the development child's sense of identity, which can be attributed to the *identity creating* function.

### **10.2.5 Family socialization and school**

We are going to discuss the extremely complex system of relationships mentioned in the title of this subchapter partly in the present subchapter, partly in two further subchapters, through four emphatically stated themes on the basis of an overview of relevant professional literature. (Andorka 1997; Kozma 1999; Giddens 2003; Dr. Nagy – Keller – Mogyorósi – Tóth 2008) First we are going to take into account the consequences of the child's unsatisfactory early socialization with respect to the child's development, then the influence of the properly socialized family onto the school performance of the child. The third overview concerns the attitudes, aspirations of families with different social statuses towards schooling in unit 10.2.6., and in the fourth subunit, 10.2.7. We are going to discuss the importance of language usage/competence in the next subchapter.

The insufficiency of early socialization can have grave consequences which are adequately illustrated with life histories similar to that of Genie. The sociological analysis (Giddens 2003) points to the fact the

child who was barred from both the outside world and family interactions, did not get toys, nor love/affection, who was physically harmed up to the age of 13, did not learn to speak, did not develop the ability to move, did not become self-caring. The child's satisfactory human abilities did not develop even after a long period of rehabilitation while the child received proper affection. These support the thesis that social learning has a critical period, which if it passes without adequate effects causing socialization leading to learning, the shortcomings thus caused cannot be remedied in proper ways, that is the socialization process cannot be considered adequate. We can also state that our human abilities would be limited without long early socializing periods.

We also have to mention though that although extremely brutal situations of the kind we mentioned above rarely occur, life career records of child care programmes describe a number of situations where the most elementary needs of children concerning basic care are not satisfied within the family: for example the child is starving or does not get suitable medical assistance. These situations also invoke the possibility of emotional negligence.

From the point of view of the child's school career the consequences of inadequate socialization include the possibility of retarded general development, partnership problems, problems concerning the development of mental abilities, or the dysfunctions affecting linguistic performance.

While an inadequately socialized family means disadvantages in the school career of the child, a properly socialized family brings the child benefits and creates advantages. The well socialized family is an important component of success in school. A relevant characteristic of a properly socialized family is that it fulfils its function and it works properly. The question is what makes it function properly. Emotional links are equivocal in this respect. Social education is impregnated with the emotional link which develops in the course of care. This means that if we provided purely improved conditions of healthcare or nutrition in a compulsory boarding school/residential institution, children coming from poor but properly socialized families would run home, because personal links based on love/emotional links cannot be substituted by anything else.

#### **10.2.6 Differences linked to attitudes regarding social status and schooling**

We may encounter relevant differences and inequalities between the well socialized families with regards to their social and cultural situation. These are expressed in the social positions occupied by the families, that



is their community membership (e.g. differences generated by their indebtedness to ethnic, national, religious groups) and their social statuses. The unevenness of social statuses can be seen in the division of the empirical status resources, which gradually select society, and makes the description of class and level categories, like classes and layers describable. These are resources of statuses like income, schooling, power or fortune. (Mogyorósi 2009) We regard the resources of statuses/ status resources dimensions of inequality on the basis of the logic of empirical sociological analyses. The social status of a family can be also expressed in the form of a complex index is, similar to the one expressed by the socioeconomic status (English abbreviation: SES). (For more on SES and the question of family education see: [http://www.ektf.hu/hefoppalyazat/nevtarsal/csaldi\\_nevels\\_szocializci.html](http://www.ektf.hu/hefoppalyazat/nevtarsal/csaldi_nevels_szocializci.html))

It is a socio historical fact which can be supported by data gathered from the beginning of the twentieth century that children of families holding higher social statuses obtain ever higher degrees generation after generation by descent, and they attend schools which have greater prestige as opposed with children of families which have lower social statuses. (Andor – Liskó 2000) We could say that family tradition, culture predestines them to this. The conditions which determine life conditions also have great relevance as the expenses of schooling exceed the financial potential of families with lower social statuses manifold. That is it is not only that parents with lower degrees would not like their children pursue higher educational standards than their own. On the contrary, they would like them to achieve more. (See: *A target always has to be reached. 3. Mozgókép: 15\_10\_V01*) – Mihály Andor and Ilona Liskó (2000) demonstrate the extension of the above phenomenon on the basis of their research.

Yet the real question is whether it is the influence of the cultural components of the family or its financial potential that is greater as far as the further education of the child is concerned. The results show that the influence of culture is greater. This is so as the aspirations of the child with respect to further education and its choice of secondary school it is the parents' towards school and knowledge, their orientation that have a decisive role. Parents with lower education grades consider getting a job important. They think that the child can go on with its studies following the successful school leaving exam, but they consider it important that the child should get a skilled work. In the case of the parents with degrees obtained in higher education it is, the chances of further education and the quantity and quality of the knowledge that can be accumulated that play a decisive role. These orientations are complemented by the knowledge of how the acquired knowledge can be

increased with the help of out of school activities, and they are further imbedded into the value system which adjusts the consumption of the family to the needs of enriching the cultural capital of the family. (Andor – Liskó 2000)

The accumulated cultural capital presents itself in a positive sense in schooling (as further accumulation of cultural capital), employment positions and social statuses. – For more on cultural capital and its forms see:

[http://www.ektf.hu/hefoppalyazat/nevtars/6\\_lecke\\_gazdasgi\\_tke\\_kulturlis\\_tke\\_trsadalmi\\_tke\\_s\\_az\\_oktats.html](http://www.ektf.hu/hefoppalyazat/nevtars/6_lecke_gazdasgi_tke_kulturlis_tke_trsadalmi_tke_s_az_oktats.html)

### **10.2.7 Linguistic socialization and success at school**

Within the socializing functions of the family teaching the art of speaking is emphatically important, because it can transfer the system of experiences of the family efficiently and thus it can speed up the process of social learning. In fact in the course of language learning we learn a language and the usage of a language, which transfers and expresses family culture. Our knowledge and abilities linked to language help us or perhaps limit us in our schooling career and success. Our speech is an important element of output cultural capital. If our usage of language, the form of language we use displays middle class characteristics we have greater chances of success in school.

Basil Bernstein pointed to the specific relationship which exists between language socialization, linguistic abilities and success at school in his theory describing complete and limited codes and forms of speech, according to which the use of different codes exercises influence on our performance at school. (Andorka 1997; Giddens 2003)

According to Bernstein children coming from different cultural backgrounds use different form of speech. The speech of children coming from lower classes, poor families is characterized by a limited number of codes. They employ language depending on the given contexts that is on the basis of presuppositions which imply that the audience knows the situation and its antecedents. They do not express linguistically the things they consider natural. Language, for them, is rather a means of expressing or interpreting experiences, than abstract thoughts, processes or relationships. In education reward and punishment are important, but their interpretations and additional explanations are missing. The fully fledged code does not require knowledge of preconditions or knowledge of the situation, as they express them by way of language, that is the mode of speech is independent from the context. This form of speech helps the development of abstract thinking, as it is suitable for interpretation, and

the revelation of abstract thoughts. This is an element of cultural capital characteristic of middle class families or families belonging to higher social positions. School favours this form of speech and the culture behind it, as it employs the same cultural code as well. Pupils who use a more limited code which belongs to a lower status have difficulties in adjusting to it, as their usage of the language clashes with the requirements of formal theoretical education. (Giddens 2003)

Giddens (2003) uses Bernstein's theory to demonstrate the way in which characteristics generated by limited codes reduce children's chances of success at school:

- „1. The child is likely to get only limited answers to its questions, and as a result it is less well informed and less interested in the world at large, than children who acquire/receive well outplayed codes.*
- 2. The impersonal abstract language used in school and the acceptance of the basic elements of school discipline may cause problems for the child.*
- 3. The child is likely not to understand quite a lot of the teacher's explanation as they are in a linguistic form different from what it is used to. The child might try to solve the problem by translating the language used by the teacher to the language it knows – but by doing this it loses sight of the concepts the teacher is trying to teach the pupil.*
- 4. Although the child can learn by heart different things without greater difficulties, generalization or conceptual differences required by abstraction pose extreme difficulties to the pupil.”*  
*(Giddens, 2003:417)*

Family background – that is the qualitative characteristics of the processes of socialization, the peculiarities of family culture, the social status of the family – is a crucial factor from the point of view of the pupil's success at school, but it is not the only one. As we have already seen it, analyses drew our attention to the fact that the activity of the pedagogues and of the leaders of the school has a decisive role in the measured achievement of the pupils at school. That is, it is possible to increase the success of the pupils at school with the help of efficient institutional and pedagogic activities, and thus the pupil's progress in the educational system so that the pupil can obtain the desired qualifications. If we abstract from family background this efficiency can be achieved if we increase the learning efficiency of each pupil that is if we increase school efficiency. This professional activity presupposes the adjustment

of educational and teaching processes to our knowledge of the pupil's family background, and of the pupil's individual characteristics.

### **10.3 SUMMARY, QUESTIONS**

#### **10.3.1 Summary**

In this unit we introduced the family as a basic social institution, its characteristics as a group, the basic form of family relationships and the changing historical and cultural functions of the family. We got acquainted with the whatness of socialization, the results of socialization, and the socializing functions of the family. We noticed qualitative differences between early socialization process and childhood socialization are possible: we mentioned cases of unsatisfactory, defective and good socialization. The complex activities of social learning, vary due to the differences in family culture and characteristics of individual personality, consequently the socializing process also possesses unique peculiarities besides the general characteristics. Yet, there are some general relationships which cannot be ignored.

Social positions shows the place of the family occupied in society on the basis of the parents' occupation, the parents' education, place of living and their income. These mark the social position of the family, or in other words its social status. Other elements, like the ethnic or religious origins can also be linked to the social position of the family. The characteristics enable us to give a description of the socio-economic and cultural characteristics. Among other things what relevant differences, which determine the school career of the pupil, are possible on the basis of social positions in the sociological functions of the family. We could see this in the process of acquisition of language skills, schooling, attitude towards knowledge, and the tools of increasing cultural capital. Thus it is obvious that pupils with different family backgrounds can be advantaged or handicapped as far as their efficiency at school is concerned, because school itself assumes the value system of middle class, or higher position families with respect to knowledge, learning and the consumption of its theoretical knowledge can be digested with the help the adequate code.

Yet the weaker results of the handicapped child coming from a family of lower social status (position) its lack of success at school is not a consequence of its social position which cannot be changed. An efficient school presupposes the increase of efficiency and chances of success of handicapped pupils. The key character in this is the pedagogue, who by employing its professional competencies can achieve the increase of

pupil efficiency, irrespective of the social economic and cultural background of the pupil.

### **10.3.2 Self-assessment questions**

1. What does the concept social institution mean, and what important social institutions could you enumerate?
2. Introduce the most important functions of the family; speak in details about its socializing functions!
3. What does the concept of social position show, and by the help of what indices?
4. Why could the pupils coming from families with lower social position be handicapped in school?

### 10.3.3 Practice tests

True or false? Decide about the following statements!

Dimension of inequality like income or standard of education express the inequalities between social statuses. **T**–F

Belonging to a religion or a nationality are sources of status that is they are dimensions of inequality. T – **F**

Among the forms of cultural capital we can mention the incorporated, institutionalized and the materialized cultural capital. **T**– F

## **11. LESSON: INEQUALITIES IN EDUCATION – THE FAIRNESS OF EDUCATION**

### **11.1 AIMS AND COMPETENCIES**

The main aim of the unit is to identify the inequalities of education in different phases of the educational system, to reveal the factors which play a role in the emergence of inequalities, the presentation of the different areas of inequalities in education, as well as the relationships between educational inequalities and to help understand the relationships of the efficiency of the educational system, and the influence of education on economy and social welfare. It is an important aim to grasp the sense of the concept of fairness, as well as the presentation of the practical profit of fair education, and to increase sensibility/awareness of quality and fair educational practices.

### **11.2 EDUCATIONAL INEQUALITIES – THE FAIRNESS OF EDUCATION**

#### **11.2.1 Social inequality – social system**

It is a well-known fact supported by everyday experience that we encounter relevant inequalities in human societies. Sociology discusses the dimension of inequality like income, fortune, working conditions, health, cultural education, living conditions, free time, which are expressive of the inequalities existing among social positions. (Andorka 1997) Although we can assume the inequalities among different social positions on the basis of some dimensions, but the equality of chances – that is the fact that everybody has equal chances of getting in more advantageous positions, does not exist in reality, as even in the simplest societies the social positions form a hierarchic system. The members of the new generation enter society in a given point of the system of hierarchy; consequently they possess greater or smaller chances of acquiring the limited number of resources needed for getting certain positions. That is we can speak about the inequality of chances in societies. On the basis of the above societies can be regarded systems of inequality. (Mogyorósi 2009) The educational system is a social subsystem, its institutions have/possess social and economic rootedness, and thus social inequalities affect them. It also can be observed that the more layered and ethnically organized a society is, the

more difficult it is for its educational system to compensate for the existing inequalities. (Keller – Mártonfi 2006)

### **11.2.2 Understanding/interpretation of educational inequalities**

Educational inequalities can be primarily grasped and measured if we approach it from the point of view of the availability of the educational services, pupil achievement (knowledge, competencies) and progress in the educational system (chances of participation in further education. Decreasing the educational inequalities became an important question which exceeds the limits of educational policy in the developed countries, because international research had equivocally revealed the relationship between the competitiveness of different societies and inequalities. On the basis of relationships it can be stated that, the smaller the differences in measured pupil achievement of socially advantaged and handicapped pupils are the greater the economic achievement of the given country is. Behind this we can identify the good quality services provided by the educational system which are available for everybody. (Keller – Mártonfi 2006) From a socio political point of view it should not be ignored that higher level of education is accompanied by better quality life. According to Györgyi and Köpatakiné (2011) the above are also supported by Hungarian research, but at the same time they point out with regards to the ideas of educational policy regarding presupposed lack of skilled workers, that although social demand and the demand of the labour market are aimed at higher degrees of education, the concepts of the given policy, its financial and power-centered interests might outweigh these demands and interests.

We approached inequalities on the basis of input (availability), of the progress (learning achievement, progress/career), but due to its social economic interrelatedness we should approach it from the point of view of output (degrees obtained) as well.

### **11.2.3 Pupil achievement – selection, segregation**

The socially defined (layer specific) division of availability, pupils' achievement, progress and grades obtained, that is the educational inequalities of social origin were well known earlier through researches of educational sociology. (Andor – Liskó 2000; Gázsó 1976; Gázsó – Laki 2004; Kozma 1975) The unfavourable results of the 2000 PISA tests generated new attempts to describe educational inequalities. From this point on the increase of inequalities in education established itself as a challenge for educational policy, and the political elite. It became



equivocal that the differences resulting from the strong selection procedures increase the initial differences measured with regards to the achievement of the pupils. The description and research of the selection mechanisms and the phenomena of segregation became central. Selection virtually means choosing the best students, a process which is always more or less emphatically present in school systems, but segregation is characteristic mainly in less solidary societies. The latter means the isolation of certain social groups and their separated education. (Keller – Mártonfi 2006)

Research shows that it is mainly the Roma minority that is hit by segregation. Low level of solidarity, free choice of school, unemployment is in the background of isolation, and the education thus achieved is always of a very low quality. (Havas – Kemény – Liskó 2002; Havas – Liskó 2005; Kertesi – Kézdi 2005) Results of later PISA surveys (for PISA see: illustration 18) also supported the idea that social background is a decisive factor in the pupils' choice of school, and differences stemming from selections of schools are decisive for the results of the pupils. (Györgyi – Köpatakiné 2011) The fact that the success of the school can be stated on the basis of the pupils' results, that is, in our country the great differences among schools spoil the achievement of the system on the basis of the rates.

PISA 2012 information- Characteristics and results (Ministry of Education  
[http://www.oktatas.hu/koznevelas/meresek/pisa/pisa\\_2012\\_meres](http://www.oktatas.hu/koznevelas/meresek/pisa/pisa_2012_meres))

#### What is PISA

It is a word from the initials of Programme for International Student Assessment, a series of assessments launched in 2000 by OECD an organization of the most developed countries of the world, of which Hungary has been a member since 1996. The survey is carried out once in three years.

#### What does PISA assess?

PISA assesses practical knowledge, it examines the extent to which fifteen years old pupils can use their knowledge in solving real life situations and to what extent is their capacity influenced by the background of the pupils and that of their school. The main areas of assessment are reading literacy, applied mathematics and applied natural sciences, from among which one always receives greater emphasis, the other two get less emphasis. Both in 2003 and in 2012 Besides the results enlisted above PISA is able to produce a mathematics was the more relevant area comprehensive multidimensional description and diagnosis of a assessed. PISA

#### What is PISA assessment good for?

PISA publishes valid comparative data regarding some relevant aspects of the given educational systems, like

- Success: to what extent do children understand what they are reading, and to what extent can they recognize and solve mathematical problems and problems related to natural sciences
- Efficiency: how much is the investment into education of given states and what are the results like as compared to this.
- Equity/fairness: the extent of the differences in results between different groups (for example boys and girls, pupils with better or weaker family background) ; do the members of the different groups get appropriate access to learning opportunities and resources?

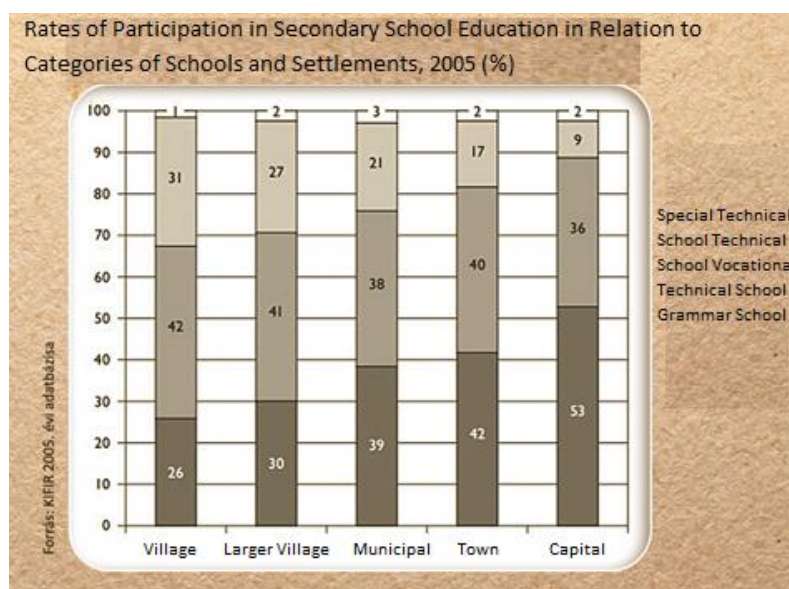
#### *Illustrations 18: PISA – surveys*

#### 11.2.4 The examined areas of inequalities in education

Educational inequalities can be sharply demonstrated through the learning achievements of the pupils. Competence assessments are telling in this respect. Traditionally the examined areas of educational inequalities include the *settlement, differences between genders, between institutions and training programmes, involving roma pupils*, and inequalities which can be described on *individual* differences. (Cs. Czachesz – Radó 2003; Keller – Mártonfi 2006; Györgyi – Kőpatakiné 2011)

Local inequalities can be read from the progress of the pupils, for example a greater rate of children coming from smaller settlements attends vocational secondary schools than grammar schools, while the situation is the opposite in the case of town dwellers. (See: illustration 19) Analysis of knowledge helps us differentiate the picture. The 2009 National Competence Survey (OKM) shows, that the differences in efficiency between pupils from the capital and those coming from municipal towns are smaller than the differences between pupils coming from villages and pupils coming from towns, or the differences between pupils coming from provincial towns and those coming from municipal towns. There are relevant differences between the different regions of the country though due to the fact that, the worst results of pupils from regions which perform well are much better than the worst results of the smaller regions which perform weakly. In the meantime the differences between smaller regions which perform weakly are small. (Györgyi – Kőpatakiné 2011)

Keller and Mártonfi (2006) point out that the problems of educational inequality are shifting from girls to boys; the historical disadvantages affecting women have been abolished. The PISA – examinations /surveys show the differences between boys and girls to be much smaller than the ones experienced in other countries. Latest results show that girls are better in text interpretation while boys perform better in mathematics, and the differences are greater in senior forms. Girls characteristically continue their studies in grammar schools and higher education, and their number is greater in both institutions of education, but as far as the rate of accepted applicants to higher education the boys exceed them in number. (Györgyi – Kőpatakiné 2011)



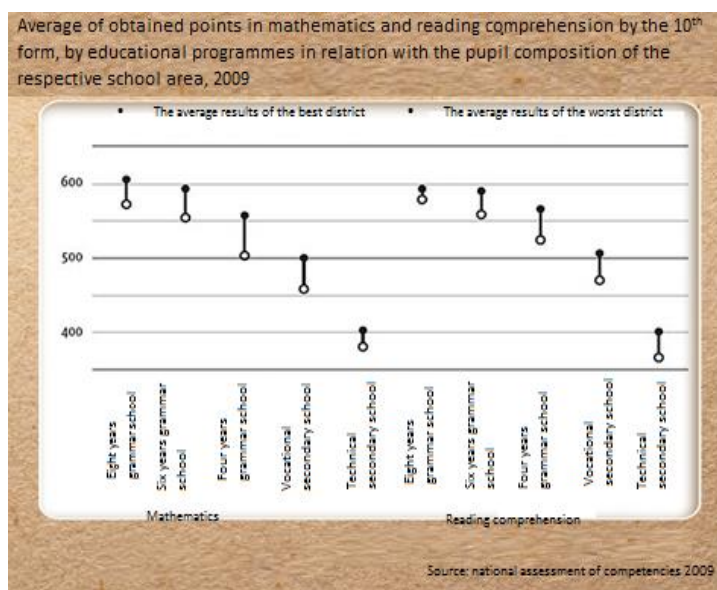
*Illustration 19: The unevenness of further process by areas*

### 11.2.5 Inequalities related to institution and programme

On the basis of the differences in achievement the technical secondary school is the weakest type of school as far as efficiency is concerned in the Hungarian system of education. If we examine the social background of students who attend this form of education we are confronted with the spectacular influence of social inequalities. A great number of pupils attending this school are from families who live in deep poverty. Many pupils commute to school from villages, and they got to these schools by compulsion, and they do not learn what they would have liked to. Their learning motivation is low, and success in learning is rare. (Keller – Mártonfi 2006)

The data of the OKM surveys show that the pupils of grammar schools, especially of those which changed their structure to six or eight years performed the best in mathematics and reading comprehension. The results of the pupils who attend vocational secondary schools are weaker, and the handicap of the pupils who attend technical secondary schools is really great. From the point of view of better achievements the pupils of vocational secondary schools with the best social background (parents with higher education) lag behind the average results of the grammar school pupils who have the most unfavourable social background (parents with lower level of education). This signals the great

differences between the different institutions of secondary school education, and there are relevant differences not only between the institutions but between their respective educational programmes as well. In the background we can identify the achievement dependent selection of the programmes, and as a consequence, homogeneous types of training are created as far as achievement is concerned. Such are the eight or six form grammar schools as opposed to the four forms grammar schools with weaker achievement data. (See: illustration 20) It can be observed that grammar school programme still prepares pupils for further education through extremely strong selection process. The rate of students admitted by higher education having school leaving exams from grammar schools increased after two thousand. (Györgyi – Köpatakiné 2011)



*Illustration 20: Differences within programmes*

### 11.2.6 Inequalities which affect roma pupils

In the first decades of the twenty first century graduating from basic schools and continuation of studies in the secondary school became essentially general among romas. Thetis educational expansion reached this extremely heterogeneous social group as well. (See:

[http://www.ektf.hu/hefoppalyazat/nevtars/2\\_lecke\\_oktatsi\\_expanzi.html](http://www.ektf.hu/hefoppalyazat/nevtars/2_lecke_oktatsi_expanzi.html))

The characteristic aim of continuing their studies is obtaining a certificate

in a craft; the accessible type of institution is the technical secondary school. At the same time it became clear around the turn of the centuries that most of the romas in the capital continue their studies in technical secondary schools and more than 10 per cent in grammar schools. It is also true that around 2 per cent of the young roma could appear in institutions of higher education at the time. (Keller – Mártonfi 2006)

The results of the research point out segregation as the structural cause for the inequalities (low achievement of pupils, inequalities regarding the continuation of their studies and low output) which is accompanied by the low standard of education. (Havas – Liskó 2005; Kertesi – Kézdi 2005) Public attitude provided little support to integrated (co)education although it is reasonable both from a social point of view and as far as the aims of the educational system are concerned. (Keller – Mártonfi 2006)

The results of the OKM surveys show the weak achievement of roma pupils in the 8th form in reading comprehension and mathematics, yet school leaving in secondary school education (primarily in technical secondary schools) is not so much the result of the above as the result of absenteeism. Roma parents expect their children to obtain a skill if they continue their studies, but more than half of these parents expect their children to go on in higher education. Simultaneously with the increase of number of roma pupils who apply for admittance to grammar schools the increase in number of those who are refused is also increasing, only eight per cent of the roma applicants are accepted, in comparison with the 28 per cent of non roma pupils admitted. (Györgyi – Kőpatakiné 2011)

#### **11.2.7 Individual differences – special needs/expectations**

In the following subchapter we are going to mention two groups of pupils, pupils with special needs and talented pupils. The problems related to these pupils can be explained through the fact that individual centered education is not characteristic of our educational system, while special needs are emerging from both the pupils who are faster on the uptake and those who are slower. Those who are slower are mainly pupils with special needs of education. On the basis of the law concerning public education, pupils who were diagnosed with different forms of defects or psychic problems of development can be enlisted among pupils with special needs on the recommendation of a board of specialists. Earlier the concept was interpreted more widely, and made possible the confusion of social and organic deficiencies in abilities. The real problem was though that there was a tendency of directing the handicapped pupils, who were mainly roma to forms or institutions of

medical pedagogy. Due to administrative regulations this discriminative practice strengthening the process of segregation decreased. At the same time the work of the professional boards slowed down, and as a result over the age children appeared in kindergartens. This might mean that children who really need help do not get early development support. (Györgyi – Köpatakiné 2011)

Similarly talented pupils are a challenge for the educational system. According to Neuwirth's (2006) data only 5-6% of the schools are really able to educate their excellent pupils. At the same time handicapped pupils are in danger of falling out exactly due to the pressure of selection and segregation we discussed earlier, as they can get on compulsory career, or into institutions which offer lower standard education.

### **11.2.8 The fairness of education**

Reducing the inequalities in education got an important role not only in literature, but also in the educational policies of the developed countries by the end of the 20th century. Behind this phenomenon we can identify the recognition that educational systems which observe the individual educational needs of pupils, which provide quality education, are not simply more fair, but they are more supportive of economic development. Yet, to develop such educational systems basic principles, equal accessibility, or equal approach are not sufficient in themselves. There is need for *fairness* that is for the *basic principle of equity*. (Keller – Mártonfi 2006) Neither equal accessibility of education nor identical attitude applied in the educational process can prevent the reproduction of social inequalities in education. It is only the principle of fairness and equity that can help us try and find an answer to the question what could be done in order increase the abilities, learning achievement, efficiency in education, and schooling of those who are hit by inequalities of education be improved.

The OECD stresses on the basis of international expertise that *the best systems of education are the ones where equity and quality education go hand in hand*. The reason for this is that such schools decrease school frustration, strengthens the capacity of societies and individuals to answer the recession, to contribute to the growth of economy and to the welfare of the society. The most profitable educational policy is the one which invests in quality education and equal chances, accessibility at least to the level of secondary school education or even better in higher education. Furthermore, where the pupils with difficulties in lower levels get the adequate help and guiding in time, because thus they are more likely to obtain their grades in spite of different family problems and social background. It should not be

forgotten that pupils who are enriched by school experiences are more likely to remain in the educational system and later join the labour market. (OECD 2012)

### **11.2.9 Attempts at reducing inequalities in education**

In this subchapter we are going to present some of the major attempts to reduce inequality in education on the basis of Györgyi and Kőpatakiné's (2011) summary of the topic. – Undoubtedly the introduction of competence based education, the wider range of roma education model programmes, as well as the alternative and reform pedagogies, and the school innovations could be interpreted within this frame as well.

In the first decade of the century one of the most powerful attempts was the reduction of the school segregation of the multiply handicapped pupils. Because of the reorganization of the schools and the inadequate legislative regulations of schools it is difficult to assess the efficiency of these ambitions, but one of its visible results is that ghetto schools were pulled down in more cities/larger towns. The background of this success we can identify the transformations of local educational systems and process of pedagogical development from which all social layers could profit. Yet, the tools of educational policy were complemented by employment and social political tools.

From among the programmes which are successful within individual schools we have to highlight the introduction of the Integrated Pedagogy System (IPR). On the basis of the results of the research compared to the results of the control group the results of the pupils belonging to handicapped and not handicapped categories improved, furthermore the handicapped managed to catch up to some extent. The training of the pedagogues for the introduction of the IPR was also achieved. Nearly nine thousand pedagogues took part in the more than eight hundred trainings.

The Arany János Tehetséggondozó Program (Arany János Talent Development Programme) deals with young people coming from handicapped smaller settlements in the form of grammar school groups, and quite successfully. The pupils who participate in the programme have greater chances of being admitted to higher education.

From among the institutions admittedly aimed at educating roma pupils we have to mention Gandhi Grammar School in Pécs, because their pupils continue their studies in institutes of higher education in great numbers, as well as the Kalyi Jag minority technical school, where the multiply handicapped roma pupils can get a craft. (Györgyi – Kőpatakiné 2011)

### 11.3 SUMMARY, QUESTIONS

#### 11.3.1 Summary

Social inequality characteristic of human societies can be seen in the educational system, in the world of schools, as well. The inequalities identifiable here can be interpreted in the input, the availability of schools and educational services, school achievement, and progress through the different levels of the educational system, that is the process itself and the grades which are obtained at the output, the end of the school years. The greater differences we find in the data obtained when we examine the above mentioned sections with regards to different pupil groups, the greater differences we can identify in the educational system.

Among the causes of structural inequalities of the national economy we can mention segregation and strong selection, but it is obvious that the quality of education is among the factors causing it. The areas or dimensions of educational inequality which can be described include *local differences, differences among genders, differences in institutional and training programmes, differences affecting roma pupils*, as well as *individual differences*.

Greater inequalities weaken the efficiency of the educational system, its international competitiveness, and demonstrate that the system is struggling with problems. It is only education which provides high quality services can contribute significantly to the growth of economy and the welfare of society. Equity is one of the characteristics of high quality educational systems that are they are fair.

Equity is not merely one of the basic concepts of social fairness, but it is a real educational practice which reduces school frustration through quality services, strengthens the abilities of the individual and of the societies, provides equal accessibility to secondary or even to higher education. One of the characteristics of Fair/ equitable education is that the school experiences acquired in school compensate for the effects of the respective unfavourable social background, and increases progress in schooling career, and the chances of success on the labour market.

Unfortunately we have to admit that in an international context – in spite of the fact that the 2009 PISA researches state that we achieved progress as far as pupil achievement is concerned, the Hungarian educational system in spite of all its attempts is the least fair/equitable from among the OECD member countries examined/surveyed. (OECD 2012) – By now we also know that the results of Hungarian pupils deteriorated according to the results of the 2012 survey.



### 11.3.2 Self-assessment questions

1. What is the difference between the concepts of selection and segregation?
2. Enumerate the traditionally examined areas of educational inequalities, and describe phenomena characteristic of the respective dimensions!
3. How can the basic concepts of equal accessibility, equal treatment, and equity/fairness be interpreted?
4. How does equity/fairness as a characteristic educational practice influence the achievement of the educational system? Why?

### 11.3.3 Practice tests

True or false? Decide about the following statements!

Religious and ethnic roots are dimensions of inequality. T – **F**

On the basis of international surveys we can assert that educational institutions which educate pupils who are slower on the uptake are taught separately from those who are fast on the uptake are the most efficient ones. T – **F**

In the schools which introduced the Integrated Pedagogical System (IPR) the achievement of handicapped pupils improved, while the achievements of the non-handicapped pupils did not change. **T** – F

## **12. LESSON: MULTICULTURAL SCHOOLS**

### **12.1 AIMS AND COMPETENCIES**

The main aim of this unit is to introduce the characteristics of the multicultural school and multicultural education, and to chart the profile of the pedagogues providing multicultural education. It is also an important aim of this chapter to search for an adequate educational answer to the problems created for multicultural education and schools which face the increasing heterogeneity of different societies, the presentation of other relationships, problems, and concepts related to this area of education.

### **12.2 THE MULTICULTURAL SCHOOL**

#### **12.2.1 The conceptual definition of the multicultural education**

When we hear that a school is multicultural we can think of the possibility that the representatives of many cultures meet there, or that the institution pursues multicultural education to a certain extent. The former is really expressive of the multicultural quality that is the presence of multiculturalism of the society in schools, which does not compulsorily go hand in hand with the application into practice of the multicultural educational approach. The latter indicates that a multicultural school pursues multicultural education. In this chapter we are going to discuss the multicultural school through the latter approach. This also means that we cannot avoid the conceptual definition of multicultural education, its brief presentation, and the interpretation of its relationships to some educational questions/problems.

On the basis of the study of conceptual definitions of Hungarian literature (Forray – Hegedűs 2003; Kovács 1997; Czachesz 1997; Karlovitz 2006; Torgyik 2008) we can state that in pedagogy multicultural education is often considered identical with intercultural education. At the same time we have to remember that the concept of intercultural education was more widespread in Europe earlier, and it referred to those educational (educational policy and pedagogical) ambitions, which were meant to prevent the assimilation of the immigrant minorities parallel with help provided for their integration. The usage of the concept of multicultural education is originally and American characteristic of pedagogy and is linked to Afro-American civil rights movement. In the sixties and seventies we witnessed the spreading of the concept in England, and following the turn of millennia the concept appears in EU

programmes as well. With respect to its contents definitions describe multicultural education as a strategy or conception, or a set of pedagogical tools which aids the school and social integration of pupils who are in minority situations. The concept also appears as a kind of pedagogic view which the whole activity of the school, and supports ambitions aimed at integration. Torgyik (2008) emphasizes that the concept is used in a larger context, as it does not only refer to the integration of ethnic minorities, but the educational and social integration of other minority groups. Thus we can also say that inclusiveness, that is acceptance is an important characteristic of multicultural education. What finally, multicultural education is? On the basis of one of the most important American approaches:

„Multicultural education can be defined as the area of education the main aim of which is to provide equal educational and learning possibilities for pupils belonging to different races, genders, ethnic and cultural groups and pupils belonging to different social classes. One of its most important aims is to help all pupils acquire knowledge, attitudes, and abilities which are necessary for the efficient functioning of a pluralistic, democratic society, and to help successful communication and interaction function in society in morality, and to serve common good and advantage for everybody.” (Banks and Banks, Quoted by Torgyik, 2008:11)

### **12.2.2 The emergence of multicultural education and its orientation**

In Western Europe the subjects of multicultural education were the immigrants and caste-like minorities originally (Lesznyák – Czachesz 1995), in the United States they were the Afro Americans, and various ethnic groups. In the case of the former the abolishing of school frustration, while in the latter it was to provide equal educational opportunities. We are going to discuss multicultural education through its major historical changes on the basis of the surveys provided by Márta Lesznyák and Erzsébet Czachesz (1998), and Judit Torgyik (2008) respectively.

In the United States of America Afro-American civil rights movements provoked the integration of ethnic contents into the study material of schools. Simultaneously the course about Afro Americans (black studies) became more important and widespread in higher education. The first phase of the development of multicultural education thus was based upon **ethnic studies**. In the second phase the specialists in education, the pedagogues realized, that the integration of ethnic contents into the study material is not sufficient, there is need for more general reforms.

Satisfying the needs of the ethnic minorities is not enough in itself, the democratic attitude of majority pupils towards different ethnic minorities, races should be achieved as well. This was the aim of **multi-ethnic education** while systematic reforms aiming at equal chances in education started in higher education and in public education. In the third phase new social groups, like handicapped people and women came into the centre of attention as well. New results were achieved, law was passed about the education of handicapped children – 1975 –, and courses about women, women's studies were launched at universities and colleges. The theories of multicultural led to areas of different theories, and imposed the examination of different branches of science, so multicultural education itself became is **interdisciplinary**. In the fourth phase – in our days as well – we can speak about *further development of research guidelines*, as well as, earlier scientific questions, aims of educational policy and pedagogic programmes are still present and they are development. (Torgyik 2008)

In Great Britain teachers were trying to find solutions to the failures of immigrants' children in the first phase of multicultural education. Individual attempts finally led to the development and the strengthening of multicultural education from the sixties to the nineties. They started from the premises that as the culture of the children are not valued, this leads to diminished self-esteem and depreciation of achievement, thus it would be necessary to admit and accept the equal value of different cultures. The greatest ambition became the integration of positive strengthening materials into the study materials and the curricula. In the second phase (the turn of the seventies into the eighties) anti-racist education presented itself as a critique of multicultural education, asserting that multicultural education, perhaps unintentionally, placed into the centre the problematic quality of minority groups and thus diverted attention from the racist practices of the majority institutions, and its one sided cultural orientation led to ignoring of social problems. Another critique stated that the aim to diminish individual prejudices cannot determine the step up against institutional discrimination and racism on a social scale. Anti-racist education declared the changing of teachers' attitudes, teaching and assessment methods, and school culture as its aim. The representatives of multicultural education developed their theory and practice in the spirit of these critiques. By the nineties we can also speak about the merger of these two trends as well, although in the opinion of many representatives of the anti-racist education this is not possible due to basic philosophical differences. (Lesznyák – Czachesz 1998)

On the basis of all the above we can say that American multicultural education – even as far as its representatives are concerned – is more uniform, but at the same time it concerns larger problematic fields, is more complex as a sub branch of pedagogy, is less ideological as a theory and practice, and is more sensitive as far as action against social problems and gender discrimination are concerned. The multicultural education of the United States and its development exercise a decisive influence on the multicultural education of all other countries in the world. In the next subchapter we are going to see which could be the distinguishable individual areas of examination and practice, that is the dimensions of this complex sub branch of pedagogy.

### 12.2.3 The dimensions of multicultural education

Banks (1993) determined the dimensions of multicultural education which can be relatively independently examined as the result of a nearly quarter of a century long research, observation and field work. When describing the dimensions of multicultural education he highlights the importance of examining factors related to minority and ethnic groups due to the immense research material and data, but he also emphasizes that factors of gender, social class and groups with special educational needs cannot be ignored either.

Torgyik (2008) in his concluding study introduces the characteristics of the author.

The dimension of **integration of the contents** refers to the way in which the pedagogue transmits data, knowledge, examples about different social and cultural groups in such a way as to introduce the theories, laws and essential relationships of his or her subject from various points of views and perspectives as well. It is important what is included into the study material about ethnic groups, religion, races, genders, minorities and social groups, and the way in which they are integrated into the curriculum. It is also essential that the shaping of the study material from a multicultural point of view should represent the whole of a country's population.

The dimension of **the construct of knowledge** takes into account the results of research carried out with respect to the examination of the cultural presuppositions identifiable within given fields of knowledge. On the basis of these results the influence of geographical, ethnic, cultural and social background on the creation of knowledge, or in professional terms the process of constructing knowledge can be stated, or rather understood. In terms of classroom practice the way in which the teacher helps pupils with different ethnic or cultural background in their activity aimed at understanding, digesting the material that is to perform their

respective processes of knowledge construction. – The pedagogue's awareness of the characteristic peculiarities of certain groups with regards to their knowledge construction process can help the pedagogue to contribute to the pupils' success at school.

In the dimension of **reducing prejudices** the major question is how can the prejudices of pupils and teachers towards different ethnic groups, races, genders, the poor, people of different religion, people of different /altered abilities be decreased. To use a positive definition, the aim is to develop democratic attitudes in the participants. Experience in the field of multicultural education support the thesis that especially two teaching-learning strategies are suitable for this cooperation in studying and the project method.

The dimension of **pedagogy of equal chances** means the appearance of fair pedagogy or pedagogical equity. It is concerned with the ways in which the results and the efficiency of pupils who lag behind the average results, come from different ethnic background, or come from groups with low social statuses can be improved. Multicultural education stresses the importance of the equality of chances for minority groups and of the improvement of the achievement of pupils coming from such groups.

The dimension of the **culture and organization of the school** highlights the importance of the rethinking and reconstruction of school culture and organization. – In the subchapters dealing with the relationship of pedagogues and multicultural schools we are going to touch upon the essential aspects of this dimension.

#### **12.2.4 Multicultural education and educational needs**

Of course it is impossible to reveal the totality of the relationships of multicultural education and the needs of education in this subchapter due to space limits. So we are going to focus on the possible answers to the mounting social heterogeneity, and we have to mention that the so called Delors report which is concerned with the situation of education and the challenges it has to meet and is the result of about 10 years of research completed by 1997 on request of UNESCO essentially strengthens the view that multicultural education might be a possible answer to social and economic problems, discrimination and poverty. (For more see: <http://epa.oszk.hu/00000/00035/00010/1997-11-ta-Majzik-Oktatas.html> )

According to Gábor Halász (2008) education is characterized worldwide as well as in our country by changes which are related to social and economic challenges the occurrence of which cannot be avoided in the future either. These changes can be identified in answering to demographic changes; answers give to mounting

heterogeneity of society, the need for efficient learning and development of competencies, the proper handling of the increasing complexity and in the development/training of teachers as human resources. – It is not difficult to understand that multicultural education can be perceived as a set of pedagogic tools which help successful reactions to changes. This role is increasingly important from the point of view of the answers given to increasing social heterogeneity.

In Hungary one of the greatest challenges for education is the task of integrating roma students, which presupposes the changing of the educational and teaching activity of schools, their renewal. There are institutions which are successful in teaching roma students due to the fact that they adjusted their methods to the teaching requirements characteristic of pupil groups with increased heterogeneity. These institutions are innovative, and teachers working for them regard understanding and solving problems stemming from learning difficulties to be part their tasks. (Halász 2008)

We can observe the same professional acceptance of the task when we read the survey of the effects carried out in schools which introduced the Integrated Pedagogic System (IPR) carried out in innovative schools and published by Gábor Kézdi and Éva Surányi. According to the authors these control schools were more successful than other institutions of the same quality which failed to introduce the IPR. In the schools which participated in the integration programme ethnic prejudiced decreased, the reading skills of pupils improved as well as their chances to continue their studies, and the programme had a positive effect on their self-assessment as well. The researchers/experts emphasized that there might have been a number of mechanisms behind the successes obtained, and they highlighted integration and the role of pedagogy concerned with individual centered pupil autonomy. (Kézdi – Surányi 2008) – It is important to note that among the elements of the IPR we can identify multicultural contents, - intercultural educational perspective -, project system and cooperation based learning, which are relevant teaching strategies of multicultural education. This means that on the basis of the above we can state that multicultural education and individual centered pedagogical practice aimed at strengthening pupil autonomy are not far from one another.

### **12.2.5 The peculiarities of multicultural schools**

Banks (1999) describes the following as important characteristics of multicultural school:

- School leaders and teachers have high expectations and positive attitudes towards the pupils, furthermore they react in a positive, caring and supportive way to their needs,
- The formal curriculum reflects onto experiences, cultures, and different points of view of ethnic and cultural groups, as well as onto those of the genders,
- The teaching style of the teachers is adjusted to the learning, cultural and motivational style of the pupils,
- The teachers have respect for the mother tongue or dialects of the pupils,
- The study materials used in schools present the different events, situations, concepts from the point of view of the different races, ethnic and cultural groups,
- The procedures of assessment and tests employed in schools are culturally sensitive and as a result coloured pupils appear proportionately in different forms of talented pupils,
- School culture and the hidden curriculum reflect the given ethnic and cultural variety,
- School advisors have high expectations towards pupils coming from different races, ethnic and language groups, and help them articulate positive aims, career prospects and to achieve them.

We can see that there are characteristics linked to virtually all the dimensions of multicultural education. Torgyik (2008) emphasized, that a school becomes multicultural, if it creates and a culturally and socially acceptable atmosphere, has in view the heterogeneity of those who is the institution, and possesses a uniform cultural sensitivity shared by all its employees. Multicultural schools observe the individual and shared demands of boys and girls, pupils coming from different social layers, different religions, different family or income background, or ones speaking different languages.

A further peculiarity of the multicultural school is that its material culture (the building of the school, spaces and classrooms, equipment and schoolyard) are clean, friendly, its ornaments and posters, photos, and the works of the pupils reflect the cultural and ethnic diversity of the school. This diversity can be reflected by the staff as well, as employing minority teachers is important, essentially for providing a model and for keeping in touch, contacting pupils' parents. (The latter is especially important in case of difficulties in communication, or language barriers.) Involving parents in the activity of the school is a cultural peculiarity of



extreme importance, as well as, maintaining good relationship with local cultural, ethnic and religious communities. (Lesznyák – Czachesz 1998)

#### **12.2.6 The pedagogue providing multicultural education**

In multicultural education, similarly to the practice of institutionalized education in general, the most important things happen in the course of teacher pupil interaction, and the teacher has a key position. In institutionalized education the most important things happen in the teacher-pupil interaction and the major setting is the classroom. At the level of educational policy among the aims of multicultural education we can mention the maintenance of minority culture, avoidance of assimilation and the support of social integration. This presupposes that minority culture and social integration are considered to be values by the teacher providing multicultural education. Yet, its direct pedagogical aim may be the development of personality on the basis of various cultures so as to help pupils experience their different cultural background as an advantage. (Kozma 1995) On the other hand the teacher performs its teaching activity in accordance with personality development aims of multicultural education and multicultural schools described in earlier subchapters. That is the teachers perform fair/equitable pedagogic activity in the spirit of cultural and social sensitivity. In the following section we are going to see when and under what circumstances can a pedagogue perform multicultural education.

A basic characteristic is that the teacher providing multicultural education should not be racist, should overcome its prejudices, presuppositions regarding pupils coming from various other and its own (ethnic, cultural, social, religious, language, gender etc.) group. Should be able to self-education, should direct and control its relationships in accordance with the aims of multicultural education. Should be indebted to the idea of creating child centered pedagogy. (Torgyik 2008) Its teaching methods and assessment should not be characterized by „categorization”, and should not discriminate in any other way either. This includes the avoidance of unwilling discrimination as well. This means that non discriminative pedagogues dedicate the same attention to children coming from minority groups, communicate with them in the same way as with the others, they do not punish them more often and do not praise them less often than the other pupils. They achieve all this by conscientious reflection that is they continuously react to and make comments on their behaviour, which is the essence of teacher's reflexive attitude (attention, analysis, development of professional identity). A characteristically well-known and often employed teaching method is the cooperative learning, which was created as a methodological response to

the challenges of multicultural education, and became the widely used strategy of competence development. At the same time it remained an important tool for reducing ethnic prejudices in multicultural education. (Lesznyák – Czachesz 1998)

All these mean that the pedagogue providing multicultural education is dedicated to the maintenance of the culture of minority groups, and helps their social integration, is dedicated to the principles of fair/equitable pedagogy and provides efficient help for pupils with different backgrounds, and to continuous personal professional and social reflexive development.

## **12.3 SUMMARY, QUESTIONS**

### **12.3.1 Summary**

In this unit we dealt with multicultural education. The topic gained an outstanding position for two major reasons. First the efficiency of a school can be determined through the performance of the pupils. And all „sets of pedagogic tools” by way of which pupils’ efficiency can be improved have to be taken into consideration, when we are speaking about successful schools, efficient pedagogy and pedagogues. Second, schools belongs to everybody – as they say it in democratic societies about public education – under optimal conditions this should be felt by parents and pupils as well irrespective of their social situation, or place in certain groups. Furthermore if the society of school is integrated, the integration (al) function of schools is also stronger. Consequently multicultural school is important from both points of view.

The most important peculiarity of multicultural school is that it provides multicultural education and its whole activity is dominated by the spirit of multicultural education. For this reason we emphasized its conceptual and contents oriented presentation and we constructed the interpretation of the multicultural school and of the characteristics of the pedagogues involved in multicultural education on these. Key terms included: minority culture, socially and socially sensitive child cantered pedagogy, school and social integration, reducing prejudices, cooperative learning, equitable/fair pedagogy, professional self-development, reflexivity.

### **12.3.2 Self-assessment questions**

1. How would you define the concept of multicultural education?
2. By the way of what dimensions could multicultural education be characterized?

3. Highlight and interpret those characteristics of multicultural school you find most relevant! Give reasons for your choice?
4. Highlight and interpret the most important characteristics of the pedagogue providing multicultural education!

### 12.3.3 Practice tests

True or false? Decide about the following statements!

Equitable/fair pedagogy is the pedagogic practice aimed at increasing the school achievement of pupils with different backgrounds (ethnic, cultural, low social status, pupils with specific needs), a view essentially connected with the purpose of providing successful support for efficient activity in school, with the help of specific tools and methods. **T – F**

Multicultural education includes the problems of the education of ethnic minorities. **T – F**

In multicultural schools the atmosphere of cultural and social acceptance is only expected with regards to the teacher-pupil, pupil-pupil, and teacher –teacher relationships. **T – F**

## 13. SUMMARY

### 13.1 SUMMARY OF CONTENTS

The study material of the course entitled School in society – school as society follows closely its aims, as besides pedagogical knowledge, knowledge of the classical results of the history of pedagogy and sociology it offers the discussion of the social relationships of schooling, the results of research in the field of educational science really can contribute to the development of interest taken in the questions regarding the relationship of school and society and the development and to the increase of sensitiveness in this respect.

The study material is divided into three modules. The first module has the title *the basic elements of education and teaching* and it really offers a complex professional basis? In the section ranging from lesson two to lesson six the basics are discussed with regards to general pedagogy, educational sociology and school organization, and school efficiency/school development. We discussed the basic elements of the theory of pedagogy and educational science, the system of its related sciences, and we established the place of both among social sciences. We got acquainted with the whatness of society and of the educational system the functions of teaching and the institutions providing teaching and we interpreted their functional relationships. We introduced the system of public education, its declared functions, the major documents, the function of the curriculum, its characteristics, and we also covered some aspect of teacher training. We discussed the topic of organizations; we highlighted the characteristics of schools as systems, the questions of leadership, the importance of good school atmosphere. We learned that pedagogues can contribute to the creation of good atmosphere at schools, which in its turn determines their health and the maintenance of their efficiency. Research on school efficiency and school development highlighted that schools which aim at the development of learning, which are capable of development, are examples of efficient schools, in which the teacher's activity of guiding learning, supporting learning and organizing of the learning activity.

The lessons included in the second module, based mainly on principles of history of education, entitled *Schools in space and time* present some important stations of the history of education from the beginnings of education to the 19th century. We got acquainted with the attitude of given societies towards the education of children in different periods of the history of education, the aims they stated, and what

expectations emerged with regards to schooling. We tried to outline the way in which the education of the respective periods reacted in terms of space and time to the social, economic and political changes, and we tried to interpret the content oriented changes of education and teaching in their complexity in the process of transformation. In the module we discussed the ambitions and characteristics of reform pedagogy, the way in which it abandoned the curriculum centeredness, the one dimensional development of abilities of earlier schools, and the fact that it focused on development of multilateral abilities. We highlighted the fact that reform pedagogy attempted to meet needs and demands, which exceed the social economic demands formulated in the moment of their foundation, and it, became sustainable due to deeper pedagogical, didactic, and methodological elements. We could see the importance of reform pedagogy while discussing the concepts of alternative pedagogy, as their pedagogy is rooted in reform pedagogy. True, they do not follow uniform trends; rather they shape freely their concepts and practice regarding practice which is different from that of public education. Alternative schools do not show what public education should be like, they rather provide examples for how different and many sided schools might be, furthermore they provide the conditions for everybody to find the most suitable type of school.

The third module, entitled *the society of schools*, was constructed upon the discussion of classical science of education, educational research regarding the efficiency of schools, and the interdisciplinary pedagogic area and theory of multicultural educations. The lessons included in this module we touched upon the relationship between family and school, the influence on learning efficiency of social economic status, and also, the fact that the poor results of children coming from families of lower social position, its frustration at school is not a consequence of the child's social situation that cannot be changed. Research on school efficiency pointed out that efficient school presupposes the increase efficiency and success in the case of handicapped pupils, and the pedagogue who manages to increase the achievement of the pupils irrespective of their social economic and cultural backgrounds by employing its professional competencies. We also noted that at the level of the educational system, the equity/fairness of education is not simply the synonym of social equity, but it is a real educational practice which decreases school frustration by way of quality services, strengthens the abilities of individuals and societies, and ensures the availability of equal accessibility to services offered by secondary school and higher education as well. One of the characteristics of equitable/fair education is that the school experiences provided by such schools can compensate

for the negative influence of the social background, and thus increase the chances of access to further education and improved chances on the labour market. In our last unit we discussed multicultural education and multicultural schools. In this lesson we interpreted in this lesson we interpreted multicultural education as a set of pedagogical tools by way of which the school achievement of pupils coming from different backgrounds can be improved, as well as a kind of pedagogy which can provide relevant educational answers to the increasing heterogeneity of societies.

We are convinced that through these modules and units the participants in the present course can acquire knowledge which can strengthen their teaching competencies.

## 14. ADDENDUM (FOR THE WHOLE TERM)

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