These edited volumes titled *"Current Research in Educational Sciences 2019"* are collections of selected studies summarizing the presentations of the 19th National Conference of Education Science. The conference took place at the University of Pécs on 7-9 November 2019. All three days of the conference provided opportunities for intensive professional-scientific dialogues. Approximately 500 lectures, representing the current trends in the focus of educational sciences, published the results of the research, the research experiences, and new scientific insights of more than 800 participants. Thus, the balance of the complex professional program, besides the 2 plenary lectures, is 49 symposia (including 209 presentations), 254 section presentations and 26 poster presentations.

The series titled *"Current Research in Educational Sciences"* is published in one volume every year. However, due to the fact that the value preferences of the conference are worth presenting and strengthening on the international level as well, contrary to tradition, this year two volumes (one in Hungarian and one in English) will represent the conference presentations. The first (Hungarian-language) volume is divided into six chapters: History of Education and Culture, Education Policy Perspectives, Researches on Higher Education, Development of Thinking and Education Science, Early Childhood, Stages of Helping Professions. The second (English-language) volume comprises four basic chapters: The (Cultural) History of Education, Learning and Teaching, Educational Psychology, Roma Studies.

We recommend these volumes to our readers in the hope that, while retaining the original publishing concepts of the series, they will provide space for experience and encourage new scholarly discourses.

Current Research in Educational Sciences 2019

Scientific Committee on Pedagogy of the
Hungarian Academy of Sciences

CURRENT RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES 2019

Educational Sciences: Horizons and Dialogues

Edited by
ARANKA VARGA
HELGA ANDL
ZSÓFIA MOLNÁR-KOVÁCS

Institute of Education Sciences,
Faculty of Humanities and
Social Sciences, University of Pécs

CURRENT RESEARCH IN EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES 2019

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VOLUME II

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Aranka Varga
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FOREWORD

These edited volumes titled *"Current Research in Educational Sciences 2019"* are collections of selected studies summarizing the presentations of the 19th National Conference of Education Science. The conference took place at the University of Pécs on 7-9 November 2019. The conference, which has a long tradition, was launched by the Scientific Committee on Pedagogy of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences in 2001. The opening volume of the series related to the conference was first published in 2008. The current volumes, following the original ideas of the serial editors, attempt to represent the diversity of the conference while taking into account the social relevance of scientific issues as well.

As the National Conference of Education Science was held in Pécs for the first time in 2019, the organizers considered it especially important that besides the traditions of the conference, local specificities should also be emphasized. The mission of the conference was defined by the organizers along with these aims.

> *"The theme of the 19th National Conference of Education Science is in line with current international research trends and values embraced by the organizing institution, the University of Pécs. The most important aim of this conference is to expose recent research findings and explore deeper layers in the diverse field of education science while initiating dialogues for the benefit and development of our education system. For this purpose, we are encouraging an interdisciplinary approach that embraces multiple perspectives along with the distinct scientific viewpoints displayed by each researcher and research group. By juxtaposing these perspectives, we can strengthen the professional relationships between the participants and research sites in order to create dialogues between experts in the field of public education and scholars of education science and to find solutions to challenges in the 21st century."*

All three days of the conference, thanks to a wide range of topics provided opportunities for intensive professional-scientific dialogues. Approximately 500 lectures, representing the current trends in the focus of educational sciences, published the results of the research, the research experiences, and new scientific insights of more than 800 participants. Thus, the balance of the complex professional program, besides the 2 plenary lectures, is 49 symposia (including 209 presentations), 254 section presentations and 26 poster presentations.

Although the conference is primarily a scientific forum for Hungarian researchers, it also provides an extremely rich field for the establishment and intensification of international relations each year. Nothing proves this better than the fact that, in addition to the Hungarian participants, several colleagues come from Spain, Germany, Russia, and Kazakhstan, as well as from Hungarian-language higher education institutions from across borders (János Selye University, Ferenc Rákóczi II Transcarpathian Hungarian Institute, Partium Christian University).

The series titled *"Current Research in Educational Sciences"* is published in one volume every year. However, due to the fact that the value preferences of the conference are worth

presenting and strengthening on the international level as well, contrary to tradition, this year two volumes (one in Hungarian and one in English) will represent the conference presentations. All participants who were invited to write a study were given the opportunity to publish their paper in English. Based on the feedback and the studies received, the first volume includes studies in Hungarian, while the second volume contains studies in English.

The studies were selected for the volumes mainly according to the recommendations of section and symposium chairs, however, the editors also made further suggestions to ensure that the diversity of the conference is not only thematically represented in the publications. Thus, important aspects of editing the books were that 1) the volumes should reflect the diversity of research methodologies, 2) masters-apprentices need to have a place among the authors in order to symbolise academic continuity, 3) the various research sites and higher education workshops should be represented.

The first (Hungarian-language) volume is divided into six chapters: History of Education and Culture, Education Policy Perspectives, Researches on Higher Education, Development of Thinking and Education Science, Early Childhood, Stages of Helping Professions. The second (English-language) volume comprises four basic chapters: The (Cultural) History of Education, Learning and Teaching, Educational Psychology, Roma Studies. Turning the pages of books, the growing emphasis on higher education research certainly cannot escape the respected readers' attention. Indeed, this reflects on the fact that at the conference as well as in this volume the main focus has been on this area. The 22 Hungarian-language studies written by 51 authors as well as the 9 English-language studies published by 15 authors indicate the importance of the cooperation of research groups, the milestones of common creation and research process, and the horizons and challenges of professional dialogue.

In the autumn of 2019, it was not yet possible to know how fortunate we were to be able to organise the National Conference of Education Science, which had been long-awaited in Pécs, in the traditional (offline) way. However, due to the dangers posed by a global pandemic, the work on the conference volumes, such as preparing the written versions of the lectures, peer reviewing manuscripts, and editing the volumes, required the coordination of the work about 100 people at a period when *the time was out of joint*. For there was no routine that could have helped us in our daily lives, the tasks related to the preparation of the volumes – which are not necessarily routine anyway – were especially great challenges this time around. As editors, we would like to express our gratitude to our authors and reviewers for their patience and work in contributing to the publication of the volumes.

To conclude the introduction, we recommend these volumes to our readers in the hope that, while retaining the original publishing concepts of the series, they will provide space for experience and encourage new scholarly discourses.

1 September 2020

Aranka Varga, Helga Andl and Zsófia Molnár-Kovács
Editors

THE (CULTURAL) HISTORY OF EDUCATION

Zsófia Molnár-Kovács

Europe-focused Content Analysis on Hungarian History Textbooks (1867–1918)

Summary:
The "representations of Europe" is a symbolic expression with double meaning. In a wider sense, it means a historical, geographical, political, cultural entity or construction. In a narrow sense, however, it means the depiction of Europe in pictures and maps, as well as the different views about Europe which, in the current study, are approached through history textbooks within the framework of textbook research. Our aim is to show both the stable and the changing tendencies of representations of Europe in history textbooks for Hungarian secondary schools at the time of the Austro-Hungarian Empire.

Keywords: *representations of Europe, Europeanism, textbook research, textbook history, the time of the Austro-Hungarian Empire*

The Choice and Relevance of the Research Topic

The research attempts to reveal the representations of Europe in Hungarian history textbooks in the analysed period (1867-1918). However, we also focus on other dimensions of textbooks so the extensively approached context of history of period, school history, and textbook history create the basis and establish comprehensive framework for analysing representations of Europe in textbooks. The research seeks to achieve representative analysis, and accordingly, brings into focus universal history textbooks (including all editions) for students of the 7th grade (textbooks for Hungarian upper secondary education) at the time of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. The research focuses only on those universal history textbooks which used to teach modern history (from 1648 to "present").

Analysing the representations of Europe in history textbooks for Hungarian secondary schools at the time of the Austro-Hungarian Empire is necessary in several regards. The comprehensive study (looking back until the second third of 19th century) on representations of Europe in respect of Hungarian history textbooks have not yet occurred. However, over the last ten years, one or two textbook researches on the representations of Europe and European identity – with a focus on the observed period –, have been published by Zsófia Molnár-Kovács and Attila Nóbik (see Molnár-Kovács, 2014, 2015, 2016a, 2016b; Nóbik, 2019). In Hungarian literature, professional studies which focused on Europeanism and representations of Europe in respect of textbooks were first published in the early 1990s.[1] The only exception was the research of Ottó Szabolcs in the 1980s (see Európa-kutatás, 2006). The mentioned studies first of all highlighted analyses of textbooks published after

1 Since the early 1990s the topic of Europeanism is often addressed in international forums and in related textbooks researches (see Dárdai, 2002: 73).

the change of regimes in 1989 (see for example Dárdai, 2002; Fischerné Dárdai, 2011, 2012; Domokos, 2002; M. Császár, 2004).

The number of Hungarian publications and textbook researches in connection with Hungarian history textbooks in the observed period is considered minimal. The Hungarian literature deals with the history textbooks of the period, but only marginally. Thus, regarding Hungarian history textbooks in this period, the analysis on representations of Europe leaves scope for a stop-gap research perspective.

Today Europeanism plays a decisive role in our identity, and therefore we need to know how far its conceptual basis and historical roots go back to the time of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. We also need to know if contemporary textbooks contain some references to this.

The Aims of the Research and Research Questions

Our aims are to show the stable and changing tendencies of representations of Europe in history textbooks for Hungarian secondary schools at the time of the Austro-Hungarian Empire.

The central research question is: *How were Europe and Europeanism represented in textbooks, and what sort of representations of Europe were found in universal history textbooks for Hungarian secondary schools at the time of the Austro-Hungarian Empire?*

The related research questions are:

1. What proportion of the texts and illustrations of textbooks represents Europe, or rather European historical links, compared to the whole contents of analysed chapters, subchapters?
2. How should "Europeanism" and "Europe" be defined in the analysed universal history textbooks (in analysed chapters, subchapters) for Hungarian secondary schools at the time of the Austro-Hungarian Empire?
3. Were the textbooks' contents changed in connection with the representations of Europe in the analysed period? If so, to what extent were these changed?

Research Methods

Before preparing the analytic unit of the research we shall elaborate on the relevant literature of the topic. The *collection, interpretation, and systematisation of the literary background* put forward the research problems, experiences, coherences, research methods detected by former analyses and create the theoretical framework of the present research (see Falus, 2004: 37, 62). We review the former analyses on representations of Europe and European dimension in history (and partly in geography) textbooks based on a Hungarian (and some aspects of contemporary international) literary background.

The representations of Europe in universal history textbooks for Hungarian secondary schools in the observed period are taken stock by the method of *content analysis*. The reason for this is that the content analysis is an interdisciplinary method which helps to discover the hidden features of said publications (see Antal, 1976: 44-45). That is why, besides the manifest textbook Europeanism, the latent content has also come to light (see Babbie, 2008: 357-358). After the Second World War the application of this method came to the front. At an early stage, the pedagogical application of content analysis also meant the demonstrations of textbooks' choice in terms of values. (Szabolcs, 2004: 331)

The main steps of content analysis on representations of Europe can be summarised as follows:

Step 1. Determining research sources and research methods based on the aims of the research and research questions
Step 2. Clarifying the main content categories, as well as making a comprehensive quantitative analysis on main categories
Step 3. Analysing in detail "Europe" as main content category; collecting and systematising expressions and ideas in connection with "Europe"
Step 4. Analysing phrases in connection with "Europe"; inducing title words
Step 5. Categorising title words; creating content subcategories
Step 6. Analysing content subcategories built on title words
Step 7. Summary – Fixing the results of the research in relation to "Europe" as main content category

The initial research concept also included iconographical and iconological approaches, but a deeper analysis on illustrations of history textbooks could not be done because of the very few number of textbook illustrations about Europe.

Research Sources

The main primary sources of the research are *universal history textbooks for the Hungarian secondary schools* (for students of the 7th grade) at the time of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. These textbooks used to teach modern history (from 1648 to "present"), so we only focus on (sub)chapters that deal with universal history after 1815.

In the course of research, we tried to produce a representative analysis. To achieve this, *the criteria of textbooks' choice* has been noted as follows:

- analysis of textbooks for secondary schools
- analysis of universal history textbooks
- analysis of textbooks for students of the 7th grade
- analysis of all editions
- except for analysis of handbooks (workbooks, readers etc.)

Along these parameters the research accomplishes an analytic overview of 15 textbooks (see Mangold, 1885, 1891, 1902; Márki, 1903; Mika, 1904, 1912; Sebestyén, 1906; Szigethy, 1903; Szölgyémy, 1914; Ujházy, 1904, 1913; Varga, 1904; Vaszary, 1904, 1912; Takáts, 1917).

Besides the contemporary history textbooks for Hungarian secondary schools the *curriculums for secondary schools* also belong to primary sources of the research (see Entwurf, 1849; Tanterv, 1861; Tanterv, 1868; Tanterv, 1871; Klamarik, 1881: 236-245; Tanterv, 1879; Utasítások, 1880; Reáliskolai tanterv, 1884; Gimnáziumi tanterv, 1899; Reáliskolai tanterv, 1899; Leányközépiskolák tantervei, 1916; Leányközépiskolák tantervei, 1918). We can get information about Hungarian curriculums during that time from the book of Nándor Horánszky, published in 1974 (Horánszky, 1974; about curriculums for secondary schools see Horánszky, 1974: 82-93).

The primary sources also include the *education acts* (their details about the choice of textbooks and the usage of textbooks), the *regulations on textbooks*, and the *protocols of National Council of Public Education* at the time of the Austro-Hungarian Empire (see OKT, 1872-1873; OKT, 1886-1889).

In addition, the secondary sources provide opportunities for constructing multiple lists which, on the one hand, provides a review on literature of researches on (history) textbooks in the observed period. Also, it has made possible to process the former analyses and literature of certain subfields (for example researches on representations of Europe in textbooks and

Hungarian researches on textbook illustrations) systematically. On the whole, considering secondary sources, the research has a diverse bibliographical background.

About the Analysis of Textbooks

During the research, content analysis was done in order to introduce the representations of Europe in history textbooks for Hungarian secondary schools at the time of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. For this purpose, main content categories, subcategories, and title words were created. In these textbooks' (sub)chapters – which deal with universal history after 1815 –, the stable and changing tendencies of representations of Europe were brought into focus. The 5 main content categories (in particular including "Europe"), the 5 content subcategories, and the 104 title words (with a total of 468 textbook occurrences) established a complex system which provided opportunities to draw quantitative and qualitative conclusions through the stop-gap analysis on representations of Europe in history textbooks in the observed period. (see Table 1)

Table 1: The system of main content categories, content subcategories, and title words

Main content categories	Content subcategories	Title words
Europe	Europe as the construction of (nation) states	absolute monarchies, absolutism, subjects, constitutional development, constitutional rule, constitutionality, states, empire, holdings, the place of dynasty, non-European constitution, princes, governments, republic, powers, nations/peoples, Russia, countries, parliamentary constitution, maritime powers, Turkish Empire, Turkish provinces, Turkey, courts, monarchs, city, leading statesman/minister, leading states/countries, leading power, leadership
	Europe as the construction of forming (internal and external) power relations	intervention, peace, (peace) conference, (peace) congress, peaceful development, diplomacy, lack of antipathy/support, interest/attention, events, (armed) struggle/conflict, uprisings, revolutions, revolutionary ideas, revolutionary spirit, guardianship, colony states, colonial states, colonial power, colonies, colonisation, (war/armed) confrontation, military aims/military development, army, (power-based) influence, balance of power/political balance, hegemony, situational picture, conquest, approval, the Eastern Question, migratory movements, claims, external relations, foreign policy, fights, legitimacy, movements, policy, reaction, old Europe, sympathy/aid, freedom movements, struggle for freedom, social movements, federal systems, the maintenance of prestige, expansion, officers, unbloody triumph, relationships
	Europe as the construction of unitary whole	general trend, whole/unit, continent, morale, pattern/way, size, modern, historical background
	Europe as the industrial/ commercial construction	creditors, industrial products, industry protection, industrial state, industrial countries, commerce, transport, transported crude products, long-distance communication
	Europe as the cultural construction	universities, traditions, legal order, Christianity, culture, teachers, study trip, companies
America	-	
Asia	-	
Africa	-	
Australia	-	

(Source: own editing)

The content analysis of textbooks' (sub)chapters that deal with universal history after 1815 has demonstrated *the clear dominance of European historical link in textbooks*. These claims have been substantiated in three points. *On the one hand, in the (sub)chapters of the 15 examined textbooks the history of Europe has amounted to 93%. This means that the representations of Europe were about 79,5-100% per textbook.* On the other hand, it has been shown that in the 15 examined textbooks' (sub)chapters that deal with universal history after 1815, the 5 main content categories ("Europe", "America", "Asia", "Africa", and "Australia") were represented by a total of 727 expressions. *Within the 727 occurrences (100%) "Europe" as main category has been represented in the largest number and percentage (468 occurrences – 64,4%).* (see Table 2) Thirdly, attention was paid to define the frequency of the occurrences of "Europe" as main category with the help of an indicator of density in the examined textbooks' (sub)chapters. The indicators have demonstrated that *the mentions and representations of Europe occurred usually once per a textbook page in the examined textbooks' units.*

Table 2: The occurrences of the main content categories in the examined textbooks' (sub)chapters (piece)

Textbooks		Main content categories					Total
		Europe	*America*	*Asia*	*Africa*	*Australia*	
Mangold, 1885		19	7	0	1	0	27
Mangold, 1891		51	10	7	5	0	73
Mangold, 1902		44	9	7	9	3	72
Szigethy, 1903		47	10	4	1	0	62
Márki, 1903		49	29	11	6	3	98
Vaszary, 1904		29	10	4	1	0	44
Mika, 1904		31	10	1	4	2	48
Varga, 1904		32	5	4	2	0	43
Ujházy, 1904		15	6	1	0	1	23
Sebestyén, 1906		28	6	4	1	0	39
Mika, 1912		31	10	1	4	2	48
Vaszary, 1912		35	10	8	3	1	57
Ujházy, 1913		17	5	1	0	1	24
Szölgyémy, 1914		32	9	11	7	1	60
Takáts, 1917		8	0	1	0	0	9
Total	piece	468	136	65	44	14	727
	percent	64,4	18,7	9	6	1,9	100

(Source: own editing)

By means of content analysis, 5 content subcategories were created within "Europe", the main content category. *Thus, in the examined units "Europe" has been represented as the construction of (nation) states, as the construction of forming (internal and external) power relations, as the construction of unitary whole, as the industrial/commercial construction, and as the cultural construction*. The emphases of the subcategories were further modulated along the title words. On that basis, it may be considered that *in the examined universal history*

textbooks Europe first of all has been represented as the sum of (nation) states and its role of forming power relations has been emphasized. Besides this, one could argue that *Europe, on the one hand, may be interpreted as the sum of (nation) states, above all as the sum of "(major) powers", "states", and "nations/peoples"; on the other hand, Europe, as a symbol of the construction of forming power relations, is based on two pillars: "whole" and "peace".*

The Results of the Research

The representations of Europe in the examined textbooks have been approached from several aspects. Attention has been paid to *the proportions in textbooks*, *the conceptual frames*, and *the changes of emphasis in textbooks*. As regards to this important group of issues, the main results of the research are summarised as follows:

The proportions in textbooks:

- The Europe-focused content in textbooks (and in curriculums) is clearly dominant.

The conceptual frames:

- The conception of Europe/Europeanism is undefined.
- Besides this, the latent "Europeanism of textbooks" can be identified with the help of content analysis. In the examined universal history textbooks Europe first of all has been represented as the sum of (nation) states and has been emphasized the role of forming its power relations. Europe, on the one hand, may be interpreted as the sum of (nation) states, as the sum of "(major) powers", "states", and "nations/peoples". On the other hand, Europe, as a symbol of the construction of forming power relations, is based on two pillars: "whole" and "peace".

These findings can be considered as the stable tendencies of representations of Europe in history textbooks.

The changes of emphasis in textbooks:

- During the analysis, strong tendencies on the changes of textbooks' content did not occur in connection with the representations of Europe. However, some content features could be identified.
- The representations of Europe were more dominant in the years around the turn of the 19th into the 20th century.
- In the years 1891 to 1903 there has been a slightly increased focus on the globality of Europe.
- Regarding the editions of the same textbooks, it can be said that from edition to edition the frequency of representations of Europe has usually intensified.

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Andrea Kárpáti

From the Bauhaus to Social Realism and Beyond – the Turbulent Legacy of Art Education in Eastern Europe in the 20th Century

Summary:
The 20th century, "the age of the child", started with child art exhibitions in museums and research on their visual language. Masters of the German arts, crafts and architecture college, the "Staatliches Bauhaus" (State College of Crafts and Architecture) opened a new chapter in art and design education with programs integrating contemporary arts, crafts, design and media. Before and during World War II, however, flamboyant patriotism – and later, the bigotry of Nazi and Soviet dictators' tastes dominated arts curricula. The 1980s found a twofold art education scene: cutting-edge modern art in community centres and tedious studies of academic, realistic rendering in schools. Today, visual skills research and arts based inquiry, intermedia and multiculturalism provide a lively educational scene where the legacy of Bauhaus masters has become a source of inspiration again.

Keywords: *visual culture, cultural history of education, theory of teaching and learning*

This paper intends to provide a brief overview of the evolution of 20th century art education in Central Europe, our diverse, still interrelated geocultural space. It is based on research for a larger comparative study (Kárpáti, 2019), and outlines only the major trends that characterize the multi-faceted development of visual art education. Central and Eastern Europe is often discussed as a unified cultural area – an assumption that is only partially valid. Artistic and educational trends in the 19-20th century resulted in the formation of a sociocultural entity characterized by a unified art education system: the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy (Laven, 2006). This era can be characterized by the aesthetic influence of art academies in Paris, Munich and Vienna in the visual arts (Legler, 2011). Countries of the "Eastern Bloc", in existence from the post-war build-up of Soviet dominance until 1988-89, the breakup of the alliance of Eastern European countries with the Soviet Union showed the influence of the propaganda-dominated art style of "*Socialist Realism*" (Bakushinskij, 2009). However, political independence resulted in a variety of arts education approaches of the one-time Soviet satellite states which became members of the European Union in the first decade of the 21st century. One important common objective of art and design education curricula, however, is still observable: preservation of cultural heritage and use of the arts for strengthening national identity (Fulkova – Tipton, 2013).

Theoretical foundations of art curricula

A central curriculum for drawing (German *Zeichenunterricht*), a school discipline introduced in all parts of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy by the late nineteenth century, focused on the skills needed for craftsmen. As drawing teachers were first trained as artists or draftsmen at the academies of Paris, Munich, and Vienna, *"academic style"* gradually infiltrated into arts curricula and included not just the appreciation, but also copying masterpieces in realistic styles from the Renaissance to Romanticism. A popular interdisciplinary educational model of the first decades of the 20th century was the German *"Education through the Muses"* (*Musische Erziehung*) that approached the arts through philosophy and history. Historical scenes depicted on masterpieces served as examples of virtues and vices. Thus, art education was art-centred, even if art was subordinated to science.

When the Austrian artist and educator, Franz Čižek, first introduced the concept of child art through exhibitions featuring the works of talented students, the irregular beauty and fairy-tale-like symbolism of the works influenced leading thinkers in psychology and education to study child art and encourage free, expressive creation at schools. *"Drawing Studies"* (a reference to the humble origins of the discipline, related to crafts), (*Zeichenunterricht, l'enseignement du dessin*) were renamed as *Art Education* or *Education through Art*, (*künstlerische Erziehung, l'enseignement des arts plastiques*) to indicate a shift from technical to artistic orientation (Efland, 1990). Cižek's influence was instrumental in the modernization of art education in the region. In Hungary, Romania and Poland, the integrative approach to the arts and their use in holistic education (*Menschenbildung*) were introduced through Reform Pedagogy (Holló, 1929). Projects manifesting a synergy of visual arts with music, drama and dance, slowly shifted emphasis from the realistic depictions of nature to expressive, "polyaesthetic" creations (Kárpáti – Gaul, 1998; Muhi, 2012).

Another important aspect of the Reform Education Movement for art education was the introduction of creative design and construction tasks (*Werkunterricht*), to balance the individualistic expressivity of fine art genres in the school curriculum (Laven, 2006). In 1919, the German academy of architecture, arts and crafts, the *State Bauhaus* offered a comprehensive educational program in Weimar. Its pedagogical model, involving experimentation with materials and integration of contemporary industrial design with traditional folk arts and crafts affected art programs of innovative primary and secondary schools all over the world. The result was the modernization of art education through the inclusion of design, crafts and technical arts: film and photography (Legler, 2011).

These innovations served as an inspiration for modernization efforts all through the 20th century. In Czechoslovakia, Ladislav Švarc introduced Čižek's ideas about the child artist and connected the methodology of the Reform Pedagogy Movement with the artistic and design experiments of the Bauhaus. His approach, *paedocentrism*, encouraged spontaneous expression in the art room through free choice of themes and media (Slavik, 2005). In Hungary, László Nagy, a developmental psychologist and art educator, introduced child-centred art education and organized national talent identification campaigns followed by exhibitions in the most prestigious exhibition space in the country, the National Art Hall (Kárpáti – Gaul, 1998).

During and between the World Wars, the dominant trend in art education was *patriotism*. In support of military efforts, themes like war victories and patriotic symbols were depicted and nationalism overcame the art-oriented, multicultural, creative reforms (Eid – Langer – Hakon, 1996). In Hungary, for example, architectural monuments and folk art motives of former parts of the country that had been attached to neighbouring countries after the end of World War I, were represented and adorned with slogans supporting the military endeavours to recapture them. After World War II, when the "Eastern Bloc" – a

group of countries under the influence of the Soviet Union – was formed, art education was instructed to represent "ideologically correct" themes and abandon teaching about "religious art". Patriotic and nationalist slogans were replaced by socialist ones, but the role of art education in Eastern Europe remained the same: serving the purposes of indoctrination (Kárpáti, 1999).

The Soviet model of art curriculum was gradually abandoned by the 1970s. The ideas of Herbert Read (1943), concepts about *"creative types"*, favouring certain styles, genres and themes – the treatment of the child as an emerging artist – were adopted in Czechoslovakia already in the 1960s. However, Soviet intervention with the liberal ideology of the government in 1968 stopped modernisation for about 20 years. Socially focused art education, a model for educating for patriotic citizenship through the visual arts, did not emerge here until the 1990s (Fulková – Tipton, 2013).

Professional support provided by the *International Society for Education through Art* (InSEA), founded in 1955, reached Eastern Europe in the 1960s and became a catalyst for innovation. InSEA promoted personality development through art and invited art teachers to focus on expression instead of representation, and to develop creativity instead of teaching rigid representational rules. The international art education community promoted education *through* art instead of education *for* art (Billmayer, 2012). The InSEA European conference in Prague, in 1966 – the first truly international event in art education after World War II in Eastern Europe – was decisive for many countries in the region. In Poland, appreciation of art and a curriculum with a fine art focus, based on the French aesthetic education model, was introduced (Wieczorek, 2009). In Hungary, environmental education followed British models, while American, developmental assessment methods of visual skills and abilities as well as British experiences in portfolio-based assessment (GCSE, medium level art and design examinations) were adapted (Kárpáti – Gaul, 1998).

In 1989, profound political and social changes resulted in the redesign of curricula all over Eastern Europe. The major model of the last two decades of the 20th century, *Visual Culture,* that embraced everyday use of visual language as well as the symbolism of youth subcultures and ethnic groups, assumed a special flavour here (Freedman et al., 2013). Folk arts and crafts – symbols of regained national identity – were integrated with multicultural visual language in the new art programs. Overregulated syllabi were replaced by core curricula and guidelines, and *alternative thematic foci* – in Hungary, for example, Environmental Education and Visual Communication – became electives, besides the traditional Fine Arts. The influence of the German *Visuelle Kommunikation* movement was apparent in a turn towards everyday visual language use instead of academic conventions (Eid – Langer – Hakon, 1996). In the Russian Federation, modernization resulted in the encouragement of free expression in a variety of contemporary arts genres and styles (Fomina, 2003). In assessment, theories of creativity and developmental stage theory were used with cautious criticism, and *cultural ethnographic study of visual language* has replaced child art development research (Slavík, 2005).

In the 21st century, *competence-based curriculum design* became a general trend in the Eastern European region. Most documents integrate the eight key competences as described by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2005) and assessed by the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), which involves no testing in any art discipline, still serves as a model for competence based assessment in aesthetic education. For example, the art curriculum of Poland and Slovakia focus on problem-solving competence as a basis for creativity development. In these countries, project based art tasks are regular constituents of curricular content. In the Czech Republic, inter- and intrapersonal competences are a focus. The production and reception of works of art are closely connected with self-reflection (Fulkova – Tipton, 2013). In Hungary, the

National Core Curriculum was reorganized to include the development of the OECD's three areas of competence-based skills: interacting in heterogeneous groups, collaboration, and acting autonomously. Art education embraced genres of contemporary collaborative creation (Bodóczky, 2004).

In a comparative curriculum study completed with the participation of 37 experts from 20 countries, including Eastern Europe except Bulgaria and Romania, teaching objectives were found to emphasize creative expression based on aesthetic experiences as inspiration. With the creative artist being the role model for most teachers, curricula are still fine arts focused, and aim at developing creative skills. Lesson hours have been constantly reduced in all countries, so the remaining teaching time (generally one 45-minute period between Grades 5-10) leaves little opportunity for the development of perceptive skills including media awareness, so much needed for making meaning of the visual world around us (Kirchner – Gotta-Leger – Nockmann, 2016).

Curriculum content, however, includes photography, video and visual aspects of social media in all European countries. Through increased attention to communication genres that young people regularly use, curricula became more *authentic, relevant and responsive* to student needs. Creativity is still a central concept, but cognitive development and the relevance of art and design for the world of work is also emphasized. The new Hungarian art curriculum is an abundance of useful and interesting content – to be realised in a much reduced number of lesson hours (none for Grades 11-12, where it was a selective before). It is an advocacy document for educational policy-makers to show the potentials of visual arts for cognitive growth, in the hope of better positioning in future (Kárpáti – Gaul, 2013).

In the Austrian curriculum, image as a medium of communication is deemed equal to the spoken word. Art education is perceived as an opportunity for immersion in visual language, not just a series of lessons in classic conventions of imaging (*Bildunterricht statt Kunstunterricht,* education of the image instead of education through art, Billmayer, 2012). Similarly, in Czech, Slovak and Romanian curricula, *"high art" is being discussed in correlation with visual culture.* Learning content involves creation and appreciation of crafts, environmental and industrial design, architecture as well as media arts. Information and communication technologies have been taught as a separate discipline in this region, but digital and visual literacy is developed in synergy.

In most Eastern European countries, a pronounced shift towards reception instead of production seems to be observable in higher secondary grades. In Poland, production, reception, and reflection are taught in synergy (Wieczorek, 2009). Art history and criticism are integral parts of thematic modules about different situations of creating, using, and experiencing visual culture. In Poland, art appreciation is dominant in the higher grades, while in Slovakia it mainly serves as motivation and model for the production of works of art. Appreciation involves reflection on the works of peers and self-reflection (Lehotakova, 2015). In the Russian Federation, guided creative activities in all kinds of art forms dominate in primary years (6-10 years), followed by individualized skills development and art perception (11-14 years). In secondary education (15-18 years), tasks require a synthesis of art-related knowledge and skills, while visual communication is also an important field of study (Razlogov, 2011). In Austria, the Czech Republic, Slovenia, the Core Curriculum defines major areas of study and output requirements, while in Hungary, this is supplemented by the Framework Curriculum that is much more detailed and prescriptive. Still, art teachers may freely develop their local teaching plans, as the curricular framework lists a wide variety of activities for the learning content to be covered, ad does not specify genres, themes and techniques.

Assessment in art education

Assessment is traditionally based on the *holistic evaluation* by the teacher, often preceded by interventions during the process of creation with helpful remarks and demonstrations of the optimal solution of the task. Portfolio assessment is used for assigning the final grade, and also employed for national competitions of art to obtain a broader overview about the competences of contestants. Assembling a *portfolio* as the output of one or more academic years has been a traditional method for the evaluation of visual skills and abilities all over Europe for more than a century. For aspiring young artists, the compilation of a collection of excellent work means an overview of past endeavours and may inspire them to embark on new creative directions.

The *portfolio as assessment tool* for the average student has an entirely different meaning. It helps to overview techniques and topics learnt and to identify strengths as well as weaknesses. With an oral commentary that involves knowledge about and usage of terms and concepts of art criticism, students also manifest their abilities to judge works of art and reflect on their own creative output. Assessment criteria for portfolios reflect classic academic standards, but also involve new, competence-oriented viewpoints. The most important criterion has always been the *creative use of visual language*, which involves the selection of expressive means (space, colour, composition), representation of movement and time, and expression of emotions. A more contemporary criterion for judging the quality of a collection of works that comprise a portfolio is *visual communication*: visualisation of concepts and processes, and communicating ideas and plans. These subskills of visual literacy are also important workplace skills. *Selection and employment of imaging techniques* in relation to the genre and theme of the work involves the assessment of the use of traditional techniques, but also digital ones, if available for students. Multimedia and intermedia applications are becoming more and more frequent in school art rooms, just as in contemporary fine art studios.

Since the 1970s, *art projects* have gradually replaced individual creations in art and design education. The typical "lesson hour" in the region, for senior primary grades (11-14 years of age) lasts for 45 minutes, is far too short for researching, planning, sketching, improving and executing an artwork. A project task enables students to expand their ideas through several works, prepared in the course of 3-4 art lessons, one each week. Art projects usually contain tasks set by the teachers with techniques assigned, but also provide an opportunity for a free selection of motives and ways of representation. A project documentation (process *folio*) contains varied and reliable data on the development of spatial ability, basic design skills and the knowledge of a wide range of materials and tools necessary for sculpture and construction.

Judging project work manifests a problem few educators are fully aware of. The traditional belief in expertise and sensitivity to quality resulting from training and experience contradicted our findings about the lack of *reliability of the traditional jury procedure*. In a large-scale jury experiment, organised in Hungary in collaboration with experts of the Dutch educational testing agency, CITO, we established a jurying system that eliminates or at least reduces juror bias (Kárpáti et al., 1998). Inconsequent scoring resulted mainly from the following reasons:

- Many art teachers had a *strong prejudice based on previous output* of their students
- Several art teachers who actively practiced art, tended to *prefer styles resembling their own* and appreciated planning and compositional methods that reflected their own way of solving visual problems.
- The *age* of art teachers also seemed to play a decisive role in influencing scoring behaviour. Younger, less experienced educators were more flexible in judging the correctness of the interpretation of the task in question.

- Finally, *experience in teaching through projects and judging process folios* was a crucial prerequisite for reliable judgement.

The *method of assessment* employed by judges proved to be another key factor in our experiments. "*Vertical assessment*" – judging a work according to all criteria at the same time, the traditional method used by all fine arts competitions and exhibition jury procedures – proved to be significantly less reliable than *"horizontal scoring"*, which involved judging all the works according to one criterion at a time. This research proved that results of art education can be reliably assessed through sophisticated tasks representing all genres of the visual arts not just drawing. Our work also revealed, however, that traditional jury practices had to be altered for the examination procedure. The employment of trained jurors, preferably *one external and one or two internal* (school-based) *evaluators* who compare all project portfolios according to one given criterion at a time is inevitable for reliable assessment (Kárpáti et al., op. cit., 1998).

The main contributions of the Eastern European region to the theory and practice of curriculum design in art education seem to be the development of a creative synergy between local and international visual culture and the introduction of authentic, developmental assessment methods at all levels of art education. The innovative capacity of the educational frontrunners of this region manifests in research-based curriculum design.

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LEARNING AND TEACHING

Anna Imre

Student Voice – the Bridge to Learning: Student Needs, Teacher Changes

Summary:
The article presents domestic research related to the Erasmus+ project entitled Student Voice – the Bridge to Learn. The paper presents some of the experiences of participating students and teachers based on data from an online questionnaire survey conducted at the beginning and end of the project. Research experience shows that – although a few contradictory experiences also can be found –, for the students and teachers of the secondary school most affected, a modest, positive change can be seen as a result of participating in the project.

Keywords: *student needs, teacher methods, teacher-student relationship, implementation*

Introduction

The Student Voice initiative is not very new, there have been researchers in the past who have tried to draw attention to students who often lack performance analyzes and development ideas. However, over the past two decades, the topic of student voice has emerged often related to the context of personalized learning and teaching (e.g. Hargreaves, 2004; OECD, 2006). In David Hartley's view, student voice can be interpreted in two ways: on the one hand, as an approach that continues to drive closer to consumers' choices in the development of NPM public services. On the other hand, it sets a new direction for the school in terms of its basic processes. Literature generated by renewed interest is fundamentally related to the second direction, with the aim of improving student effectiveness and student engagement (Hartley, 2007).

In her research on schools in two regions, Riley analyzed the views of students and their teachers. Research experience shows that students agree that the school does not treat them as individuals and does not address their learning needs. Teachers' opinions were much more positive on all issues than those of the students, and they typically overestimated how well students feel at school and how interested they are at school (Riley, 2004).

Our earlier research supports the importance of the difference in student and pedagogical perspectives. Examination of the introduction to formative assessment showed that only a quarter of teachers welcomed the change. At the same time, the change was more positive for most students: the majority of 5th grade students, and two fifths of 8th grade students said they liked it. Teachers, because they did not expect any change and therefore did not pay attention to the students' opinions, did not notice the favorable opportunities for the students (Imre, 2012).

Cook-Sather interprets the Student Voice initiative as a student repositioning effort, analyzing the emergence of the Student Voice term, discussing two key concepts, rights and respects, including the positive and negative aspects of the Student Voice issue (Cook-Sather, 2006).

More radical approaches argue not only for hearing the voice of students, but enhancing self-directed and personalized learning. They also raise the issue of the pedagogical paradigm shift, with the change of attitudes and roles, and a closer teacher-student relationship, reach the possibility of co-construction between teachers and students. Preparing teachers for student-centered teaching is a major challenge and requires a strong interpersonal relationship with students.

The frameworks of Student Voice project and connected research

The discussion of "Voice of the Students" issue in relation to the Hungarian situation is linked to the international Erasmus+ project entitled Student Voice – Bridge to Learning. The project took place between 2016 and 2019 in five countries (Ireland, the Netherlands, Scotland, Slovenia and Hungary). The aim of the project was to explore opportunities for student learner empowerment and to facilitate the development of personalized learning and learning environments in each country that also enable learner involvement. In the context of the experiences of the participating countries, a variety of practices were introduced, including systemic initiatives, institutional and classroom practices (Bron – Emerson – Kakonyi, 2018; Holcar Brunauer, 2019). During the project, the participating Hungarian teachers could learn about international approaches that focus on the voice of the students, and try out solutions and methods used in other countries. This was not new to many, as many forms of personalized teaching and learning are widespread in domestic practice, but there is little experience of well-structured and coordinated delivery efforts beyond the classroom.

We have already reported on the first experiences of the project in an earlier paper (Imre, 2019), which contributed to the exploration of the initial situation among students and teachers in the participating schools in spring 2017. The purpose of the exploratory study was to explore the needs and opinions of students, and gather information about the actual classroom practice and the opinions of the teachers. Based on the experience of a survey conducted through an online survey across three schools, the study revealed a thoughtful, sometimes controversial situation. Overall, there was no clear demand from the students' side for their involvement in the teaching and learning process. There were several external constraints (e.g. curriculum, final examination) reported by the teachers, mainly those working in secondary schools. There was also a significant distance between teacher and student responses to the same questions related to current pedagogical practice.

In the present study, that is based on a small survey conducted at the end of the project in 2019, similarly to the previous study, we focus on the issues related to classroom work and pedagogical processes, including some aspects of organizational realization.

Our questions were the followings:

- Are there any changes in student needs for individual treatment during the two years?
- Are changes in teaching practice and teachers' perceptions and attitudes captured?
- Are there any changes in the relationship between teachers and students?
- What experiences do the teachers involved report on the implementation?

The research in 2019, as before, focused only on a small group of schools, the few schools that have been involved in the international project from the domestic side. The first, exploratory study in 2017 involved three schools at the start of the project, two primary schools (primary schools 'A' and 'B': 'A' school was a smaller institution with good student composition and, 'B' was a bigger institution with mixed student composition)

and one secondary institution. In the second part of the research in 2019 three schools were involved again, but instead 'B' school, a new, 'C' school participated. The great differences between institutions in terms of educational level, size and social composition remained: school 'A' was located in the second district of the capital, with a small number of students worked with an alternative pedagogical tradition (e.g. integration and student-centered pedagogical practice) and with favourable student composition. School 'C' was a large inner-city school, with an average student composition. The bilingual secondary school was a large institution with a favorable social composition.

Table 1: The sample of the online questionnaires (N)

	2017		2019	
	students	teachers	students	teachers
Primary schools (ISCED1,2)	120	16	122	7
Secondary school (ISCED3)	115	15	140	13
Altogether	235	31	242	20

In terms of methods, we used basically two methodological tools during the research. The survey was carried out with online questionnaires on a sample of nearing same number as before. We also complemented the data collection with qualitative data collection: we conducted focus group interviews at the beginning and the end of the project with participating teachers and students at participating schools.

In the two surveys, we were ultimately able to rely on the data of a similar number of respondents: in 2017 235 students and 31 teachers answered the questionnaire, while in 2019 242 students and 20 teachers responded (*see Table 1.*). Due to changes in the composition of the respondents, we had to consider the limitations of the sample during processing and analysis.

The Voices of Students

We had to be more cautious in processing changes because of the differences between the 2017 and 2019 samples. A significant number of pupils from the schools were involved in the project, so they could experience the methodological changes schools have undergone, whereby teachers have tried some forms of approach and method recommended by the project.

In 2019, the most important question at the end of the project analysis was whether there was a change in the students' and teachers' experience compared to the 2017 data, and if so, how much change occurred in the practice and in the perceptions and attitudes of the actors.

In order to answer this question, we asked the students and teachers again in 2019 to fill the 2017 questionnaire. In the analysis of the answers we could not compare all the data of the years 2017 and 2019 because of the change of the participating schools, therefore, we could focus mainly to the institutions participating in the whole project, their students and teachers.

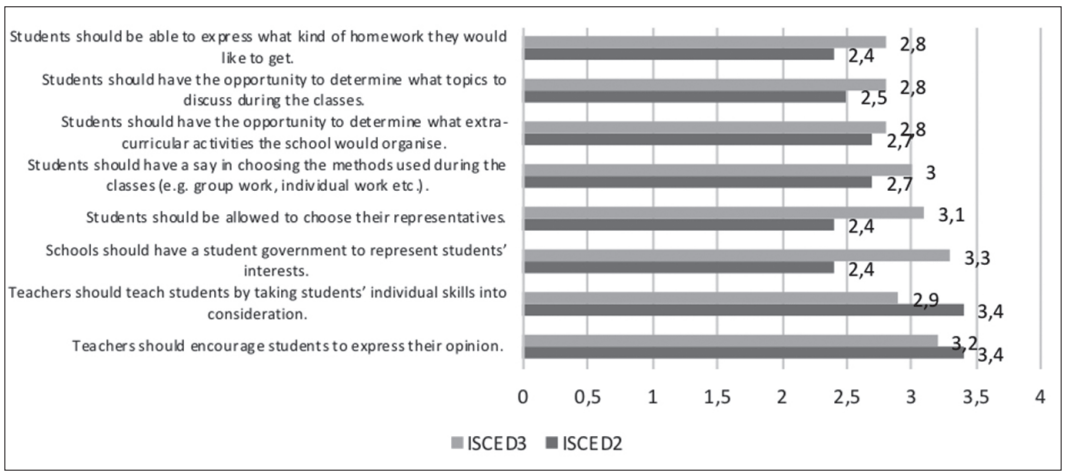
Students' needs, implementation and practice

In 2019, using previous questions, students were again asked to say how much they agreed with the statements made about student needs. In 2019, the order of the statements related to student needs changed in importance compared to the previous one, and the importance of certain questions also changed. In the new survey, as in the past, interest issues were raised mainly related to self-government at school, but this time came only after the statement "teachers encouraged students to have their say".

The general assertion of the need for individual treatment slipped into the middle of the order, while the method choice advanced to the fourth place. Choice in selection of topics and homework questions continued to reach the end of the line, but became more highly rated. Comparing the data of two years altogether, it can be seen that the needs of the students concerning the lesson are still less important, but there is a clear increase or decrease in the importance of the issues related to classroom practice.

Comparison by level of education showed that secondary school students considered all the above statements to be more important than primary school students. It can also be seen – like the trends observed earlier in our sample – that the student demand for the formation of the learning environment increases as the age of the students increases.

Figure 1: Factors important for a well-working school, 2019. All students. (N=204, %)

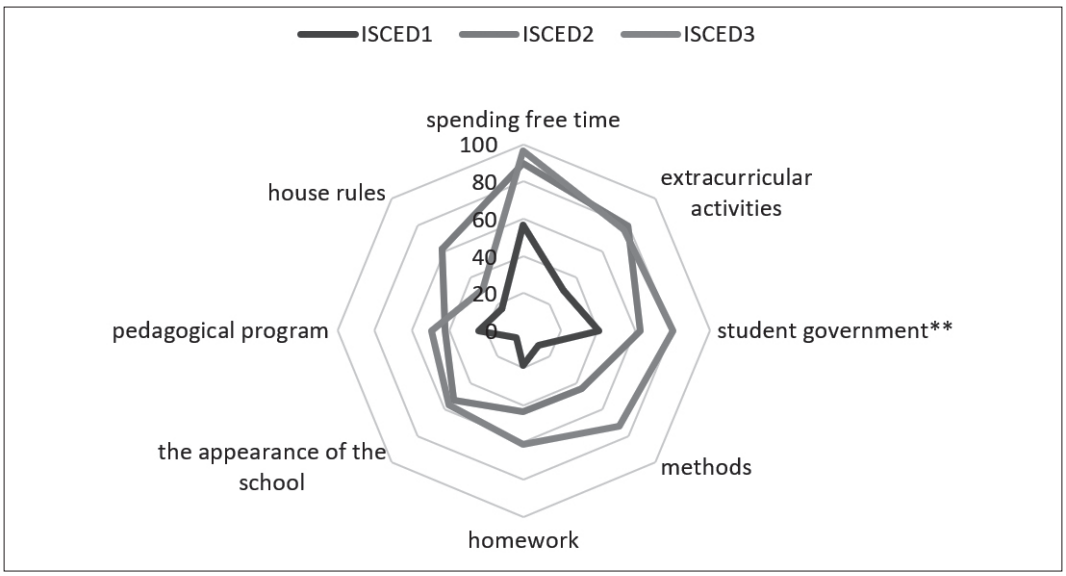


Question asked: How important do you think the following factors are for a school to be working well?

The 2019 survey also looked at the areas where students felt that the views of students at school should be the most relevant. At the top of the list, the questions again moved away from the world of classroom activities: school leisure time, extracurricular activities, investigating injustice and student government. In terms of the teaching and learning issues, homework proved to be a less important issue, but half of the students (50%) would be interested in choosing the methods used in the class this time. However, the breakdown of responses by level of education reveals that there is a very different picture of the voice of the students at each level of education: gradually moving up the levels, more and more questions turn to be relevant to students' attention. Elementary students apparently did

not yet have an established picture of the issue, they felt it was important only for leisure time (over 50%) to form an opinion; for students at the lower secondary level student government, school appearance were relevant questions. The issue of extracurricular activities was important for both lower secondary and upper secondary students. Only high school students wanted to be involved in classroom processes (e.g. methods, homework).

Figure 2: The importance of enforcing student opinions on certain issues. Students' views. All students, % (Average values on a scale 1-4)

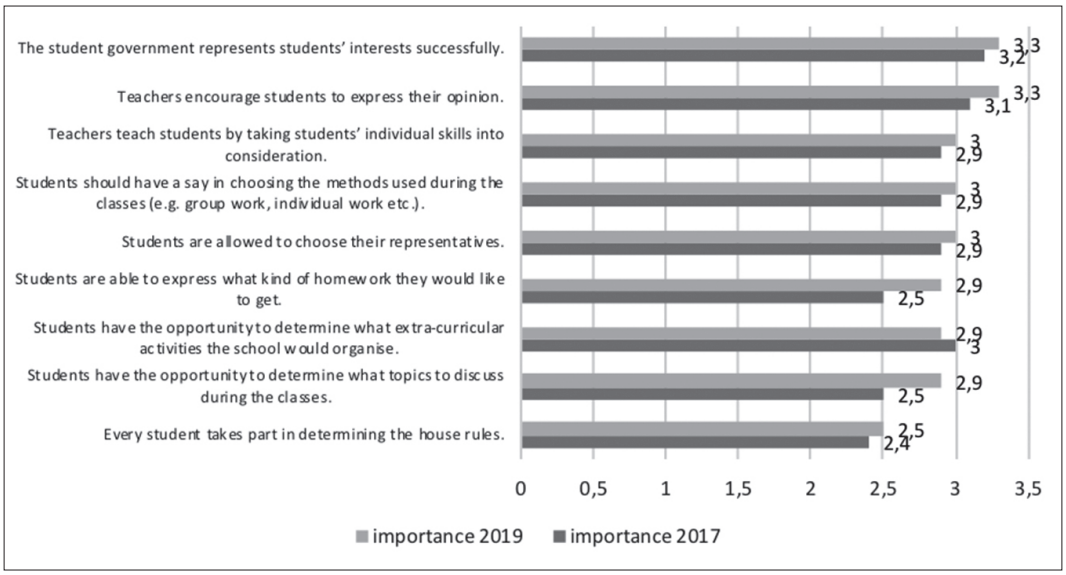


Question asked: In relation to what issues do you think schools should ask for students' opinion?

Changes in the views of students

In the process of monitoring the changes, we focused primarily on high school experiences, as changes in terms of students and teachers were most likely to occur at this institution.
For many teachers and students, the project has brought new experiences compared to previous practice, as teaching and learning through personalized, student-centered methods was not an overall common approach in the secondary school, there was no unified approach to teaching and learning approaches. Issues related to classroom teaching and learning (e.g. homework, topics, methods) became more important between 2017 and 2019. We assumed that change in this school was most likely due to the impact of the project.

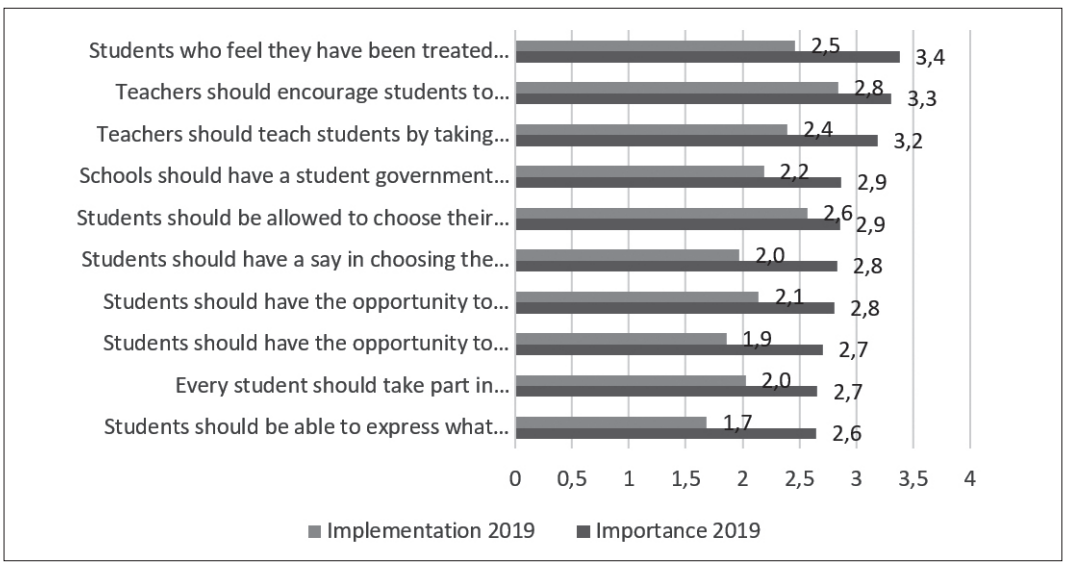
Figure 3: Factors important for a well-working school. Secondary students' answers.
(Average values on a scale of 1-4, 1-strongly disagree, 4-strongly agree)



Question asked: How important do you think the following factors are for a school to be working well?

While there has been a general increase in the need to have a say in the learning process among learners, there has been no significant positive change in the likelihood of realization among learners.

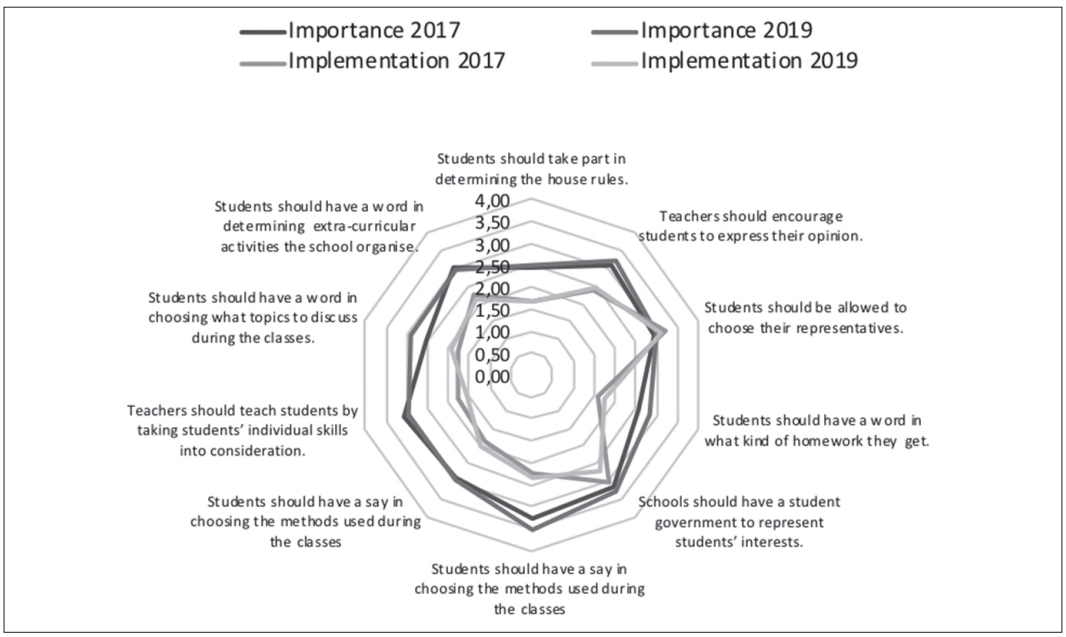
Figure 4: Importance and implementation. Secondary students' answers, 2019.
(Average values on a scale of 1-4, 1-strongly disagree, 4-strongly agree)



The figure below illustrates the lessons learned during the two surveys: although little change is found in most questions, there is a positive shift in some respects, such as the ability to make independent decisions during class, the ability to debate, good relationships with teachers and encouragement. But this is also indicated by the decline in agreement with the claim of teacher dominance.

The figure below shows, by looking at the two years and the two issues - importance and chances of implementation, practice - that the shift in student needs is most noticeable in relation to classroom processes (topics, methods, homework). The figures also show that students are aware of the practice of implementation - although with even less positive movement than before. All in all, there seems to be some modest change in the students involved in the project, in terms of needs and experience. It is not possible to determine from the data, although it is likely that changes in classroom practice have triggered awareness and appearance of student needs. At the same time, it is thoughtful that student opinions appear to be fundamentally pessimistic about the broadest formulation of the question.

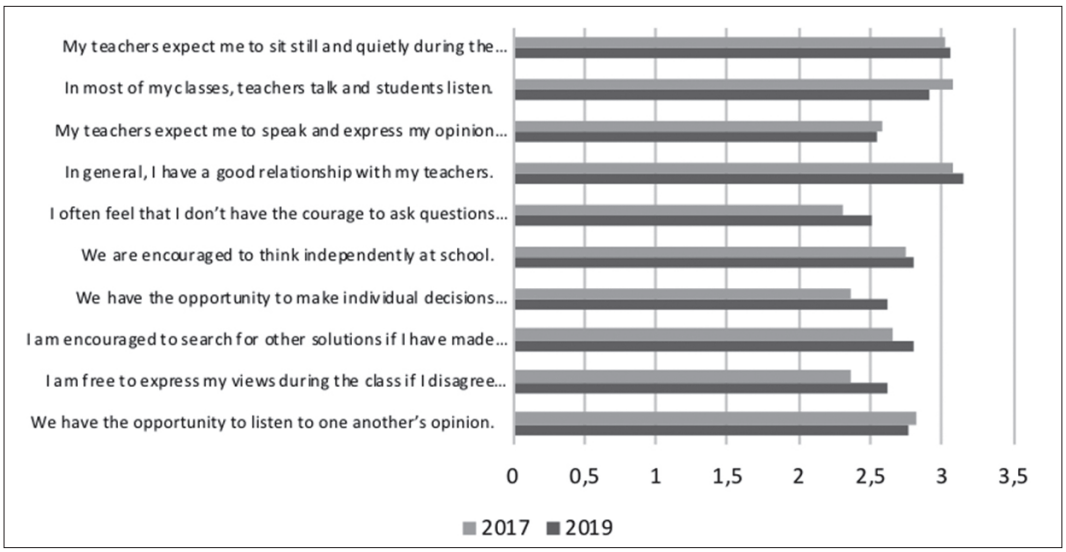
Figure 5: Importance and implementation. Secondary students' answers.
(Average values on a scale of 1-4, 1-strongly disagree, 4-strongly agree)



We also asked students and teachers to agree with the same statements related to the classroom process, comparing their responses with those of two years earlier. Comparison over time shows that students perceived the greatest change in classroom manifestation and independent decision-making with classroom work, and were given more opportunities than before. They also saw a decline in the frontal method and more encouragement despite mistakes. The response from students to a modest increase in good relationship with teachers seems to be a sign. At the same time, it has to be seen that student responses range from often moderate values to moderate agreements and the more favorable 'rather agree' responses, indicating rather small steps in values. In any case, the data also show

that the move happened in the desired direction, that is, the tools and approach of the project were able to appeal to the students.

Figure 6: Classroom learning expectations: views of students and teachers. Secondary students' answers. (Average values on a scale of 1-4, 1-strongly disagree, 4-strongly agree)



Question asked: How typical the following statements are for the classes in your school in general?

Teachers

From the teachers' point of view, we were also able to examine the issue primarily in the two institutions that had participated in the previous study. For each institution, the comparison is again limited to their own historical data. There were fewer young, mostly middle-aged, experienced professionals among the teachers involved in the project. During the project, the teachers participated in national meetings, international meetings and had the opportunity to incorporate the solutions known in the Student Voice project into their teaching practice. Many of the new methods proposed by the project were included in the school practice during the project period. At the end of the project we sought to learn from teachers about the changes in classroom practice and their experiences.

Changes in classroom practice

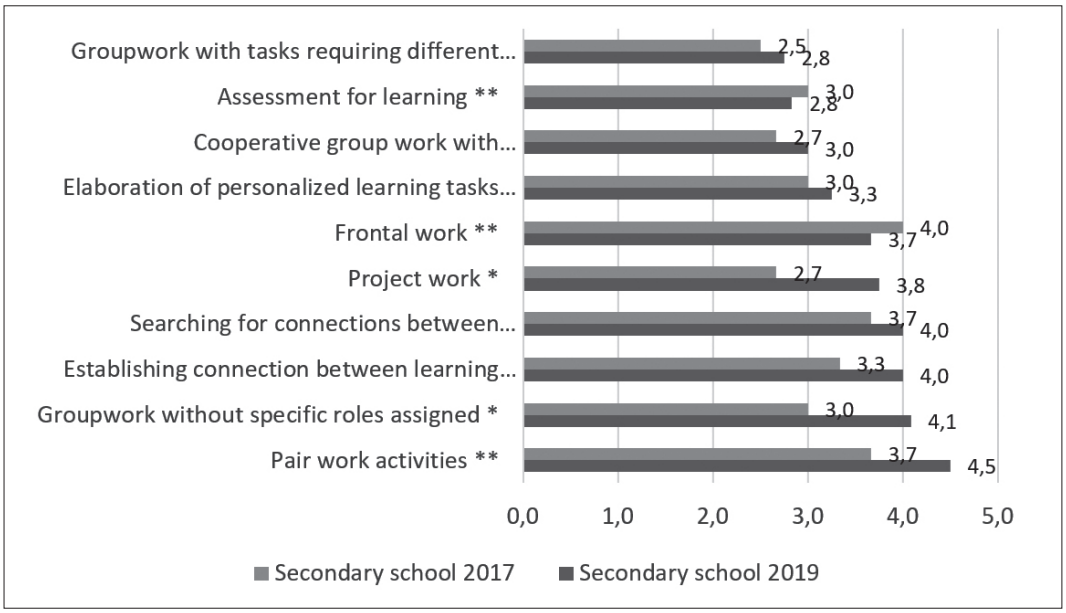
In the practice of elementary school teachers, student-centered, personalized methods were at the forefront of the project. Participation in the Student Voice project, therefore, did not change much, but rather confirmed that they were on the right track. Teachers' responses show that in 2019 some forms of work; project, formative evaluation, pair work and teamwork were used slightly more frequently than two years earlier. While this may not be the only outcome of the project for a given school, it seems to coincide with the trend for secondary school.

Based on the responses of high school teachers, there is a greater shift in high school compared to previous responses. In their case, similarly to elementary school, the use of

three methods – project work, teamwork and pair work – increased significantly, while the proportion of frontal work decreased noticeably. The distinction between project participants and non-project participants also reveals the difference between the two groups is even more significant.

With the help of other questions, we also tried to explore the changes in the processes and attitudes involved in the pedagogical work involving students to a greater extent than before. There is a shift in the response of high school teachers to what is considered in their teaching work: increased attention to students' abilities and a reduction in the need to adjust to the curriculum among responding teachers.

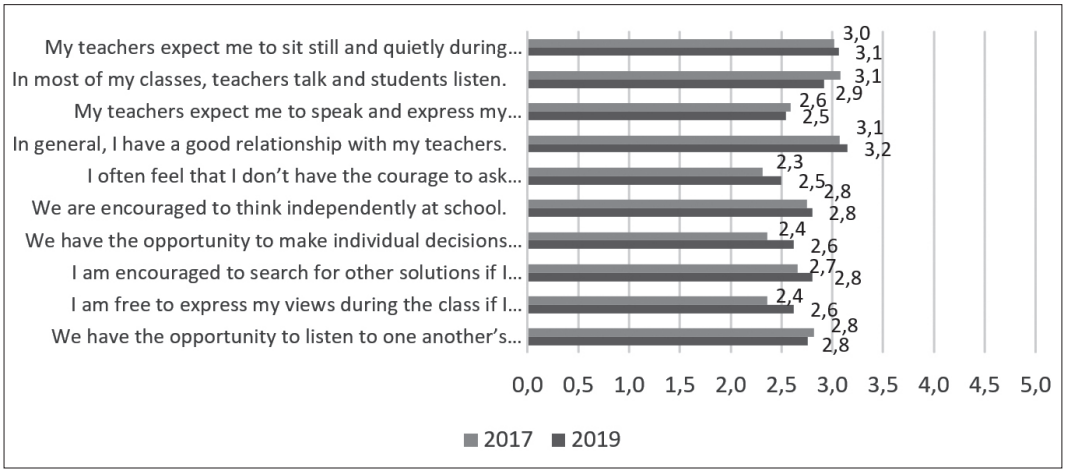
Figure 7: Use of methods. Teachers' answers, Secondary school.
(Average values on a scale of 1-4, 1-strongly disagree, 4-strongly agree)



Question asked: How often do you use the following methods?

There is also a shift between the two surveys in the subject of statements related to teacher work. Responding educators experienced a slightly higher proportion of teaching jobs as exciting and creative tasks in 2019, and fewer experienced more difficulties. More than ever, they agree that teaching is an exciting, creative task, and fewer agree that teaching is an investment of time and energy. Apparently, the question of methods also increased, and more teachers encouraged their students than before and fewer responded that they had to adjust to the curriculum.

Figure 8: Agreement with statements related to teachers' work. Teachers' answers. Secondary school. (average values of 1-5 scale)



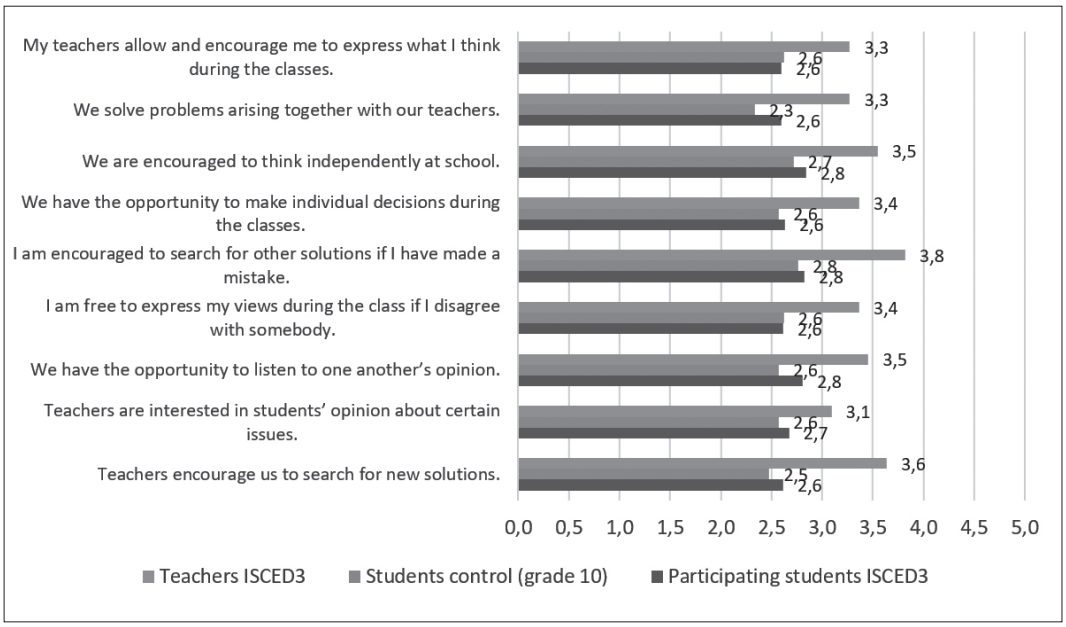
Question asked: How far do you agree with the following statements?

Changes in the perception and opinion of high school students and teachers

As it was noticeable in the previous analysis that the two main actors in the teaching and learning process were quite different in their views on the same issues, we re-examined the answers given to this question at the end of the project. In agreement with the statements, the distance between grades remained.

In high school, the distance observed between students and teachers in the past has declined in some issues (e.g. teachers are interested in what students think about certain issues); in other cases, it became even bigger (e.g. encouraging students to find new solutions, encouragement despite mistakes). Significant distance retention is indicative and may indicate differences in interpretation between students and teachers. The views of the students participating in the project, however, were closer to those of the teachers compared to the students (grade 10) who did not participate at all in the project.

Figure 9: Agreement with statements related to classroom learning.
Students' and teachers' answers compared. Secondary school.
(Average values on a scale of 1-4, 1-strongly disagree, 4-strongly agree)

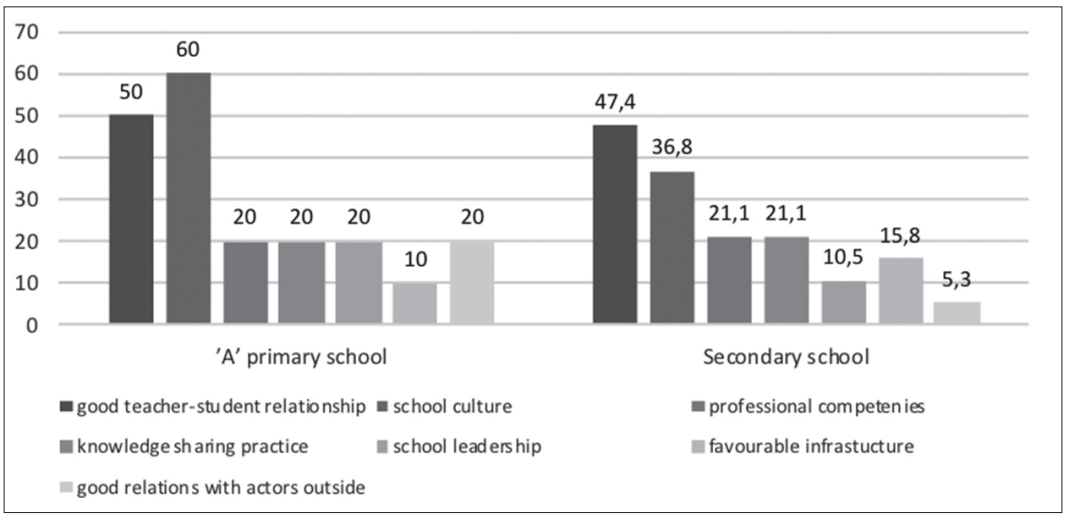


Question asked: How far do you agree with the following statements?

Opinions: implementation, organizational support

In connection with the implementation we could build on the data of the questionnaires completed by the teachers and partly on the information of the focus group discussions. In the questionnaire, teachers mentioned two factors in the first two categories of helping factors: first, the teacher-student relationship, and second, school culture and traditions. To a lesser extent, there was less professional input, knowledge sharing between teachers, management, infrastructure and external relations. The similar opinion of the teachers of the two schools is striking.

Figure 10: Factors helping implementation in primary school 'A' and in the secondary school. Teachers' answers (%)



There are far fewer similarities and more differences between the barriers. At primary school 'A', most and almost exclusively, teachers described the lack of time. For high school teachers, lack of time proved to be one of the obstacles rather than a decisive factor, with similar proportions of accepted roles and teachers' usual practices, and even more influential factors that were perceived to be of minor importance.

The focus group discussions covered three topics: firstly, the activities carried out during the project, the lessons learned, the established practices, and secondly, the changes and results observed through the established practices, and finally, the experiences of implementation in the three institutions.

Conclusion

The most important question of the research related to the Erasmus+ project, processing the experiences of the students and teachers of the participating schools, was whether the project changed the classroom practice and the opinions and attitudes of the students and teachers.

On the part of the learners, experience shows that, albeit to a modest extent, there is a need to influence the conditions of learning, especially in the field of method choice and assessment. Students also perceived the actual change in practice, but to a lesser extent than their own needs. Student needs vary from grade to grade, with higher grades appearing in higher grades, especially in high school.

Changes were also observed in the case of teachers: changes in methodological tools were more significant, and changes in views and attitudes were more modest. This suggests from experience elsewhere that in the case of teachers, methods often change more easily than attitudes, changes are not necessarily consistent across different areas.

The distance between the opinion of teachers and student is also an important consideration. Good contact between teachers and students, conversation with students, cooperation between students and teachers can also reduce the distance between opinions.

The data show that the distance between the two actors has visibly remained. Although there is a perceptible displacement on both sides, the extent of the distance is still significant, differing on both sides and different in each area. However, in comparison with the students not involved in the project (grade 10), it can also be seen that the answers of the students participating in the project were somewhat closer to the answers of their teachers than the students not participating in the project.

The organizational level can help a lot in the implementation, this is evident in the case of 'A' primary school. The vocational high school ('B' school) was big for this, here the task was new for most of the teachers. The experience of primary school 'C' also confirms that one teacher without collaboration with other educators, can have affect only within the classroom.

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Zsuzsa Kovács – Csaba Kálmán

Challenges in Measuring Self-regulated Learning at the Workplace: Validating a Questionnaire in the Hungarian Context

Summary:
Knowledge-intensive workplaces require continuous learning. Apart from formal learning opportunities, non-formal and informal learning are increasingly becoming part of our lives. Our paper presents the results of the validation process of the Hungarian version of a questionnaire that integrated different scales related to informal workplace learning activities, self-regulated learning behaviour, organizational learning conditions and basic need satisfaction (self-determination). The questionnaire was administered to 55 MA majors in Human Resources Management. Results show that the instrument worked in the Hungarian context as well and highlighted the importance of self-regulation in contributing to workplace well-being through affecting self-determination.

Keywords: *informal learning, self-regulation, self-determination, validation*

Introduction

In today's knowledge-intensive workplaces, there is a need for continuous learning to occur, as workers solve complex and novel work problems (Hager, 2004). As formal learning opportunities alone are not able to support the continuous improvement required by the changing nature of workplaces, non-formal and informal learning opportunities integrated in everyday work-practice have become the most important terrain where learning and development can be primarily achieved. Based on recent research results, up to 75 percent of learning within organizations can be labelled as informal (Noe – Ellingson, 2017). Employees learn informally through talking with colleagues, searching on the internet, attending online courses from different educational providers. Connected to this changing aspect of workplace learning, it is also intriguing how different individuals perform and manage their intentional learning activities and what are those contextual factors that can affect the effectiveness of this kind of workplace learning.

The paper presents the results of the validation process of the Hungarian version of a questionnaire that integrated different scales related to informal workplace learning activities, self-regulated learning behaviour, organizational learning conditions and basic need satisfaction.

The purpose of the investigation we prepared the questionnaire for was fourfold. On the one hand, we wanted to validate and pilot an instrument that had never been tested in Hungarian contexts in the Hungarian language. On the other hand, we would have liked to measure the relative importance of informal learning opportunities, autonomous self-regulated learning behaviour, and organizational learning conditions; additionally,

we were curious about the relationships between these scales; and finally, we also wanted to find out which of the three aspects above contributed to motivation in the workplace by having a causative effect on self-determination.

Theoretical background

Workplace learning (work-related learning) refers to the acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes that are necessary for improving the quality of work in workplace situations (Tynjälä, 2008; Gijbels et al., 2012). Workplace learning can take different forms depending on the individual's position in the workplace and on many contextual factors related to the workplace environment. At least three basic modes of workplace learning can be distinguished (Tynjälä, 2008):

(1) incidental and informal learning, which takes place as a side effect of work,
(2) intentional, but non-formal learning activities related to work, and
(3) formal on-the-job and off-the-job training.

Marsick and Watkins (2001), stated that the workplace environment could provide rich opportunities for learning and made a distinction between informal and incidental learning. According to them, informal learning is experiential and takes place outside educational institutes but can be planned, while the term incidental learning refers to unplanned learning that takes place as a side effect of other activities. In contrast, intentional informal learning activities are easier to observe, describe, and research than those that are unintentional and more integrated into other tasks. A number of studies have tried to describe those learning activities that employees adopt for intentional informal learning and resulted in a list of different learning activities, such as observing or replicating colleagues' strategies to complete a task, performing new tasks, following new developments in their field, as well as reflecting on previous actions.

Theories of *self-regulated learning* (SRL) can support our understanding of the learner's role in autonomous learning contexts. As the responsibility for learning moves from the training department to the learner, workers have to manage their own learning activities within their work duties and organizational context (Fontana et al., 2015). Individuals self-regulate by determining what to learn and how to learn it during goal setting, monitoring progress and adopting different strategies to achieve learning goals. Self-regulation is the "*self-generated thoughts, feelings and actions that are planned and cyclically adapted to the attainment of personal goals*" (Zimmerman, 2000: 14).

Self-regulated learning has been studied extensively in formal educational contexts, leading to the development of different models; however, recent studies highlight that self-regulation embedded in informal learning that is "*continual, dynamic and deeply intertwined with work goals*" (Milligan et al., 2015: 389) may not appear precisely as described in SRL theories for formal education. Schulz and Stamov Rossnagel (2010), based on their survey, concluded that an individual's ability to self-regulate their learning was a predictor of success in informal learning. The study identified some important learner attributes that are crucial for successful SRL, such as the ability to set learning goals; to plan, monitor and evaluate learning; and possessing a positive learning orientation.

It is not enough just to develop those skills and knowledge that help workers self-regulate their learning but the effectiveness of work-related activities is also affected by the contextual conditions that support or hinder learning opportunities. These conditions – labelled *organizational learning conditions* – involve activities and facilities in the workplace that already exist or can be created in order for workers to not just perform well but

also to learn simultaneously (Kyndt – Beausaert, 2017). Previous research investigating employees' conceptions of contextual conditions for workplace learning (Kyndt – Dochy – Nijs, 2009): opportunities for cooperation, knowledge acquisition and access information, being coached, opportunities for feedback, opportunities for reflection and opportunities for work evaluation.

According to earlier research, *cooperation among individuals* is important in achieving results, by listening, observing, and discussing problematic situations people learn from others' experiences (Collin, 2002). Opportunities created for cooperative interaction, such as project teams, work meeting or common rooms for meetings in this way could offer the possibility of developing competences (Kyndt – Dochy – Nijs, 2009). *Knowledge acquisition and access to information* imply those possibilities that offer information about important decision in organizations, results of the team or new work situations and developments. *Coaching* is a type of professional supervising where people are guided and facilitated for a better performance, thus becoming a key activity for supporting learning in the workplace. *Opportunities for feedback* involves offering information about actions and results supporting individuals' learning. Feedback can occur on a day-to-day basis but can also appear intentionally organized, for example, in the format of 360 ° feedback where employees learn about their strengths and weaknesses from colleagues, supervisors and themselves (Kyndt – Dochy – Nijs, 2009). Debriefings or case discussions can offer great *opportunities for reflection*, only the act of reflecting should be initiated and undertaken by the learner. Learning from *evaluating work experiences* can be divided into three subcategories: learning through one's own work experiences, learning from mistakes and learning through the accumulation of experiences and competencies (Collin, 2002). Such feedback evaluation is expected to facilitate individual's learning process, most likely, reflective learning.

Basic Need satisfaction in the workplace – Self-Determination Theory (SDT) serves as a broad framework for the study of human motivation and personality. The theory posits three universal psychological needs – the needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness – and suggests that work climates that allow satisfaction of these needs facilitate both work engagement and psychological well-being (Deci et al., 2001). SDT's basic needs are conceptually distinct from motives, as they represent a specification of what is required for integrative, truly self-regulated functioning (Ryan – Deci, 2019). Supporting basic needs is critical to enhance intrinsic motivation and internalization – both fundamental to psychological growth and integrity (Ryan, 1995).

Methods

As was specified in the Introduction of our paper, the research questions (RQ) we wanted to get answers to, were the following:

- RQ1: Do the pre-existing, validated dimensions of *informal learning, workplace features that support learning, self-regulation,* and *self-determination* work in the Hungarian context?
- RQ2: What is the relative importance of the dimensions of *informal learning, organisational learning conditions,* and *self-regulation* and their sub-scales in Hungarian contexts?
- RQ3: What is the relationship between the dimensions of *informal learning, organisational learning conditions, self-regulation,* and *self-determination, as well as between the sub-scales in the dimensions?*
- RQ4: Which of the dimensions and sub-scales have a causative effect on *self-determination*?

Participants

The participants of the online survey were correspondent students with working experience at the Human Resource Management MA program of the Faculty of Education and Psychology of Eötvös Loránd University. Out of the 55 participants, 45 were female, 10 were male. 15 of them were between the ages of 18 and 25, 17 of them between 26 and 35, 14 of them between 36 and 45, seven of them between 46 and 55, and two of them over 55.

Instrument

The questionnaire consisted of four sections containing 98 items. The four sections measured *informal learning activities* (ILA) (translated from Fontana et al., 2015), *organisational learning conditions (OLC)* (translated from Kyndt – Beausert, 2017), *self-regulation (SR)* (translated from Fontana et al., 2015), and a criterion dimension, *self-determination (SD)* (translated from Deci et al., 2001). Three of the dimensions were further divided into variables. Within OLC, we measured *opportunities for cooperation*, *access to information*, *feedback opportunities*, *reflection opportunities*, *participation in work evaluation activities*, and *being coached*. In the SR dimension, *forethought phase*, *performance phase*, and *reflection phase* were measured. Within the criterion dimension of SD, *autonomy*, *competence*, and *relatedness* were investigated.

For questions 1 to 77, participants indicated on a 5-point Likert scale to what extent they agreed with statements, whereas for questions 78 to 98 in the criterion dimension, they marked their answers on a 7-point Likert scale. In the last part, background questions were asked concerning the participants' age and gender.

Procedures

The questionnaire items originally developed in English were translated into Hungarian by the two authors independently. Subsequently, a third independent translator was asked to back-translate the items into English to ensure accuracy. The instrument was administered online in October 2019, and SPSS 25.0 was used to analyse the data.

Results

In order to check the internal reliability of the four dimensions (Table 1), as well as the multi-item scales within the dimensions (Table 2), the Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were computed. All but one of the scales yielded favourable Cronbach's Alphas. The data suggested that the Cronbach's αs for the *Relatedness* variable was relatively low. With the help of factor analysis, the dimensionality of the scale was determined, and the results revealed that the *Relatedness* scale was in fact two-dimensional. Interestingly, negatively worded items constituted one component, and the remaining items the rest. In wake of this analysis, we concluded that we would reconsider the translation of the negatively worded items before we set out to do the main study.

Table 1: Reliability coefficients for the dimensions

Dimension	Cronbach's
Informal learning activities (ILA)	.77
Organizational learning conditions (OLC)	.93
Self-regulation (SR)	.94
Self-determination (SD)	.82

Table 2: Reliability coefficients for the variables within the dimensions

Variables within the dimensions	Cronbach's
OLC Opportunities for cooperation	.87
OLC Access to information	.68
OLC Feedback opportunities	.84
OLC Reflection opportunities	.76
OLC Participation in work evaluation activities	.84
OLC Being coached	.89
SR Forethought phase	.88
SR Performance phase	.90
SR Reflection phase	.82
SD Autonomy	.70
SD Competence	.70
SD Relatedness	.55

Comparative analysis of the scales

Table 3 presents descriptive statistics of the dimensions, their mean values and standard deviation values. We can see from the data that within the first three dimensions, *SR* showed the highest mean at 3.94, which suggests that SR plays the most crucial role in the professional learning of the participants of the survey. Paired samples T tests have shown that there are significant differences between the mean values of the first three dimensions. Therefore, the dimension of ILA at 3.65 and that of OLC at 3.13 are of smaller importance when we consider their contribution to professional development. The 4.88 mean on a scale of 1 to 7 of the criterion measure dimension SD leads us to believe that the participants generally have positive feelings towards their work, and presumably score high on the three components of SD. If we investigate the subcomponents of the dimensions, and those of the criterion measure, we can see that within OLC, feedback opportunities had the highest mean of 4.03, while being coached scored lowest at 2.83. Within the SR dimension, all three variables reached relatively high mean values, with performance phase (4.10) being significantly higher than the other two variables (3.87 and 3.67). As regards the criterions measure, competence (5.33) turned out to be significantly higher than autonomy (4.71) and relatedness (4.67), which indicated that the participants felt content and competent in what they did, and had opportunities to develop.

Table 3: Descriptive statistics of the dimensions

Dimensions	Means	Standard deviation
Informal learning activities (1 to 5)	3.65	.45
Organizational learning conditions (1 to 5)	3.13	.77
Self-regulation (1 to 5)	3.94	.48
Self-determination (1 to 7)	4.88	.74

Table 4: Descriptive statistics of the variables within the dimensions

Variables	Means	Standard deviation
Informal learning activities (1 to 5)	3.65	.45
OLC Opportunities for cooperation (1 to 5)	3.11	.94
OLC Access to information (1 to 5)	3.40	.86
OLC Feedback opportunities (1 to 5)	4.03	.88
OLC Reflection opportunities (1 to 5)	2.98	1.01
OLC Participation in work evaluation activities (1 to 5)	2.83	1.15
OLC Being coached (1 to 5)	2.71	1.07
SR Forethought phase (1 to 5)	3.87	.53
SR Performance phase (1 to 5)	4.10	.51
SR Reflection phase (1 to 5)	3.67	.65
SD Autonomy (1 to 7)	4.71	.97
SD Competence (1 to 7)	5.33	.94
SD Relatedness (1 to 7)	4.67	.78

Relationships among the scales

In order to find out what relationships might describe the dimensions, we carried out correlational analyses. Table 5 presents significant correlations between the dimensions, whereas Table 6 shows significant correlations between the variables within the dimensions. In order to guarantee a much smaller likelihood of the events occurring simply by chance, only correlations where $p < .001$ are reported.

Table 5: Significant correlations ($p < .001$) between the dimensions

	1	2	3	4
1. IL	–			
2. OLC	.435	–		
3. SR	.379	.419	–	
4. SD	.458	.557	.583	–

As can be seen in Table 6, there were moderate correlations between the scales in general, and the highest values were obtained between the scales of OLC and SD (.557), and the scales of SR and SD (.583). Based on these data, it can be concluded that those participants whose workplaces exhibit features that support professional development stronger, and are better at self-regulation, tend to experience higher autonomy, stronger relatedness, and more competence in their jobs. Interestingly, IL did not correlate with SD to such an extent. If we examine significant correlations between the subcomponents of the four dimensions, we get a more detailed picture of which latent subdimensions correlate. As the length of this paper is limited, we describe only the three highest correlations that are marked in bold print in Table 6.

Table 6: Significant correlations ($p < .001$) between the variables within the dimensions

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Informal learning	–												
2. Opportunities for cooperation	.431	–											
3. Access to information	.333	**.694**	–										
4. Feedback opportunities		.464	.590	–									
5. Reflection opportunities	.355	.570	.521	.521	–								
6. Participation in work evalu. activ.		.522	.476	.491	**.697**	–							
7. Being coached		.454	.375	.359	.594	.641	–						
8. SR Forethought phase	.438	.504	.431	.389	.433	.286		–					
9. SR Performance phase				.355	.320			**.762**	–				
10. SR Reflection phase				.354	.374			.593	.639	–			
11. Autonomy	.380	.363	.389	.456	.568	.472	.508	.510	.429	.445	–		
12. Competence	.398	.514	.550	.440	.380			.638	.457	.401	.605	–	
13. Relatedness	.352							.422			.445	.487	–

The data show that the *forethought phase* scale of the SR dimension showed the strongest correlation (.762) with the *performance phase* scale of the SR dimension, which is not surprising and attests to the proximity of the two scales. It can be hypothesized that those who exhibit high scores in self-regulation in the preparatory phase of an activity, will carry over this attribute to the performance phase as well. The second highest correlation (.697) was found between *reflection opportunities* and *participation in work evaluation activities*. The strong correlation value is not a surprise again, as the two dimensions tap into similar domains. Finally, the third strongest correlation (.694) was measured between *opportunities for cooperation* and *access to information*, which proves that those who cooperate more with their workmates have access to more information.

In order to determine causality and to find out which dimensions act as predictors of the participants' SD, we carried out linear regression analyses with a stepwise approach. The results are summarized in Table 7. Out of the three dimensions investigated, only two contributed significantly to SD: SR and OLC.

Table 7: Results of regression analysis of the scales with *SD* as the criterion variable (significance level p < .01)

Variable		**β**		**t**		**p**			
1.SR		.42		3.90		<.001			
2.OLC		.37		3.46		<.001			
R^2							.45		

It can be seen from the data that the proportion of variance in SD that can be explained by the two independent variables is 45%, and the impact of SR (.42) is somewhat stronger than the impact of OLC (.37) in the equation. By comparison, the data obtained from the regression analysis of the sub-components scales within the three dimensions (see Table 8), suggest a slightly stronger causality (.49).

Table 8: Results of regression analysis of the scales with *SD* as the criterion variable (significance level p < .01)

Variable		**β**		**t**		**p**			
1.SR Forethought		.58		6.23		<.001			
2.OLC being coached		.30		3.19		<.001			
R^2							.49		

Out of the ten variables, two contributed significantly to SD: SR forethought, and being coached. Here, the distribution of the strength of the two scales is very different (their β values are .58, .30), which implies that the strength of the forethought phase of SR is almost twice as strong as the effect of being coached. While the strong causative effect of the *forethought phase* of SR on SD can be explained by the common autonomous feature of the two, it is surprising that *being coached* turned out to be the second variable that contributed to SD. It seems that while the participants of the survey exhibited high levels of autonomy (4.71), it does not mean that they enjoy being autonomous on their own. On the contrary, it can be assumed that by autonomously making the choice of being coached, they can achieve a higher level of SD.

Conclusion

The pilot survey aimed to validate and pilot an instrument to measure different aspects of workplace learning, namely, self-regulated learning, participation in informal learning activities, workplace features that could support learning processes and basic needs satisfaction. The results of the survey supported our assumption that the scales that we translated into Hungarian have a strong internal reliability and with minor corrections can be used for further investigations. In addition, further statistical analyses revealed that self-regulation plays a central role in describing intentional informal learning activities in the workplace.

Having answered all four research questions, some possible future directions have emerged, such as: how different levels of self-regulated learning behaviour affects work performance and predicts the intentionality of professional development. Also, it would be worth considering whether different occupations influence self-regulated learning behaviour.

Probably, we will have to integrate further research methods in our work to determine if the usage of the instrument itself makes it easier for employees to reflect on their practice and help them identify areas for learning and development. By creating a better understanding of the employees' capacity to self-regulate their learning, we can support organizations in building up structures that can facilitate knowledge workers becoming and remaining effective employees in today's constantly changing nature of work.

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Ildikó Zank

Action Research in Teacher Education: Reframing Experience and Co-Producing Knowledge

Summary:
This paper investigates possible new ways of professional learning in the context of teacher education embedded in action research. The aim of the research was to explore how the attitudes of prospective teachers can be revealed and possibly modified through reflective-cooperative practice. Participants had the possibility to reflect on the intensive, content-rich and sustained collaboration, as the cycles of action research created 'communicative spaces' in which dialogue can flourish. Common construction of knowledge was supported, so joint planning, team-teaching, and providing collegial reflections throughout the course were applied in order to enhance teachers' self-efficacy.

Keywords: *action research, co-producing knowledge, collegial learning*

Action research as a space for learning

Action research is a value-oriented, reflective process designed to inform and influence practice in which all participants can benefit from a supportive environment and a reflective learning process. It is based on collaborative relationships while focusing on immediate application rather than development of a theory (Noffke – Somekh, 2010). Rather than investigating a hypothesis, action research systematically explores a problem, an idea, and in this process researchers not only gain a better understanding of the research situation itself but also of themselves, their own behaviour, values and attitudes. This way action research can also be seen as a form of self-evaluation in a professional context (McNiff, 2002). By way of "professional learning", action research opens up new spaces for communication, promotes dialogues and the building of common knowledge constructed from the interaction of different views and reflections of participants. New knowledge is most often generated through dialogues between participants and is ideally based on trust, common values, moral commitment (Málovics, 2014), and a democratic and inclusive approach. Action research also fosters collaborative relationships and more egalitarian relations between participants by maintaining an extended view of "expertise" which is based on innovative partnership rather than a hierarchy of different types of knowledge. *"The idea of co-producing knowledge recognizes that knowledge is plural and that our research participants provide knowledge, which is turned into propositional knowledge – by the researchers – for dissemination to academic and policy audiences."* (Pearce, 2008: 16) The outcome of common knowledge construction is unpredictable since the research itself is *"guided by the process and context"* (Pearce, 2008: 18), which is a less comfortable and controlled methodology compared to traditional research. However, it serves the aim *"to value and support any unexpected and emergent new areas of thinking and practice as well as new relationships"* (Pearce, 2008: 18). As a systematic, collaborative and participatory

process of inquiry, embedded in teacher training, action research facilitated professional development in several ways:

- By reflecting on our experience we gained a deeper understanding of our role as professionals which in turn helped us make judgements about our effectiveness.
- Framing and reframing experiences enabled us to extend our professional knowledge, thus obtaining alternative perspectives which made it easier to reflect on emotionally challenging situations.
- Maintaining a research-oriented mindset contributed to the professionalization process reinforcing the feeling of self-efficacy and competency.

We are convinced that *"research on effective professional development also highlights the importance of collaborative and collegial learning environments that help develop communities of practice able to promote school change beyond individual classrooms"* (Darling-Hammond – Richardson, 2009: 3). We experienced collaborative learning as an intensive and sustained process, since this environment allows teachers *"to raise issues, take risks, and address dilemmas in their own practice"* (Darling-Hammond – Richardson, 2009: 3) and by providing an opportunity to reflect on results with colleagues, it helped us gain a deeper insight of how students learn.

Cycles of action research in teacher education

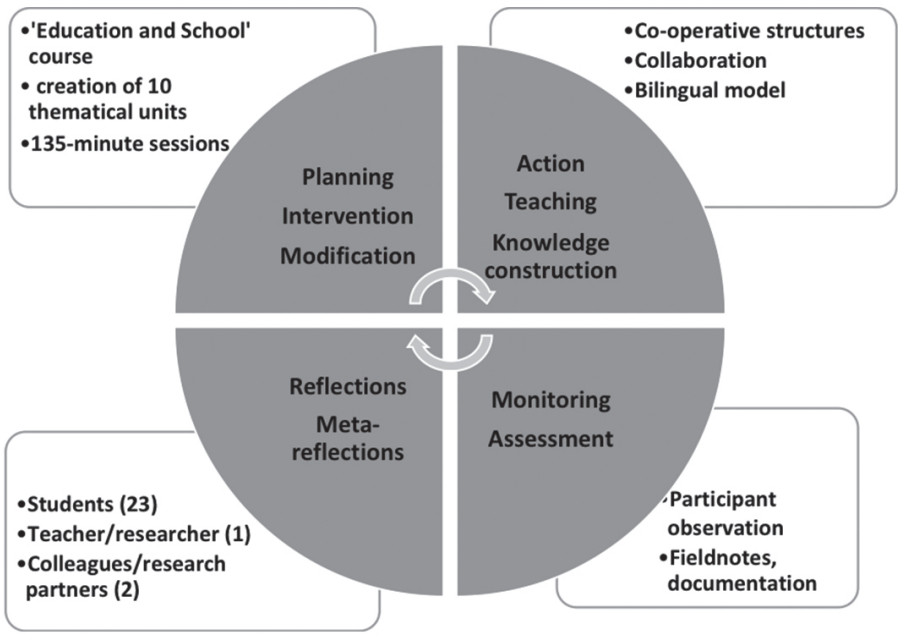
The research was conducted in the 2019 spring semester as part of the teacher education programme at the University of Pécs, Faculty of Humanities, Institute of Education Sciences, embedded in a course for second year students (Education and School) during which we created the conditions for cooperative learning and collaborative teaching. The ten thematical units of the course material were adjusted to befit the cooperative principles: personally inclusive parallel interactions, constructive and encouraging interdependence, personal responsibility and individual accountability, equal access and participation, conscious competence development. (Arató – Varga, 2015) Cooperative structures were chosen over the traditional teaching method because they *"powerfully assist the acquisition of transversal competencies"* such as systemic thinking and collective knowledge building, problem-solving, critical thinking, cooperative spirit and skills navigating in knowledge networks (Arató, 2015). Our decision to apply a bilingual model (the use of both Hungarian and English language as a medium) served three purposes:

- By creating a foreign language environment we intended to urge students to use English *in*, *through* and *for* learning in order to develop their cognitive as well as interpersonal and social skills.
- It was our intention to keep students in their 'learning zone' by creating the need to adjust to new conditions, handle challenging situations, and allow themselves new experiences.
- As mentioned before, students worked in constant micro-groups and there was an inequality among the members regarding foreign language proficiency. In order to efficiently deal with authentic English input, team members had to pool their knowledge, share skills, so they all could benefit from the contribution of others. Our aim was to facilitate true cooperation among members and create positive interdependence within the teams.

The 23 students registered on the course were assessed by regular knowledge retainment tests, while the Psychological Immune Competence Inventory (Oláh, 2005) was administered at the beginning and the end of the course to measure positive personality traits and the

possible changes in the psychological immune competencies of student teachers. Reflections of students were documented in the form of structured written feedback at the end of each 135-minute session. As part of the research process three teachers/instructors collaborated on the course by way of joint planning, team-teaching, participant observation as well as providing collegial reflections and acting as 'critical friend'. (Schuck – Russell, 2005) Participant observation (colleagues taking turns teaching and observing), taking fieldnotes and collecting artifacts such as posters and mind-maps produced by students enabled us to closely monitor the teaching/learning process. Modifications, adjustments were made on the basis of the feedback from students as well as the reflections and interpretations made by the participants, thus the research process became a series of interventions, visually summarized in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Action research cycles



Partnership and responsibility

It was our aspiration to create an "alliance" with the students building on shared values and mutual respect, so that they take individual responsibility for their actions and decisions. We were determined to form a sense of partnership with them, so from the very beginning of the research process we set out to create a space for dialogue between all participants. In order to foster student teachers' involvement in the action research process, three strategies were applied: students were asked to sign a contract, cooperative learning structures were adopted throughout the course, and there was a strong emphasis on mutual meta-reflections. The contract (signed by each individual student and all the teachers) served as a common framework for all the activities planned to take place in the context of the research and briefly described the aims and the content of the course, while it also listed the course requirements and student teachers' competencies to be developed.

Cooperative structures and engagement

The second strategy, in line with the philosophy of participatory action research, was the consistent application of cooperative learning structures in the classroom. Suggested by literature, it was assumed that engaging students in cooperative learning *"promotes a more constructive management of conflicts than competitive or individualistic efforts. It promotes self-acceptance as a competent person, higher-level reasoning and critical thinking competences, more frequent generation of new ideas, higher student achievement and deeper retention"* (Arató, 2015: 35). Therefore, micro-groups of four students were formed which functioned as *"the substantive space of personal and social behaviour"* (Arató – Varga, 2015: 36). The organisation of the course material and the classroom activities were planned at micro-group level in order to *"structurally deconstruct the hierarchical, logocentric and teacher-centred education"* (Arató – Varga, 2015: 35) and to efficiently apply the following principles:

- Personally inclusive parallel interactions put an emphasis on personal involvement in learning, and simultaneous interactions to multiply the number of dialogues in class reflecting the attitude that knowledge is the result of collective creation.
- Constructive and encouraging interdependence means that the focus is on the relationship of the group members (learners) while working towards a common goal. On the other hand, the collective effort of the group is essential for the individuals to reach their goal.
- Personal responsibility and individual accountability allows for individual development (personal and social competencies) supported by personalised (peer) feedback. There is a focus on individual attitudes, behaviours, actions and taking responsibility for them and learners are assessed by their individual learning outcomes.
- Equal access and participation reflects everybody's democratic right to access shared knowledge as well as making their voices heard regardless of the stage they are at in the learning process.
- Conscious competence development means that cooperative learning not only builds on learners' competences but also helps to recognise and articulate learners' own different competences and supports their conscious development (Arató – Varga, 2015; Arató, 2013; Herrmann, 2013).

Since the structural approach of cooperative learning carries paradigmatic features, it *"could be understood as a deconstructive paradigm that provides some pragmatic answers to the questions of our everyday educational practice from classroom level to educational system level, focusing on the destruction of hierarchical and anti-democratic structures of learning while setting up cooperative ones"* (Arató, 2013: 58). We maintain that cooperative learning is a crucial and relevant component of our model; we found, however, that students might develop ambiguous feelings such as "resentment towards being dependent on peers, conflicts arising over varying levels of ambition, and distrust towards peers" (Herrmann, 2013: 2), to which we reacted by undertaking interventions as part of the action research cycles. In order to handle mistrust in the groups we introduced regular teambuilding exercises and emotional intelligence activities which supported individuals to recognize and understand their own feelings and that of their peers. To handle students' frustration of being confronted with English language as a medium of instruction and feeling inadequate (some of them actually panicked), we introduced skill-based differentiation and restructured the learning process. In the context of action research, we perceived our roles as facilitators, and it was our intention to not only provide practical examples to prospective teachers but also create conditions for them to experience the need to take responsibility and to work out possible resolutions.

This approach reflects our belief that knowledge is a social construction to be developed by a learning community, and that in educational practice the focus should be on the learning process itself with the main goal of achieving autonomous learning (Arató, 2013).

Aspects of reflection – reframing experience

Throughout the cycles of action research, we encouraged a structured and systematic reflective practice and based the interventions (modification of content and/or methodology) on the written feedback of students. These individual reflections – providing us with an insight of unique and personal nature – were assessed between sessions and taken into consideration in planning interventions for the next class. We define reflection as *"a deliberate and conscientious process that employs a person's cognitive, emotional and somatic capacities to mindfully contemplate on past, present or future actions"* (Harvey et al., 2016: 11) and we go along with the view that emotions which may arise during experience contribute to the learning process (Harvey et al., 2016). As opposed to systematic written reflections, meta-reflections occurred orally during the teaching/learning process and can be interpreted as a conscious, deliberate and joint effort to make sense of the process itself. Instances of meta-reflections provide a good example of the 'communicative spaces' in which dialogue can flourish (Reason – Bradbury, 2008). It was in these dialogues that student teachers became true, emancipated partners in the action research shaping the understanding of our professional roles as teacher educators. Meta-reflections often happened as a 'time out' in the middle of the teaching-learning process, when students were seeking to develop an understanding of what was happening to them, framing and reframing their reactions to their experiences and interpreting the reflections of the teachers.

Gathering and interpretation of data

Action research does not stand for the idea of objectivity and value-free researcher – as something rooted in the tradition of positivist science but *"emphasizes the need to understand people's subjective experience and the meanings they give it in context"* (Pearce, 2008: 8), so it always offers a multiplicity of viewpoints. During the research process a space for constant dialogue of theory and practice evolves while the researcher is committed to learn through critical evaluation, reflection and introspection. We consider 'triangulation' (the convergence of information from different sources) not only a key research strategy but also as a dialogue of methods, participants and sources. 'Theory triangulation' involved the inclusion of new theoretical schemes in the interpretation of newly occurring phenomenon and helped us to frame and reframe experiences. In order to create 'investigator triangulation', we established ourselves as an academic research group focusing on a better understanding and improvement of our own practice in teacher education, while using the data for theory/model building. Finally, we also focused on 'methodological triangulation' using mixed (quantitative and qualitative) methods for data gathering: participant observation, structured written feedback from students, and the Psychological Immune Competence Inventory (PICI). The interpretation of data in action research parallels the "abductive process" which starts from the consequences and looks for the reasons, while generating new knowledge. In this dynamic, iterative process of reasoning the researcher has to decide between alternative explanations based on observations, clues, signs. (Soldati et al., 2017) In our case the cumulative PICI and PICI scales (protective personality traits) were compared between the intervention group (participating in the action research) and the two control groups at the two measuring points (beginning and end of the course.) The

intervention group showed significant growth in social mobilizing capacity, self-efficacy, empathy, sense of control, social creating capacity and self-esteem while the two control groups showed stagnation or slight decrease on the same scales. The preliminary results of text coding indicate that cooperative structures had a likely impact on strengthening group identity which in turn had stress-reducing effects in the intervention group. In the abductive, inferential process the results of the PICI scales may be confronted with the categories emerging from the coding process (Grounded Theory) of students' texts and the trends can be related to the inferences made on the basis of participant observation.

Towards professional development

A variety of studies describe the learning of teachers as an emotional process which often concentrates on reframing their limited and negative self-concept and their beliefs about educational situations. According to Korthagen, successful coaching may lead to *"increased feelings of autonomy, more self-efficacy"* (Korthagen, 2017: 398) and he points out that teacher learning is multi-level, multi-dimensional, often unconscious and first of all value-based; however, learning communities are true facilitators of professional development. Teacher learning as described by Korthagen parallels the learning process of collaborative action research where shared common experience helps participants frame and reframe incidents, experiences, events to gain alternative perspectives. Professional knowledge is developed through effective reflective practice which *"offers a way of interpreting problematic situations that dramatically diminishes the need to rationalize one's behaviour"* (Loughran, 2002: 13). During the action research process, we collaborated in order to gain a deeper understanding of the teaching and learning processes, student attitudes and our own effectiveness in teacher education. However, we claim that teacher collaboration is not only crucial in the process of teacher education (Mrázik, 2017) but professional competencies for teacher educators in higher education can also be identified (such as teaching, communication, personal, research competencies) which enable the development of innovative partnerships (Mrázik, 2019). The practitioners involved in action research work in and reflect on a complex and dynamic environment while the exploration of their personal philosophy, beliefs and attitudes take place. The professional development facilitated by our participation in collaborative action research has brought about changes in several dimensions of teacher well-being (as proposed by an upcoming OECD project on Supporting Teachers' Professional Learning and Well-being for Quality Teaching):

- Growing self-efficacy in classroom management, instructions, student engagement (cognitive well-being),
- Commitment to change, feeling of trust, higher job satisfaction (psychological well-being),
- Improvement in workplace relationship, teacher cooperation (social well-being) (OECD, 2018).

Collaborative action research not only offers a strategy for change and professional development, but also has the potential to improve teachers' beliefs in their ability to perform (self-efficacy), which is closely linked to teachers' well-being and strongly influences their academic achievement and behaviour. We fully support Hine's proposal that *"universities must include action research as a core unit in teacher preparation programmes"* as it holds significant value to improving practice (Hine, 2013: 161). A research-oriented mindset, systematic reflection on experience supported by a learning community can empower individuals, prevent burn out and may positively influence teaching quality and job satisfaction.

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EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Ágnes Bálint

Teaching (Foreign) Language to Chimps and Children

Summary:
The most successful way of language learning is language acquisition, which is based on implicit, rather than explicit learning. Implicit learning is more effective when it comes to acquiring complex patterns. All these were not clear in the 1960s when language teaching experiments with chimpanzees began. Researchers equipped with the behaviorist learning theory insisted on the explicit way of learning and made language learning to chimps boring, inefficient and in some cases impossible. In my paper I argue that the failure of the language teaching experiments was due to the misconceptualization of learning and language as well as to the inappropriate way of teaching and the ignorance of the animal mind. I also argue that foreign language teaching to children has not dispensed enough with its behaviorist roots even in the 21st century. My conclusion is that language teaching could much more exploit the benefits of implicit learning. The still unconsciously operating outdated cognitive principles of language teaching need to be supervised and reestablished based on the newest research findings in learning science.

Keywords: *language teaching, language acquisition, implicit learning, behaviorism*

The two pathways of learning (explicit and implicit)

The acquisition of one's mother tongue is not due to explicit learning, but rather to a spontaneous, unconscious, effortless process that allows one to gain the highest possible level of language proficiency in just a couple of years. The idea that language acquisition is based on an independent learning process other than explicit learning has long been the subject of theoretical assumptions (Karmiloff-Smith, 1992; Ellis, 1994; Winter – Reber, 1994; Perruchet, 2008; Ellis et al., 2009). This learning process that exists in its own right, is called implicit learning in the wake of Reber (1967, 1993). Implicit learning is not exclusively about language acquisition. In all cases where one is surrounded by a complex stimulus environment – in a physical, social or linguistic sense – one creates order in chaos through implicit learning. The brain is able to filter out meaningful patterns from complex environmental stimuli, which allows one to effectively navigate in an initially unknown terrain (Berry – Dienes, 1993).

The theoretical assumptions that clearly separated the implicit and explicit pathways of learning have now been supported by a series of empirical studies (e.g. Robinson, 2001; Pacton – Fayol – Perruchet, 2005; Pretz – Totz – Kaufman, 2010) and it turned out that the two pathways rely on separate underlying neurological bases. Using a brain imaging procedure, Hazeltine and Ivry (2003) pointed out that in complex learning tasks, the implicit system is activated: the medial supplementary motor cortex (MSMC) and the basal ganglia. In contrast, in simple tasks, the explicit system is activated, which relies mainly on the functioning of the frontal and prefrontal cortex (Ellis, 2009; Hazeltine – Ivry, 2003; Kaufman et al., 2010). The two systems, however, have some overlaps as well.

Reber (1967, 1993) points out that implicit learning evolutionary precedes the consciously controlled explicit one and he assumes that people show slighter individual differences in this respect than in the area of explicit learning abilities. The implicit pathway is prewired in the mammalian brain.

The two pathways of learning differ in many ways. The explicit one is conscious and effortful, while the implicit is undeliberate and subjectively feels effortless, though the latter is just an illusion because both processes lead to pretty much the same amount of energy consumption. Explicit learning is good for picking up new structures that are ready made for learning purposes. It is the best strategy when the knowledge to be learnt is well structured and the learner can follow a serial path were the new knowledge is step-by-step complexified. On the contrary, implicit learning is good for picking up new complex patterns from a not too well structured, rather chaotic, natural learning environment. The implicitly learned structures work as meaningful but poorly analyzed wholes in the learner's mind, but in turn hold the full complexity of the picked-up knowledge.

Both pathways of learning are powerful tools for human cognition. The explicit one is more powerful when it comes to learning pre-structured units of knowledge, the "natural" occurrence medium of which is usually school (textbooks, lectures, etc.). The reached complexity level here depends on the quantity and the quality of the learning activity. If the learning activity was successful, the learner can easily have conscious access to the newly gained knowledge.

On the other hand, implicit learning is powerful when the learning environment is full of by nature complex patterns (like language or social patterns) and the learner is ready to "absorb" them. In this case the complexity level of the newly learned knowledge is given, the learner needs to make no additional effort to abstract or complexify it. The unconscious way of gaining knowledge, however, later often results in difficulties of verbalization or in other ways of conscious control over the new knowledge.

In the background of language acquisition, mainly the implicit learning processes operate. Young children rely on their innate abilities to figure out what is going on around them in the verbal chaos. And they succeed in some years' time, despite their young age and immature cognitive abilities. But as soon as it comes to learn a foreign language, usually at school, we tend to insist on the child's explicit way of learning as if the royal way to language proficiency led by reading and listening to simplified texts, grammar practice and memorizing vocabulary items. Foreign language teaching fails to expose the learners to the full complexity of the language. It tends to ignore the brain's ability to pick up complex patterns easily – more easily than consciously constructing or reconstructing them from simple components.

In addition to acknowledging that explicit learning also plays some beneficial role in effective language learning, in this article I argue that language teachers must reconsider the role of implicit learning in the course of language learning process and encourage learners to rely on their more ancient language processing skills even in classroom environment. The balance tited in favor of implicit learning in the long run would result in a much more efficient language learning and a language proficiency comparable to the native speakers' level.

Animals and language

In the 1960s, when the systematic language teaching experiments with apes started, all these were not yet known. Linguists and psychologists had consented that humans exceed all animals in language ability. Animals were not attributed language acquisition

competencies (nor any higher-level cognitive abilities), though researchers hoped that they could be taught some language in order to use it for communicational purposes.

Researchers had consented that animals were unable to produce articulated speech (except for some small birds, like parrots) due to their different anatomical construction, so it would make no sense to teach them to speak. Still, animals tend use vocal signals for communicational purposes among conspecifics. Species communicate within each other at frequencies that their predators do not hear or do not hear well (Doidge, 2016). There are many animal frequencies that the human ear cannot process, for example the ultrasound signals from bats, chimpanzees, rats and frogs (Arch – Narins, 2008; Feng et al., 2006; Panksepp, 1998). But animal communication is not limited to vocalization. It includes also certain postures, gestures, positioning pheromones and color change (Armstrong, 1999). According to ethologist Vilmos Csányi (2012), when an animal uses its voice for communication, it is not necessarily a conscious signal and least of all talk. Animal vocal communication, suggests the biologist Jaak Panksepp (1998), is primarily under emotional and motivational (i.e. subcortical) control, as opposed to human one, where cortical regulation is more definite. (In case of humans, subcortical impulses of these kinds fall under inhibition, and if they do get to the surface in some way, the result is what we call the Tourette-syndrome.)

Researchers in the 1960s could not yet know that their colleagues in the early 2000s would come up with the evidence that at least some animal species do have their sophisticated language (and even articulated speech), comparable to that of the human's. Animal behavior researcher Constantine Slobodchikoff founded the Animal Language Institute[1] which aims at "*exploring the possibility that animals have language*". Slobodchikoff, a former professor of Northern Arizona University after studying the social behavior of prairie dogs for three decades, concluded that these small creatures possess a sophisticated language (Slobodchikoff, 2002, 2006). As he summarized in his interview with Erica Johnson on The Current (CBC), "*They're able to describe the color of clothes the humans are wearing, they're able to describe the size and shape of humans, even, amazingly, whether a human once appeared with a gun.*"[2]

Researchers in the 1960s, who were convinced that animals lack language, wanted to find out how challenging it is for apes to learn human language and how far they can get when trying. In the 1960s, when they began to examine the language abilities of primates, on the strict basis of behaviorist principles and methodology, their questioning was rather ideological: are animals capable of such linguistic achievements as humans? And if not (as expected), what makes humans better? Their ultimate goal, albeit covertly, was to prove man's superiority (see Csányi, 2012).

Apes and language learning

Until the first decades of the 20th century we had had only anecdotical knowledge about the cognitive and language abilities of animals. In particular, the emerging psychology of that time (called the behaviorist psychology) began to show a special interest in studying animal learning behavior. Although behaviorists have contributed greatly to the meticulous elaboration of the methods of psychological research, they have also severely limited the scope of research questions. They did not attribute high level cognitive abilities to animals, and animal learning was considered a mere series of associations. Behaviorists insisted

1 Animal Language Institute. http://animallanguageinstitute.com/ [30 Apr. 2020]

2 Prairie dogs' language decoded by scientists, 2013. CBC Technology & Science. https://www.cbc.ca/news/technology/prairie-dogs-language-decoded-by-scientists-1.1322230 [30 Apr. 2020]

on explicit learning regardless the learning task. The participating apes were considered passive learners. They were not supposed to understand what they were taught, nor their teachers cared whether they were interested in the learning material or not. There was one exception to this rule: in case the apes were taught sign language, besides associational learning researchers relied also on imitation. Imitation implied some chance for the animals to understand the signs to be learned. The way of teaching was the force of endless practice and repetition. The learning process went on step by step, associating stimulus to stimulus (Fouts – Mills – Tukel, 1997).

Parallelly to learning, the learners were provided reinforcement. They were rewarded for the good performance and punished for the bad. Reinforcement was meant to motivate the animals since intrinsic learning motivation was not attributed to them. Needless to say, the animals hardly ever enjoyed the language learning tasks. They were unmotivated, bored and had a strong wish to go to play instead (Premack – Premack, 1983; Fouts – Mills – Tukel, 1997; Pearce, 2008; Wasserman – Zentall, 2009).

As the teaching of the spoken language could not be considered, researchers followed different alternative strategies. In some laboratories, apes were taught a simplified version of American Sign Language (ASL), since these animals naturally tend to use gestures for communicational purposes (Gardner – Gardner, 1969; Fouts – Mills – Tukel, 1997). In some other laboratories, researchers developed a simplified language composed of a set of abstract symbols. These symbols were called lexigrams. The idea behind this was the Saussurean theory of language, which emphasized the arbitrary nature of the language sign. Practically it meant for the researchers that the language designed for the purposes of teaching apes should contain signs that are as abstract as words are and as independent from their meaning as possible. In Premackeese (a nickname for the language created by the Premack couple), for example, the "apple" sign was a blue triangle, while the "banana" sign was a red rhombus. The set of lexigrams were printed on plastic tokens with which the chimpanzees could manipulate on a magnetic board (Premack – Premack, 1983). In another lab (led by the Savage-Rumbaugh couple), where bonobos have been the subjects of a still ongoing experiment, an improved version of lexigrams have been introduced and displayed on a touchscreen. The bonobos are supposed to push a sign on the screen and the English equivalent of the lexigram is uttered by the computer. The researchers use English language to communicate with the animals. The bonobos answer by touching the lexigrams (making the computer say the proper English words) (Savage-Rumbaugh, 1986; Segerdahl – Fields – Savage-Rumbaugh, 2005; Rumbaugh – Savage-Rumbaugh – Taglialatela, 2007). The grammar associated with the lexigrams was designed to be as simple as possible. So, on one hand, the language input was overly abstract (in terms of vocabulary), on the other hand, however, it was oversimplified (in terms of grammar).

For example, the talented chimpanzee, called Sarah, who belonged to the Premack lab, was supposed to learn language by manipulating plastic tokens. She had to apply a series of logical conclusions to figure out the meaning of the word-sequences like these: "yellow + no + color of + apple" (Yellow is not the color of the apple.) and "yellow + what to + banana" (What is yellow to a banana?).

The learning process took long years with hardly any results. Most animals learned only a couple of words, and never could understand basic grammatical rules, and were unable to build up a sentence longer than two or three words.

Why did language teaching experiments fail?

Researchers generally agree that the attempts to teach chimpanzees human language have failed (Csányi, 2012). To this failure, I think the following factors contributed the most:

- the concept of learning
- the ignorance of the animal mind
- the teaching methods
- the concept of language
- and the insufficient knowledge about animals' willingness to share information.

First of all, the behaviorist concept of learning proved to be wrong. The idea of the primacy of associational learning was false, at least in case of apes. The ignorance of the animal mind was also a mistake.

The behaviorist concept of learning is very far from that of the most modern learning theories of today, the constructivist theory. The latter attributes an active role to the learner working on the construction of their own knowledge. The passive learning situation of chimpanzee students was not conducive to following their interest in the "curriculum" or taking control of their learning in any way (as they would otherwise do in nature).

It is not surprising, that, like human learners, they very often resisted learning, were bored with the succession of monotonous practices, and were not interested in learning at all. Since learning in this form made no sense to the chimpanzees, they suffered rather than played the role of active participants.

Teaching methods were limited to well-established conditioning paradigms where motivation was built upon external reinforcement strategies. Intrinsic learning motivation was not considered at all. Chimpanzees were willing to learn only for the external reward – its downsides and low efficiency are well known.

Nor was the language concept that the researchers started from, fully adequate. One of the indisputable features of language – as Ferdinand de Saussure suggested – is its arbitrary nature. Arbitrariness, however, refers primarily to the linguistic sign, to the relationship between the signifier and the signified. The word "table" does not resemble any specific table, neither its pronounced nor written form. But this does not mean that there are not many exceptions to this rule (think of imitative words, for example), which are crucial in the initial period of language learning (see Monaghan et al., 2014).

Although David Premack's chimpanzee called Sarah was able to associate arbitrary signs with certain meanings (such as the blue square to the banana), it is still dubious whether she could make any sense of it (Premack – Premack, 1983).

As it turned out, studying the set of overly abstract signs proved an impossible challenge in some cases (e.g., the chimpanzee named Gussie in the Premack lab and the bonobo named Matata in the Savage-Rumbaugh lab).

Chimpanzees taught sign language were not much luckier either, as their teaching was also based on stimulus-stimulus association, and their "curriculum" was not fundamentally different from Sarah's. Their undoubtedly greater vocabulary is due to the fact that chimpanzees living in nature often use gestures for communication purposes themselves, more often than plastic tokens or English-speaking touchscreens.

Provided we accept the concept of the arbitrariness of language, the stimulus-stimulus association method seems reasonable, but one can take it for granted that a language learning of this kind is an infinite process, as there will always remain a word or a concept not yet associated to its meaning. But is it possible to learn a language this way?

As long as we consider language a complex system, it soon turns out that it is far from being arbitrary. On the one hand, the linguistic universals constrain its structural aspects,

and, on the other hand, the infinite complexity through which signs and rules interconnect enables the language to describe and represent the reality that is external to it.

In case we start from the complex system concept of language, a completely different way of teaching seems reasonable: provide complex language patterns (natural texts), and create a vivid language environment, where the active language learner can utilize their implicit learning abilities and figure out the meanings implied in the abundant interconnections among the elements of the language patterns.

Last, the failure of the language teaching experiments might be due to the insufficient knowledge about animals. As it has recently turned out, animals are unwilling to spontaneously share information irrespective of whether they possess the language or not. By nature, they do not care about either chatting or information exchange; this type of inclination is exclusively specific to human communication (Tomasello, 2009). Further on, Jaak Panksepp doubts that animals are willing to play the language games offered by humans in order to express their thoughts – they are more likely to be attracted by the social rewards of such situations (Panksepp, 1998). Anyway, apes, which in some way or other successfully learned the language, tended to use it only for asking food or tools.

In fact, chimpanzee experiments did not provide an answer to whether animals could master a language, and even less did they reveal other abilities of the animal mind (Csányi, 2012). The initial assumptions and methodology of the experiments were not suitable for obtaining reliable information about all these.

Conclusions

Foreign language teaching does not differ too much in the way how animal language researchers taught chimpanzees language in the ’60s and ’70s. Foreign language teaching has failed to detach enough from its own behaviorist roots (here I do not mean a direct connection between the two groups of language teachers, I merely point to their shared principles) and seems to follow the same basic principles on learning, teaching and language as well as to rely on the behaviorist methodology of teaching. Animal learners, as we have seen, received extremely limited, alienated and simplified language stimuli, and were forced to learn explicitly in exchange for some external rewards – producing a poor outcome in the end.

Paradoxically, there were some exceptional animals who were succeeded in acquiring the human language – the ones who were not supposed to be taught explicitly due to their young age. Loulis, the chimpanzee kid had the occasion to observe his stepmother’s, Washoe’s language lessons and learned how to use the ASL signs on his own. Kanzi, the bonobo baby was also present at his stepmother’s, Matata’s language training and acquired English and the lexigram language spontaneously from the context. These and some other examples confirm the idea that even animals are capable of language acquisition.

The most successful pathway of language learning is language acquisition: there is no higher and more desirable level of language proficiency than that of the mother tongue. We acquire mother tongue making virtually no conscious effort, over the course of a few years, at a time when we are not even close to mastering our cognitive abilities.

The key to success lies in the brain’s ability to spontaneously extract meaningful patterns from complex environmental stimuli (whether linguistic, social, or physical in nature) and to form mental representations from them. Linguistic mental representations are then organized into a complex network: this network serves for one’s language skills.

Thus, teaching a foreign language, provided that the goal is to promote language acquisition, should model the process of mother tongue acquisition as much as possible:

providing the learner with complex language stimuli to initiate implicit learning processes. The to date unconsciously operating and outdated cognitive principles of language teaching need to be supervised and reestablished based on the newest research findings in learning science.

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István Soós – Lívia Borosán – Yvette Csepela –
Ian Whyte – Pál Hamar

Why are Some People Less Active than Others?

Pedagogical and Psychological Aspects of Physical Activity and Sedentary Behaviours

Summary:
A 3-wave prospective design was employed to investigate factors that influence young people's motivations to take part in physical activity, or not. Participants were from four countries (Hungary, Romania, Slovakia, United Kingdom) and were aged between 11-18 years (n=1000). Three instruments were employed in the context of three models and the aim was to identify if there was a link between autonomy support from three social agents (school; family; friends). Autonomy support and relatedness were proven to be most influential in supporting motivation to maintain physical activity or change people's inactive behaviours. Family support and enjoyment of PE were critical factors. The authors suggest that the impact of the three social institutions (schools, families, peers) should be coordinated through targeted education and training, employing a number of co-ordinated interventions at local and national government level.

Keywords: *physical activity, sedentary behaviour, motivation, autonomy support*

Introduction

Promotion of physical activity as well as avoidance of sedentary behaviours are important contributors to the prevention of non-communicable diseases. This was cited by Juvenal (Decimus Iunius Iuvenalis; after Christ 47-127) in *Satiras*: "*Orandum est, ut sit mens sana in corpore sano*". It stands for "*Pray for the reason that healthy soul should be in healthy body*" (Juvenal, 1992). Two thousand years later we risk not only our soul's health, but also that of our body due to the harm that civilisation wreaks upon itself. Thus Juvenal's proverb could perhaps be adapted: *Orandum et faciendum est, ut sit corpus sanum* - "*We must pray and act to achieve a healthy body for us*" (Poór, 2019: 1530-1538).

As a nation and a people, Hungary wants to rise and meet European standards in many areas. A healthy workforce can produce efficiently, leading to economical growth. Thus, the pipedream of a wealthier state can be obtained. Therefore, amongst a lot of needs, improvements are required in the health of the nation.

According to Bíróné Nagy (2011) "*Sport is a useful tool that is suitable to compensate sedentary lifestyle in 'modern societies'*". The World Health Organization (WHO, 2010) recommends sixty minutes daily physical activity for young people aged between 5-17 years of age. Beyond this sixty minutes of daily physical activity, further additional positive health influences can accrue. It is accepted that mainly aerobic exercises are a worthwhile pursuit amongst the general population. However, fitness/stamina enhancing activities are especially beneficial for young people if they are conducted at least three

times per week. Notwithstanding the benefits for young people, either one hundred and fifty minutes moderate or alternatively seventy-five minutes per week vigorous exercise is recommended for over sixty-five year old people for their health benefit.

There are a number of psychological theories and models through which measures have been developed and employed to measure and/or predict people's motivations for exercise. They have included:

1 The Ecological Model (EM; Bauman et al., 2012: 258-271)
2 Aetiological Approach (AA; Hagger – Chatzisarantis, 2016: 360-407)
3 Trans-Contextual Model (TCM; Hagger et al., 2009: 689-711) that consists of the
   a) Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB; Ajzen, 1985: 11-39)
   b) Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci – Ryan, 1985) and the
   c) Hierarchical Model of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation (HMIEM; Vallerand, 1997: 271-360).

The Ecological Model (EM; Bauman et al., 2012: 258-271) describes not only psychological and biological, but interpersonal determinants, such as social support (from family, friends and work or school), and cultural norms and practices. In summary, EM explains health behaviour causation, with the social and physical environment.

The Aetiological Approach (AA; Hagger – Chatzisarantis, 2016: 360-407) not only describes the correlational relationships (in which factors are associated with activities), but uncovers the determinants (those with causal explanation) of intentions, decision making and physical activity behaviour.

The Trans-Contextual Model (TCM) is an integrated model of motivation incorporating special aspects of the Self-Determination Theory (SDT; Deci – Ryan, 1985, 1991: 237-288), the Hierarchical Model of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation (HMIEM; Vallerand, 1997: 271-360, 2001: 263-320) and the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB; Ajzen, 1985: 11-39, 1991). The Trans-Contextual Model is a theoretical model which explains the processes of how autonomous motivation transfers across contexts. For example, adolescents' autonomous motivation in leisure time can be determined by autonomous motivation in Physical Education (PE).

The Self-Determination Theory (SDT) consists of three basic needs that require to be satisfied: the need for autonomy (the belief that one is the origin and regulator of his or her own action), the need for competence (the belief that one can efficaciously interact with the environment), and the need for relatedness (the seeking and development of secure and connected relationships with others in one's social context) (Deci – Ryan, 1985).

Vallerand's Hierarchical Model of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation (HMIEM) incorporates the fundamental tenets of Deci – Ryan's (1985, 1991) Self-Determination Theory and contends that motivation operates at three levels. First the global level (or personality), second the contextual level (or life domain) and finally, the situational (or state) level (Vallerand, 1997: 271-360, 2001: 263-320).

TPB comprises of three constructs. They are termed as attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control (PBC). Attitude reflects an individual's personal orientation toward engaging in a behaviour. Subjective norms reflect social pressure from significant others regarding a behaviour. PBC reflects the impact of perceived abilities and barriers with respect to engaging in a behaviour (Hagger et al., 2005: 376-390).

Our study replicated Hagger et al.'s (2009: 689-711) study (Teacher, peer and parent autonomy support in physical education and leisure-time physical activity: A trans-contextual model of motivation in four nations).

It has been well documented that health status is significantly influenced by different behaviours, including such factors as the duration and intensity of physical activity. Equally important is the duration of sitting activities ("sedentary" behaviour), the combination of

which, with unhealthy eating or, for example, snacking, can have serious consequences. This often leads to the development of excess body weight or its more severe form, obesity.

To understand and explain why some people are less active than others, experts investigated the correlates and determinants of people's physical activity and sedentary behaviours from a very young age across the life cycle. Correlates are the factors associated with the activity and determinants explain the causal relationship between factors and the activity or behaviour (Bauman et al., 2012: 258-271).

Our study aimed to investigate the link between

1) perceived autonomy support from three social agents (school, family and friends) and
2) autonomous motivation in an educational context (physical education) as well as leisure-time physical activity
3) It also examined how autonomous motivation in leisure-time can be translated into leisure-time physical activity intention and behaviour as based on the Self-Determination Theory, the Theory of Planned Behaviour and the Trans-Contextual Model.
4) Similarly to previous studies (Hagger et al., 2009: 689-711), results from collectivist countries (Hungary, Slovakia and Romania) are compared with a country (United Kingdom) where historically individualist cultural norms are dominant (Markus – Kitayama, 1991: 224-253).

It was hypothesised that:

1) Students will perceive that they received the highest autonomy support from family/parents as opposed to schools and friends
2) Autonomous motivation in physical education influences autonomous motivation in leisure time
3) There would be a clear link of how perceived autonomous motivation in leisure-time determines physical activity intention of students and that leads to their actual behaviour
4) Differences can be found in students' autonomous motivation as well as in influencing factors by nationality.

Methods

Pedagogical and psychological aspects of the barriers to physical activity and the incentives for sedentary behaviours were investigated. These investigations considered the path between variables in relationship with theories, models and approaches. Also, in the last section, we looked at differences by country in various natural and social environments. Transition between contexts, for example, the influence of school physical education on the behaviour of people in free living (free time or leisure time) was also taken into consideration.

A three-wave prospective design was employed, and data were collected from 11-18 year old students (n=1000, mean age=15.0, male 42%, female 58%) in the United Kingdom and three East-European countries: Romania, Hungary and Slovakia.

The Helsinki Declaration's ethical guidelines were followed.

Data collection instruments comprised PASSES (Perceived Autonomy Support in Exercise Setting), BREQ-2 (Behaviour Regulation in Exercise Questionnaire version 2) and Godin's Leisure-Time PA Scale and used in the context of the following three theories/model, Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), Self-Determination Theory (SDT) and Trans-Contextual Model (TCM).

Data were analysed using IBM SPSS v. 25 statistical software.

Results

Our first hypothesis was accepted, as parents/family provided the highest autonomy support for students ($r=0.32$, $p<0.05$), compared with friends/peers autonomy support ($r=0.14$, $p<0.05$). Furthermore, PE teachers/schools autonomy support demonstrated a negative value ($r=-0.32$, $p<0.05$).

Similarly, the second hypothesis that considered how autonomous motivation in physical education influenced autonomous motivation in leisure-time was accepted with moderate relationship ($r=0.21$, $p<0.05$).

The third hypothesis was accepted also by demonstrating moderate correlation between autonomous motivation and physical activity intention ($r=0.22$, $p<0.05$), but a stronger correlation was identified between autonomous motivation and physical activity behaviour ($r=0.38$, $p<0.05$). Autonomous motivation in leisure-time context had the strongest link with attitude ($r=0.71$, $p<0.01$), but there was a weak link with subjective norm ($r=0.05$, $p>0.05$) and perceived behavioural control ($r=0.11$, $p>0.05$). Attitude and perceived behavioural control were found to have weakly influenced physical activity intentions ($r=0.11$, $p>0.05$; and $r=0.10$, $p>0.05$ respectively), while autonomous motivation and subjective norm moderately influenced the self-same intentions ($r=0.22$, $p<0.05$ and $r=0.22$, $p<0.05$ respectively). In consequence, physical activity intention had a very weak link with physical activity behaviour ($r=0.03$, $p>0.05$). Physical activity behaviour was influenced strongly by leisure-time autonomous motivation and past behaviour ($r=0.38$, $p<0.05$ and $r=0.38$, $p<0.05$ respectively), but not by perceived behavioural control ($r=0.12$, $p>0.05$).

With respect to the fourth hypothesis, the by-country comparison, British students perceived the strongest autonomy support from PE teachers ($p<.001$) compared with students from other countries (Hungary, Romania, Slovakia). Eastern European students perceived the highest level of autonomy support both from parents ($p<.001$) and friends ($p<.001$). However, this correlation was reversed in a few cases possibly due to the traditionally controlling education systems of many Eastern European schools, corresponding to Hein et al. (2016: 1-16).

Discussion

This study aimed to investigate the link between perceived autonomy support from three social agents (school, family and friends). According to the Self-Determination Theory, two components, autonomy support and relatedness were proven being supported the most by families/parents in this age group (Soos et al., 2019: 509-530). Family support for physical activity (e.g. parents, brothers and sisters), as well as enjoyment in physical education, are essential aspects to maintain people's physical activity or in other cases change their inactive behaviour (Conner – Norman, 2017: 115-128). This is also true of perceived ability in sports/physical activity. According to Csányi (2010: 1-20), the facilitation of physical activity from families can provide a supportive role regarding young people's physical activity. Family circumstances (e.g. social or geographical background), support from parents, access to sport facilities, and financial resources are all important, as are the role model of parents.

According to the Trans-Contextual Model, autonomous motivation transfers from the physical education context to the leisure-time context. It is likely that a good experience of PE, or even enjoyment of physical activity are great driving forces for students to live physically active lives and possibly spend less time being sedentary (Marshall et al., 2002).

Components of the Theory of Planned Behaviour (attitude, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control) had relatively weak links with physical activity intention, therefore

they did not influence physical activity behaviour significantly. Physical activity behaviour is more determined by leisure-time autonomous motivation as well as past physical activity behaviour, which accorded with earlier work by Hagger – Chatzisarantis (2016: 360-407). As a presumption, confirmed by using the Aetological Approach and the Hierarchical Model of Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation, independent perceptions of behavioural control and past behaviours have been the strongest determinants of the development of physical activity-related behaviour and its incorporation into everyday habits. Thus, our results affirmed that intention alone does not lead to the development and fixation of physical activity as a form of behaviour without the development of autonomous motivation in students.

Furthermore, personality factors as well as situational factors (including the social environment), were two of the most important contributing motivational factors for people to become physically active and make effort to reduce sedentary behaviours. This is well explained by the correlates and determinants of physical activity and sedentary behaviours through personal, interpersonal and environmental factors in the Ecological Model (Bauman et al., 2012: 258-271; Best et al., 2017: 1-14).

Not surprisingly, British students perceived the most autonomous motivation and perceived autonomy support by physical education teachers (Standage et al., 2012: 37-60), as the British PE curriculum is focussed on health-related physical activity and students' enjoyment along with the promotion of a positive class climate. Traditionally, Eastern European curricula value skill development, and schools believe that this system creates a better structure for supporting the development of physical fitness and sport skill development, rather than a "free choice system". Thus, students should be more disciplined, as opposed to the "Western originated" differently focussed competence-based curriculum in which physical sport skill production is of less consequence than participation, and theoretical components and softer skills of communication and planning are given substantive weighting.

Conclusions

We conclude that an optimal relationship (autonomous climate) should be developed between PE teachers and students, and that autonomy support be maintained by family and friends to encourage students to pursue physical activity behaviour. This might require interventions within formal PE classes through CPD for teachers, and importantly a means of getting that message to families and friends. The latter may be facilitated through eg. "parents evenings" or similar, in which the benefits and indeed the necessities of physically active lifestyles are set out, and the role of parents and families in supporting these activities are reinforced.

Also, in conclusion, we recommend that practitioners, in addition to engaging in physical activity at a young age, maintain an optimum group atmosphere, positive class climate, both pre-school and school, through persuasive communication.

Furthermore, in line with the above ideas, the impact of the three social institutions (schools, families, peers) should be coordinated through targeted education and training. This is not an easy but a nice pedagogical task! For example, perhaps government departments (eg. health, social services) might be encouraged to develop promotional strategies to reach out to parents and families and extoll them to get their loved ones active, rather than with the usual "get yourself active" crusades.

The key message to stakeholders is to co-operate with the three social agents (school, family and peer groups) to develop intervention programmes for educating people in order to improve physical activity and minimize sedentary behaviours.

Suggestions for overcoming physical inactivity:

- Health promotion programmes (see above)
- Education for health-conscious lifestyle, motivation
- Implementing sports for all as "fashionable" mass movements, exercise should be utilised as a popular "fashion" activity
- Daily physical education, early age motivation
- Improvement of occupational health; providing access to sports facilities
- Ministry of Human Resources (EMMI) National Musculoskeletal Development Programme, intervention programmes, legislative proposals
- Primary and Secondary Prevention, Motivation - Raising Physical Exercise in General in order to educate a physically fit generation
- Financial support from the Government will improve public health situation (Poór, 2019: 1530-1538).
- School should provide a quality education for promoting physical activity
- Families and students should deal with daily physical education as a value at school, especially from the aspect of health promotion (see above)
- Parents should act as a role model in health-related physical activity

To ensure that these opportunities are enacted, it is important that the correlates and determinants of why and how some young people can be less inactive than others is communicated and explained fully. Only with this understanding is the movement for positive change likely to be supported.

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ROMA STUDIES

Eszter Gergye

"Băjási nostri áisj kusztá…" – "Our Boyash People Lived Here…"

Boyash Language in Linguistic Landscape and in Schoolscape

Summary:
Providing strong status for minority languages – such as Romani and Boyash – could serve the relearning of these minority languages and strengthening the identity of Roma minority. Examining the linguistic landscape of a place provides information about the relations between the appearing languages and their speakers' relations, statuses. Schoolscape (linguistic landscape of schools) is focusing on the formal learning spaces: what is written on the classrooms' doors, which languages are used in general in the school. Presenting of Romani and Boyash language elements in different formal spaces could provide a certain prestige to these languages. This paper provides an insight to a wider ongoing research on Romani and Boyash language appearance in Hungarian educational and learning spaces.

Keywords: *Roma, Gypsy, Romani, Boyash, linguistic landscape, schoolscape*

General aims and goals of the research

The aim of the wider research is to examine the linguistic landscape of formal, informal and non-formal learning spaces in Hungary, where Roma population is highly represented. The research focuses on how the Romani and Boyash languages appear in learning spaces if they do, and examines the reasons for their appearance/nonappearance. In addition, what are the effects if they have appeared so.

This paper, as part of the research, is focusing more on Boyash language and provides some examples as well, how this language appears in different spaces and learning spaces.

The introduction provides a short overview of the current situation of Roma nationality and its languages' statuses in Hungary. The introduction is followed by the theoretical framework: the explanation of what are linguistic landscape and schoolscape and how they are related to minority languages.

Finally, the conclusion gives a summary about the importance of researching schoolscapes with the Roma, Gypsy languages in the focus. Furthermore, it provides an insight to the planned future steps related to the research.

The Roma Nationality and their languages in Hungary

The homogenizing way how the majority thinks about Roma in Hungary makes it more relevant to emphasize the complexity of Roma nationality. According to the Rights of Nationalities in Hungary there are 13 officially accepted nationalities and 14 languages of them. The official name/term for the Roma, Gypsy is "Roma nationality" and their

languages are referred as "*Roma/Gypsy (Romani and Boyash hereinafter referred as 'Roma')*" (Act CLXXIX/2011 on the Rights of Nationalities, 2011). So, despite the fact that the 13 officially accepted nationalities have 14 officially accepted languages among them the two different languages: Romani and Boyash, these are still referred just as "*Roma language*". This paper uses *Roma*, *Gypsy* together.

The heterogeneity of Hungarian Roma population is explained mostly by the different languages what the different Roma, Gypsy groups are speaking. Kamill Erdős was the first (1958) to categorize Roma, Gypsy groups in Hungary based on their languages. Based on his linguistic categorization there are 3 main groups of Hungarian Roma, Gypsy: *Romungro*, *Vlah* and *Boyash*. *Romungro* speak only Hungarian, in their case the language shift has already closed. "*Their ancestors were those Carpathian and Vlah gypsies who did not keep their mother tongue in order to assimilate into the majority.*" (Erdős, 1958) According to the estimated data, the number of this gypsy group is the highest among Hungarian Roma. *Vlah* are speaking Romani and Hungarian. They speak mostly *Lovari*, what is the most widely spoken dialect of *Romani*. Mostly, they refer to themselves as Roma. *Boyash* are speaking *Boyash* and Hungarian. The ancestors of this group arrived in Hungary from Romania (between 18th-20th centuries). In Romania they went through a language shift and that is why their language the Boyash is an archaic version of Romanian language (Erdős, 1958; Orsós, 2007).

The given percentages are based on the research of István Kemény: 1971 that used the categorization of Kamill Erdős and estimated the percentage of different Roma, Gypsy groups' population. Based on these estimated data it is obvious that the number of Hungarian speaking Roma, Gypsy is the highest while there are few who still speak any of the Roma, Gypsy languages. According to current language researches, the number of Romani or Boyash speaking people is decreasing. The tradition and usage of these languages is generally in decline, as the following generations do not tend to preserve their heritage. Even if the parents in a family speak one of the Roma, Gyspy languages, the children do not learn them, they might just understand but not speak them. The Roma languages speaking groups became bilingual (Orsós, 1997, 2015), and the current generation's mother tongue is mostly Hungarian. The reasons of this process on one hand are the assimilation aspiration of the Roma, Gypsy groups to integrate into the majority. On the other hand, a strong reason is the lack of possibilities and rights to use these languages during official administrations or during any kind of formal situations. Unfortunately, because of lacking neology these languages are even not possibly used as educational tools, but it is a positive result in Hungary that nowadays Roma, Gypsy languages as nationally accepted minority languages are thought in different educational institutions. However, the conditions for teaching these languages are not fully provided and there are still number of tasks (such as the language teacher education's issues, the educational tools, language books' issues) to be solved in this area. (Boros – Gergye, 2019)

Challenges in analysing documents on Roma, Gypsy

Since the Roma, Gypsy culture inherited as oral culture we are lacking written documents. The written sources that are used during researches on Roma, Gypsy are created by the majority about the Roma. It means that analysing such documents rather provide information about how the majority thinks or thought about the Roma than the Roma itself. The languages spoken by the Roma, Gypsy groups did not have written forms until 1971 in the case of Romani and 1992 in the case of Boyash. The written form of Romani language was accepted at the London First World Romani Congress. However, since then / nowadays there is a debate on which dialect should become the standardized form of

Romani. Written form of Boyash was founded along with the establishment of Gandhi High school and conducted by Anna Orsós the current head of the Department of Romology and Sociology of Education at University of Pécs. As in the Gandhi High school – Roma nationality high school – they wanted to teach Roma, Gypsy languages they needed the written form of them. Based on the collected folklore texts (tales and songs) Anna Orsós established the literacy of Boyash language spoken by Hungarian Boyash.

Starting points of schoolscape research focusing on Roma, Gypsy languages

In connection to *Bicultural Socialization* Adler says that the level of school success and then social integration success depends on the degree of overlap or commonality between the two cultures: the home of the kid and the school. In Adler's interpretation culture includes norms, values, beliefs, perceptions, and also the objective forms of these things. In addition, the socialization processes, linguistic socialization forms and the "*system of punishment and rewarding*". (Adler, 1975) While the majority kids are growing up surrounded by all those values that are accepted and not just accepted but required in the world of school, the Roma, Gypsy kids meet less these values and those that they gained during their socialization are less or not accepted at all in the world of school. (Réger, 1995) And what does it mean: values? Values are all those objects and situations that are connected to any type of literacy event, such as books, board games, reading events etc. And that are the not accepted or let us say not appearing values of Roma, Gypsy kids: their language knowledge if they speak, or their knowledge about Roma, Gypsy culture, their culture's symbols, etc.

The role of school in making the two socialization platforms (home and school) overlap each other on a greater level

Once it became obvious by former researches (Forray – Hegedűs, 1985; Forray, 1997; Derdák – Varga, 1996 etc.) that the differences or the similarities between the world of school and the home of kids have a great impact on students' failure or success the growing importance and strengthening role of schools in this process is needed to be emphasized. Schools have to undertake the role to value the different cultures in school and to make visible them in order to provide prestige to the related students' culture(s) and in order to teach other students about the given culture(s). Linguistic landscape and schoolscape could be a great help in order to succeed this overly complex task.

At this stage of the research it is required to get to know more definitions and to create an own definition what could suit to the examination of Roma, Gypsy languages appearance in linguistic landscape and schoolscape. It is needed because Roma, Gypsy languages are in special situation in more senses: they do not have mother country, they have young literacy etc. But still, the followings are the first definitions what this research started to work with:

Literature on Linguistic landscape is usually using the definition of Landry and Bourhis (1997: 25), what says that official road signs, advertisings, street names, government buildings' written signs, etc. form a settlement's or a region's linguistic landscape. The two basic functions of Linguistic landscape are defined by Landry and Bourhis in 1997: *informational function* and *symbolic function*. Because of the previously mentioned reasons like "young literacy" and no mother country and also because of the reasons in connection with the linguistic socialization it could be said that symbolic function has stronger impact in the case of Roma, Gypsy languages. However, it is interesting to think about

that basically the symbolic function has informational function as well as Landry and Bourhis are acknowledging it as well. And based on the linguistic landscape definition the schoolscape has the following definition:

- Schoolscape: *"comprises the physical and social setting in which teaching, and learning take place"* (Brown, 2005: 79).
- To investigate the visual and material dimensions of education and learning
- Literacy as not only the ability to interpret visual signs, but also as a social practice − one in which teachers, students, parents, administrators and other actors. (Laihonen – Szabó, 2017).
- Schoolscapes can be interpreted as displays or materializations of the 'hidden curriculum' regarding language values (Johnson, 1980).

Why does schoolscape have a strong symbolic function in the case of Roma, Gypsy languages?

As Bourhis says *"… absence of the in-group language from the Linguistic Landscpae can lead group members to devalue the strength of their own language community, weaken their resolve to transmit the in-group language to the next generations…"* (Bourhis, 1984) – while the appearance of these languages should contribute this feeling. Roma, Gypsy languages are already strongly in danger as most Roma, Gypsy families switched their languages, or they are in the last phase to switch finally to Hungarian. According to linguists for language switching process three generations needed. Nowadays, most of the kids are not speaking and their parents are even rather just understanding the Roma, Gypsy languages. Beside of the feelings of the Roma, Gypsy people, the schoolscape has a strong role in shaping the way of thinking about these languages among the majority. Schools of the 21st century are facing lot of challenges what they have to deal with even if there are no given solutions by the different acts and laws. However, *"The material environment of formal education (i.e.: schoolscape) is determined not only by the laws and local regulations, but the visual practices of the given institution as well."* (Szabó, 2018)

Providing examples how the Boyash language is represented in different learning spaces, this paper introduces four learning spaces (schoolscape) and one example is in relation with a type of informal learning space.

Department of Romology and Sociology of Education at University of Pécs, Hungary

Students at this department have the chance to learn both Roma, Gypsy languages: Romani and Boyash. After 1-1 semester of learning both languages, students could choose which one they wanted to continue to learn. Hungarian is the language of teaching, the Romani and Boyash are taught as subjects. However, it is clearly obvious that the department finds it important to present these languages in its material environment as well. There are boards and posters with grammar and lexical contents as learning tools, but these are not part of the visible material environment of the department. These are just used during the language learning processes, during the courses. These are not even placed on the walls. However, there are several other written signs and texts in Romani and Boyash on the doors and walls. Beside these two languages Hungarian and English are used as well. In the department's kitchen, there is a card on the wall with the coffee machine use guide in 4 languages: Hungarian, English, Romani and Boyash. Only those people (teachers, students and administrative colleagues) can meet this written sign, who have stronger relation with

the department, who are 'member' of the department. Sometimes guests (visitors of the department or conference guests) could see as well, but this space is rather the space of the community of the department. However, there are written signs on the doors as well, from the side of the corridor, what makes these languages visible for anyone who passes by even if they 'belong' to the department somehow, or just walking by on the corridor. Some examples for these texts: the sign on the teachers' room: 'Please knock before you enter' (written in English, Hungarian, Romani and Boyash languages). There is one more written sign on the door of Students' community room. This sign says '*Welcome*' in the four above listed languages. Beside these written contents there are also paintings and photos in connection with Roma, Gypsy culture on the corridor and in the classrooms, and offices of the department. It is obvious that these written signs are not serving informational but symbolic function at the department. Presenting Boyash and Romani languages makes possible not just for the 'community of the department' but also for the other people who walk by on the corridor to meet these languages.

Gandhi High School – Pécs, Hungary

This institution opened in 1994 as the first Roma nationality high school in Europe. Roma, Gypsy and non-Roma, non-Gypsy students, teachers, administrative colleagues are presented in the institution. The school is running as a general high school, but contents about Roma nationality are taught as well, such as Roma culture (ethnography, current topics related to Roma, art, etc.) and Romani and Boyash language (these are obligatory classes for all the students, but they can choose which language do they want to learn) and Roma dances , music (optional subjects). The schoolscape of Gandhi High School is presenting several symbols and linguistic elements relating to the Roma nationality. The schoolscape of the high school shows similarities with the Department of Romology and Sociology of Education at University of Pécs. The school has a class, that is the class of Boyash language. There we can meet some Boyash words, for example in the topic of weather or the numbers, etc. These posters and tables have rather a 'language learning tool' function. However, beside this classroom, all the other symbols that are presented in the school have symbolic function. The officially accepted (1971, 1st Romani Congress in London) flag of Roma is in the entrance of the school building and in the dormitory building along with the Hungarian and the European Union flags. These three flags are in the office of the school leaders as well. In the school canteen there are painted texts on the wall, saying 'Enjoy your meal' in Hungarian, English, German, Romani and Boyash. In the entrance of the school dormitory 'Welcome' is written in Boyash on the left side and in Romani on the right side. These written signs have the same symbolic function as the signs at the department.

Kétújfalu Konrád Ignác Primary School

Kétújfalu is a small village near to Pécs. The local Roma are mostly Boyash Gypsy people. At the beginning of the 1970's the nearby Boyash Gypsy settlement was eliminated and Gypsy people from there moved into this village and the nearby small villages. In 2017 Anna Orsós leaded a research (Orsós, 2018) on the history of this Gypsy settlement called 'Akácliget'. The local school has several written signs in Boyash in the school building. The entrance, the offices of the teachers and the director, the canteen, the library all have the names in Hungarian, Boyash, and German. German is the main foreign language in

the school, and although Boyash was also taught in the past, recently, the school had no Boyash teacher. All the written signs are in the same format Hungarian with red letters, Boyash with blue and German with green letters.

Figure 1: 'Door to the garden' sign in Hungarian, Boyash and German

(Photo: Eszter Gergye, 2018, Kétújfalu, Hungary)

***Fekete Láng Tanoda*[1], Komló, Hungary – '*Black Flame Tanoda*'**

The Fekete Láng Tanoda (hereinafter: Tanoda) is an organization, where socially disadvantaged, mostly Roma, Gypsy kids got help with their studies, and different programs are offered to them. Physically it is a small place with one bigger room, what could be divided into two rooms, and there is a small kitchen and toilets. Children got access to computers and internet as well. The schoolscape of this non-formal learning space is various and colorful, definitely 'children- and learning centered'. On the walls there are colorful copies of a book series with Hungarian children poets translated into Boyash. The Tanoda has several books as well, and among them some of the children books which contain short poems and songs translated from Hungarian into Boyash. The colleagues of the Tanoda make efforts to help children learn or relearn Boyash language, at least on the level of songs and short poems. It has a symbolic, cultural supportive function. However, beside this symbolic function there are other written words around the space what have rather a learning-, teaching- tool function. In the toilet, on the door and in the kitchen one can see several small colored cards on the walls, furniture, etc. with the name of the objects in German (yellow), Italian (green), English (blue) and Boyash (red). The colors help to learn what language is and the different languages along with each other help to learn the name of the same thing but in different languages. The question could be why exactly these languages represented. How Italian got into this 'repertoire' and why Romani is not among them? German and English are given as children learn these languages in school. Boyash is represented because in this part of the country and in Komló town Boyash are highly represented. And finally, using Italian words along with learning Boyash has a symbolic, prestige supporting and a simple language learning supportive function. As Boyash is a Latin language (archaic dialect of Romanian) there are several linguistic similarities in

1 Tanoda is an after-school support programme mostly for socially disadvantaged students.

Boyash and Italian (such as words, or grammar similarities), what makes the learner more familiar with the other language if one of them is already known or familiar. In addition, Italian is a prestigious language. If a marginalized minority language has similarities with a prestigious language, it has a strong symbolic function and makes the marginalized (in this case the Boyash) language more valuable.

Véménd – Roma Youth House

Véménd is a small village near Pécs. Hungarians, German and Roma nationality communities live together in the village, sharing a remarkably diverse cultural life. In 2009 a Roma Youth House opened in the village and at the same time a statue with a poem in Hungarian and in Boyash was erected. After this statue, another Boyash memorial was set up in the same village. That Boyash text and memorial remembers the Boyash Gypsy people who lived in the former Gypsy settlement (called: *Libalegelő – Goose pasture)* next to the village. That memorial stands where Boyash Gypsy of the village lived for several years.

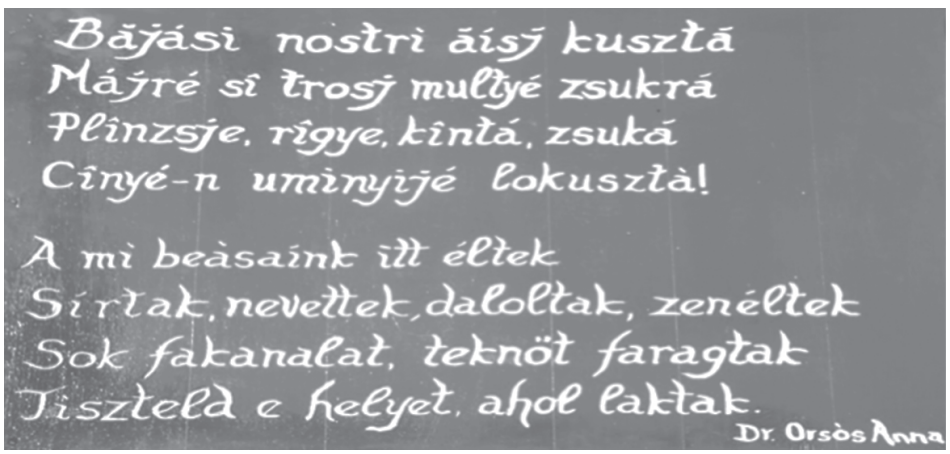

Figure 2: The text of the memorial in Boyash and Hungarian.

(Photo: Eszter Gergye, 2019, Véménd, Hungary)

Summary and upcoming steps of the research

Improving the schoolscape school could make visible the values of Roma, Gypsy culture. This visibility could serve the acceptance from the "two sides": Roma, Gypsy kids, teachers, families could become more accepting toward the world of school, learning spaces and they could value their own culture more. On the other hand, the majority kids, teachers, families could get know and accept more the Roma, Gypsy culture.
The following steps are planned as the part of this research (already in process at the time of publishing this paper):

- Examining how Roma, Gypsy people and how the majority thinks about the appearance/ absence of Roma, Gypsy languages in schoolscape.

- Finding examples where Roma, Gypsy language elements' and symbols are appearing.
- Examining who initiated the appearance of them, and why.
- Examining those learning spaces where Roma, Gypsy students are highly represented but Roma, Gypsy languages are not appearing on any way.

At this stage of the research the collection of Boyash and Romani written elements is happening and in the next phase of the research different in-depth interviews and questionnaires will be conducted in order to get to know better the intentions behind the appearance of all these symbols and written elements. In this state of the research it is obvious in the case of the listed examples that a kind of learning space, even formal, non-formal or informal has a strong part in making visible these minority languages in a town or village. The main question of the research will be if the Roma, Gypsy people, kids who are using these learning spaces could benefit anything and if so, what through these visible signs.

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Julianna Rayman – Aranka Varga

Ten Years After – Visions of Students from Different Social Background

Summary:
This study analyzes how socially disadvantaged people growing up in Roma, Gypsy communities envision their future. The findings of a 20-year-long research's second phase are analyzed in this paper. In 2003, nearly 100 pupils from different social backgrounds were asked to record their plans. We analyzed the compositions based on specified criteria of content analysis to search for insights into how achievement-oriented they were about their human relationships, life conduct, work, studies, and leisure activities. The study provides significant insights into the opportunities available to the participants of the survey: predictions can be made about the outcomes of their lives. In a later study, interviews were made in 2017 to compare these predictions to assess whether plans were fulfilled.

Keywords: *Roma, equity, inclusion, resilience*

Theoretical background

According to Durkheim (1978), the individual does not become what he wishes to be but develops according to the expectations of the society in which he lives. It is important to note how important the school (as one of the basic institutions of human society) is in shaping the lives of individuals from different backgrounds (Meleg, 2015). The various ways in which social inequality exists in schools and the correlation with academic underachievement have been researched thoroughly. It is important to consider the thoughts of Bourdieu, who drew attention to the role of family capital investments on children's advancement in schooling (material and symbolic capitals) in the 1970s. Bourdieu came to the conclusion that families in higher social positions invested in their children's lives and schoolings to a great extent which generally led to more successful advancement in the schooling processes of their children; on the contrary, the lack of capital that characterises the families in disadvantaged positions results in shorter and less successful learning paths and a higher probability of early school dropout. Thus, a higher rate of capital investment is rewarded with a higher social standing and better quality of life. This makes the school a legitimate means of reproducing social inequalities (Bourdieu, 1978). In 1975, Bernstein carried out a study from a linguistic viewpoint which revealed family roles and the linguistic code usage/switching of family members (a type of cultural capital) may help or block knowledge acquisition processes, resulting in advantage in or hindrance of social mobility (Bernstein, 1975). "Bicultural socialization" by Adler was the first to provide an account of the actions and participants responsible for assisting the connections and overlap between these two spheres of socialization. Adler asserted that it was primarily the responsibility of the school to reduce the gap between the two forms of socialization (Adler, 1975). Mutually acceptive and supportive school environments and the system of services, commonly referred to as "inclusion", provides scientifically measurable results in regard to student resilience (Varga, 2015; Rayman – Varga, 2015).

Resilient learners are students who perform well and achieve academic success despite disadvantages or risk factors which could have a negative influence on their academic (learning) performance (Masten et al., 2008).

In our case, social disadvantage and belonging to the Roma, Gypsy community form to interlocking categories (Forray – Pálmainé, 2010; Cserti Csapó – Orsós, 2013). As regards of the social inequality of the Roma, Gypsy community, two issues are important to address: self-identification and goal-setting. Our follow-up research intends to scrutinize the role of the factors influencing the lifepaths of the investigated people (school, family) and reveal which elements facilitated or hindered the development of resilience.

The conditions of the research project

This study forms part of an account regarding a longitudinal investigation. Our survey was carried out in Hungary at three points, in 1995, 2003 and 2017 (Derdák – Varga, 1996, 2003; Varga, 2018). We took samples to reveal and evaluate the influence of the educational institutions on the life situations of learners who came from underprivileged social backgrounds and Roma, Gypsy communities. We scrutinized the situation of this group compared to two control groups consisting of members from families with higher social position. The main criterion of selecting the schools of the examined students was to have a preferably homogeneous scope of learners, thus representing different social positions. The students with higher basic capital were selected from two schools in a big city. The students attending an inner city school (Practical School of the University of Pécs) with mostly white-collar worker parents and students from a housing estate-area primary school having mostly professional blue-collar worker parents (Berek street Primary School) were also used as a control group in our research project. We compared the results of the two control groups with the school performance of bilingual (Roma/Hungarian) learners from families living in villages having mostly undereducated, unemployed parents, (South-Transdanubia: schools of Alsószentmárton, Egyházasharaszti, Gilvánfa, Magyarmecske) and monolingual (Hungarian) Roma learners (Eastern and Northern regions of Hungary: schools of Tiszabő, Rakaca). (Map 1)

We compared the information collected about the school environment, family background and individual life paths of the students to macrostatistical data and nationwide research results. This was done to ensure that the selected learner groups were representatives of a well-definable social group. We paid special attention to the viewpoints of schooling, qualifications, identity and language use, with the addition of the geographical location. These factors together have an influence on social position, which strengthen each other's effects. (Chart 1) It is worth stressing that even in the first phase of the research (1995) a remarkable difference was observable in the results of Roma, Gypsy learners living in different regions. Data from socio-geography and field experience proved that the integration of the Roma, Gypsy communities in the South-Transdanubian region is more advanced than in the Eastern part of the country. Thus South-Transdanubian communities have a broader scope of life opportunities. The settlement of Tiszabő is particularly salient from the viewpoint of lagging behind. An enclosed Roma, Gypsy community lives there in a considerably underdeveloped socio-economic region.

Map 1: Proportion of the Roma, Gypsy population (census in 2011) and the locations of our research

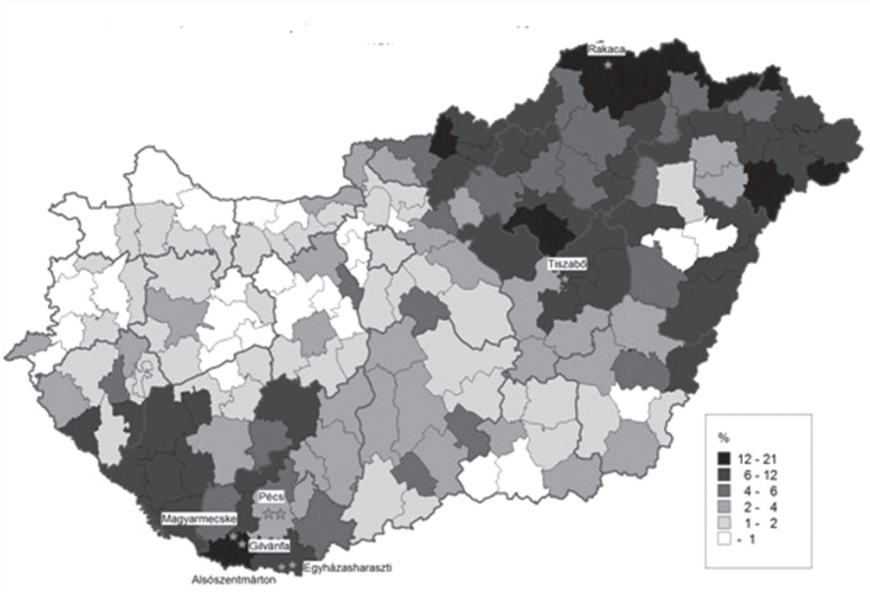


Chart 1: Data of the learners participating in the data collection

Institutions[1] ↓	Research participants			Institutional proportions (1993)				
				Gypsy learners (%)	Unemployment rate of parents (%)	School qualifications of parents (%)		
	1993	2003	2016/17			8 grades or less	Profession or matura	Diploma
Pécs, Practice School	22	21	18	0	4.65	7.32	31.7	60.98
Pécs, Berek street Primary School	25	14	0	7.5	19.23	2.,08	69.23	7.69
Primary School of Magyarmecske	12	10	2	33.34	75	70.83	29.17	0
Primary School of Gilvánfa	8	---	-	100	75	93.75	6.25	0
Primary School of Egyházasharaszti	18	20	22	94.45	91.43	85.71	14.29	0
Alsószentmártoni Primary School of Alsószentmárton	19	---	-	100	86.11	88.89	11.11	0
Primary School of Tiszabő	44	30	26	89	90	87.5	12.5	0
Primary School of Rakaca	13	11	8	8.,6	88.46	88.46	11.54	0
Total	**161**	**106**	**76**					

1 There was only a junior section in the primary school in Alsószentmárton and Gilvánfa; in the senior section students studied in the Primary School of Egyházasharaszti and Magyarmecske, so in the second and third phase of the research project their results appear under these school.

We applied different research focuses and tools therefore our investigation encompasses lifepaths of our examinees from commencing their studies to their adulthood. This enabled us to analyze the school careers and life opportunities of young people with different backgrounds. In the first phase of the research our starting points were the results of the Hungarian and international scientific research (Bernstein, 1975; Réger, 1990). We adapted their criteria of investigation to examine our selected learner groups. In the second phase of our investigation, at the point of finishing the primary school, we examined the capitals that the primary schools (over eight years) provided for the students in the first research phase. Based on the theory of cultural and social capitals, we examined the customs in the students' family and school lives and their opportunities. At the same time, we inspected how the accumulated quantity of capital could be converted into the process of selecting schools of secondary education. We surveyed those who chose the forms of institutions implying long-term schooling processes (grammar schools, specialized high schools), and those who opted for a predictably shorter learning span and employment with lower prestige. In this phase we found that the family background had a considerable influence on students' opportunities. Nonetheless, the observable differences between disadvantaged learners implied varying effects of social environment and school influence (Derdák – Varga, 2003).

Chart 2: Schools chosen for secondary education in 2003

Institutions	**Average school grades 8th grade, half of the term)**	**Data on further education, secondary schooling choices**			
		Secondary grammar school	Specialized high school	Apprentice school	None/ No further education
Pécs, Practice School 1 of University of Pécs	3.92	71.43%	23.81%	4.76%	0
Pécs, Berek street Primary School	3.58	40%	50%	10%	0
Primary schools of Gilvánfa and Magyarmecske	3.02	7.69%	38.46%	53.85%	0
Primary schools of Alsószentmárton and Egyházasharaszti	3.38	25%	0	66.67%	8.33%
Primary school of Tiszabő	3.23	0	3.45%	82.76%	13.79%
Primary school of Rakaca	3.17	18.18%	45.45%	36.36%	0
Country average (2003)	**No available data**	**33.46%**	**35.58%**	**26.02%**	**No available data**
Roma Data on the Roma, Gypsy learners*		**5.9%**	**15.9%**	**70%**	**8.2%**

*Havas – Kemény – Liskó, 2001

In our study we analyze this second stage more deeply, therefore we find it appropriate to point out observations from our questionnaire-based data collection. In the first eight years of primary school, the children from the control groups (belonging to families with higher social positions) are characterized by unobstructed advancement.

From the viewpoint of choosing secondary schools, our data collections confirm the

nationwide Roma, Gypsy research data (Graph 2). According to these data collections, disadvantaged or Roma, Gypsy young people tend to opt for "lower-rank" schooling forms, or no further education to a much higher extent than their peers. The datasets should be interpreted while bearing in mind that a considerably high percentage of students living in disadvantaged Roma, Gypsy families repeat a school year during their primary school studies. It is also important to note that the examined students in grade 8 are the "good-performers", as their peers who have fallen back are not included in this comparison. It is also apparent, however, that there are considerable differences between the examined schools of disadvantaged learners from the aspect of further education choices. In Rakaca and Magyarmecske an outstandingly high number of students went to matura-providing institutions, whereas Tiszabő is characterized by choosing lower-rank institutions, or no further education at all.

The aim of our publication is to provide further information and points of analysis based on a previously unassessed data collection set from 2003 and bridge the gap for the readers between the second phase of our research carried out ten years ago, and the currently running third stage.

In the second phase of the research (in 2003) we examined questionnaires filled out by every participant who we have found and who have been involved in the first phase of the research. These participants at that point were about to finish their elementary school education. Meanwhile the Berek utca elementary school was closed, but the participants who we have found from former Berek also filled out the quetionnaire. All together 6 learning groups participated in the second phase of the search (2 groups from Pécs, 1 from Magyarmecske, 1 from Egyházasharaszti, 1 from Tiszabő and 1 from Rakaca).

As a part of the research in 2003 we have made interviews with the principals of the research schools, furthermore we have analyzed documents of the schools in order to study their service system through dimensions (language education, alternative pedagogical tools, extra curriculum activities and field trips). We have found that the controll groups' schools in the city have provided much wider service system to their pupils. Furthermore, we have made interviews with the form teachers of the examined classes. Through the interviews it became clear that in comparison of the control group students, only half of the participant pupils from the village institutions were able to get to their 8th grade education – the rest were in retention, mainly because of a repeated year. With the help of the form teachers we have also examined the grades of the students and their choices of further education. Their grades, as well as their choice of secondary education correlated with their social status.

In the background of the continuation of studies were the opportunities and the habits of the pupils, which together give their symbolic capitals. The second phase questionnaire were directing questions to discover the symbolic capital of the students; their travellings, their internet use. In all three research areas we have found that the disadvantaged groups had a lack of opportunities for collecting symbolic capital, which have resulted in a shortened educational path.

In the end we have asked about the future outlooks and visions of the participating students through the questionnaire. They have written a short essay on the topic about their ideas of where they are going to live, what they are going to do for work and how they imagine their future families in 10 years of time.

Aims and considerations

In the questionnaires filled out in 2003, we wish to investigate the life opportunities of students coming from different backgrounds, especially the young people from socially disadvantaged, prejudice-stricken areas. Our goal was to reveal the influence of the social

environment on the future visions of the 14-15-year-old students, inspecting the correlation of differences of family and school environments. We focused on the content of the essays, surveying the differences in connection with the authors' future visions. Five topic areas were examined in order to find aspects of goal-orientation, which in our view could mean a more stable future. We aimed to discover what factors connect with the presence of goal-orientation and achievement-orientedness.

We supposed that we would find that future visions of the examined 8th-graders could be explained by their different social standing and upbringing, as well as the services provided by their schools or the available opportunities. We expected the following differences:

As for content analysis of the essays, we suppose that the essays of the students from the control groups will include more conscious statements about their future vision compared to essays of the peers coming from lower socio-economic status. We assume that this can be explained by the presence (or the lack of) consciously supportive environment (i.e., family or school). We also expect variations between the disadvantaged groups, presuming that these variations are due to the efforts of schools to compensate for disadvantages.

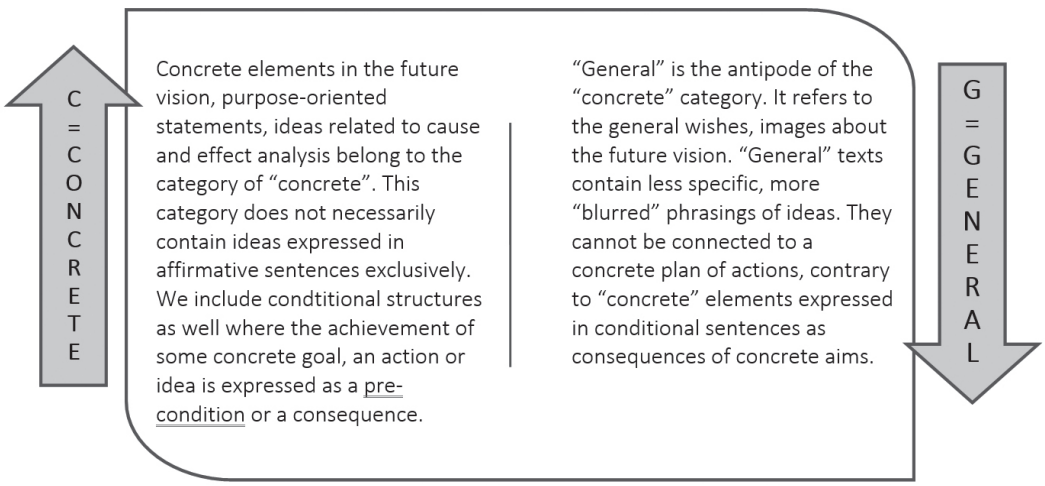
Tools and viewpoints of analysis

The investigation of the student groups from different backgrounds were carried out through the analysis of their written essays. The assignments were compiled in 8th grade (in 2003) as a part of a questionnaire-based data collection. This period is a decisive point in their lives as they are considering their secondary schooling choices, career orientation, and future planning. The instruction given by the researchers for writing the essay was the following:

> *"Please write at least 10 sentences about what will happen to you in ten years' time (work, place of living, family, etcetera)".*

The essays were analyzed qualitatively according to a previously outlined set of criteria with the help of independent coders. For the classification of purpose-oriented statements we used two umbrella categories (Graph 1) and five-five subcategories.

Graph 1: The main categories of coding



Results

There were general and concrete ideas in five main content categories expressed in the essays. It did not take us by surprise that notes on human relationships appeared in the highest proportions (Chart 3). The topic "Human relationships" was mentioned with the highest frequency in the essays of Rakaca, followed by the Pécs Practice School, Tiszabő and Magyarmecske, with Berek and Egyházasharaszti at the end of the ranking.

Chart 3: Percentage of the appearance of topic areas in the essays according to institutions

Category of investigation/ Institutions		**Pécs, Practice school 1 of the university of Pécs**	**Pécs, Berek street Primary School**	**Primary School of Magyar-mecske**	**Primary School of Egyházas-haraszti**	**Primary School of Tiszabő**	**Primary School of Rakaca**
TOTAL	Human relationships	21.20	22.06	34.62	24.07	28.05	39.19
	Life conduct	28.11	23.53	21.15	25.93	23.17	33.78
	Work	19.35	26.47	28.85	25.93	30.49	21.62
	Studies	15.21	16.18	15.38	16.67	15.85	5.41
	Leisure time	16.13	11.76	0.00	7.41	2.44	0.00
	Total	**100.00**	**100.00**	**100.00**	**100.00**	**100.00**	**100.00**
GENERAL	Human relationships	1.84	0.00	7.69	5.56	13.41	8.11
	Life conduct	0.92	2.94	9.62	11.11	10.98	5.41
	Work	0.00	5.88	9.62	20.37	16.46	9.46
	Studies	0.00	2.94	11.54	14.81	3.05	2.70
	Leisure time	0.46	0.00	0.00	3.70	0.00	0.00
	Total	**3.23**	**11.76**	**38.46**	**55.56**	**43.90**	**25.68**
CONCRETE	Human relationships	19.35	22.06	26.92	18.52	14.63	31.08
	Life conduct	27.19	20.59	11.54	14.81	12.20	28.38
	Work	19.35	20.59	19.23	5.56	14.02	12.16
	Studies	15.21	13.24	3.85	1.85	12.80	2.70
	Leisure time	15.67	11.76	0.00	3.70	2.44	0.00
	Total	**96.77**	**88.24**	**61.54**	**44.44**	**56.10**	**7.32**

In regards to the distribution of the topic areas in the essays within one institution, the ranking is modified: students write the most often about human relationships in Rakaca and Magyarmecske, but the other disadvantaged students also surpass the students of the two control groups (where only about one-fifth of the essays covered this topic area). With a further analysis of Chart 4 we see that the importance of human relationships and that their purpose-orientedness (high number of concrete elements) is observable everywhere. However, in the essays of the students belonging to the control groups, other topics were extensively dealt with as well.

Chart 4: Appearance of human relationships in the essays

Institutions ↓	Category of investigation	Total number of quotes	Number of quotes per person	Percentage of quotes in the whole essay, institutional average	Number of words in quotes	Average number of words in quotes
Pécs, Practice school of the University of Pécs	GENERAL	4	0.2	1,84	25	6,25
	CONCRETE	42	2.1	19,35	428	10,19
Pécs, Berek street Primary School	GENERAL	0	0	0	0	0
	CONCRETE	15	1.15	22.06	232	15.47
Primary School of Magyarmecske	GENERAL	4	0.4	7.69	51	12.75
	CONCRETE	14	1.4	26.92	121	8.64
Primary School of Egyházasharaszt	GENERAL	3	0.21	5.56	15	5
	CONCRETE	10	0.71	18.52	90	9
Primary School of Tiszabő	GENERAL	22	0.91	13.41	230	10.45
	CONCRETE	24	1	14.63	239	9.96
Primary school of Rakaca	GENERAL	6	0.6	8.11	34	5.67
	CONCRETE	23	2.3	31.08	165	7.17

In the category of concrete human relationships, all the students wrote about plans regarding their future families. They reflected on the planned age of getting married, number of children, and other issues. There were texts stating the desire to start a family in all institutions. In Egyházasharaszti they connected it to finishing school, in Berek, Rakaca, Tiszabő and Magyarmecske to reaching the adequate conditions. A specific age was said in essays from all the institutions in connection with getting married and starting a family. In Rakaca and Tiszabő this was supplemented by a point about making ends meet.

It is also worth noting that members of disadvantaged learner groups mentioned only their family members. On the other hand, learners of the control groups considered it important to highlight the significant role of their peer groups in their future plans.

There were concrete ideas about the academic careers of writers' future children in the essays from two schools. Analysing these parts, we faced the striking difference between the students of different backgrounds in the two schools. Students coming from higher social positions mostly explained the repetition of their careers when elaborating requirements about the studies of their would-be children. Disadvantaged learners, however, expressed their desired life pathopportunities about the career of their future offspring.

Chart 5: Presence of the topic "life conduct" in the essays

Institutions ↓	Category of investigation	Total number of quotes	Number of quotes per person	Percentage of quotes in the whole essay (institutional average)	Number of words in quotes	Average number of words in quotes
Pécs, Practice school 1 of the University of Pécs	GENERAL	2	.,1	0.92	16	8
	CONCRETE	59	2.95	27.19	317	5.37
Pécs, Berek street Primary School	GENERAL	2	0.15	2.94	12	6
	CONCRETE	14	1.08	20.59	179	12.78
Primary School of Magyarmecske	GENERAL	5	0.5	9.66	36	7.2
	CONCRETE	6	0.6	11.54	51	8.5
Primary School of Egyházasharaszti	GENERAL	6	0.43	11.11	52	8.67
	CONCRETE	8	0.57	14.81	51	6.38
Primary School of Tiszabő	GENERAL	18	0.75	10.98	109	6.06
	CONCRETE	20	0.83	12.19	103	5.15
Primary School of Rakaca	GENERAL	4	0.4	5.41	25	6.25
	CONCRETE	21	2.1	28.38	121	5.76

Elements regarding material wealth, residence preferences, and status symbols belong to the subcategory *life conduct*. This topic was present in high proportions in the essays, indicating that it plays an important role in the future vision of learners (Chart 5). Concrete ideas constituted an overwhelming majority in the essays from the Practice School, Berek and Rakaca. In Tiszabő, Magyarmecske, and Egyházasharaszti the presence of general and concrete ideas were almost equal. It is salient, however, that citations classified as general all appear in the concrete category as well, only the way they are composed is different.

Settlement preference was an issue in the essays from all the institutions. In this respect, a sharp difference is observable between the disadvantaged groups and the control groups. Essays written by disadvantaged students reflect a strong sense from within to move away from their present settlements of residence. In marked contrast to this, the essays of the control group settlement indicate a preference for staying in Pécs. An important note regarding dwelling conditions: in Rakaca most students refer to their housing conditions which may be explained by the fact that in Rakaca in the majority of the houses there were no bathrooms with running water in 2003.

There is another significant difference in the writings of the control group. Their ideas about life include a wide range of topics, whereas members of the disadvantaged group mostly only write about housing conditions. For instance, students of the Practice School mentioned that they would have horse stables, basketball courts, supermarkets, nuclear shelters, and so on. Students from Berek also had some similar items.

Chart 6: The presence of the topic of "work" in the essays

Institutions ↓	Category of investigation	Total number of quotes	Number of quotes per person	Percentage of quotes in the whole essay (institutional average)	Number of words in quotes	average number of words in quotes
Pécs, Practice school 1 of the University of Pécs	GENERAL	0	0.00	0	0	0
	CONCRETE	42	2.1	19.35	273	6.5
Pécs, Berek street Primary School	GENERAL	4	0.31	5.88	31	7.75
	CONCRETE	14	1.08	20.59	124	8.86
Primary School of Magyarmecske	GENERAL	5	0.50	9.62	37	7.4
	CONCRETE	10	1.00	19.23	89	8.9
Primary School of egyházasharaszti	GENERAL	11	0.79	20.37	80	7.27
	CONCRETE	3	0.21	5.56	18	6
Primary School of Tiszabő	GENERAL	27	1.13	16.46	217	8.04
	CONCRETE	23	0.96	14.02	187	8.13
Primary school of Rakaca	GENERAL	7	0.70	9.46	55	7.86
	CONCRETE	9	0.90	12.16	44	4.89

Ideas about work were present in high numbers in the essays of each and every group, which is not surprising in the period of choosing careers. We observe significant differences between concrete and general ideas (Chart 6). In the two control groups wishes in connection with work were not phrased in general terms, whereas in Magyarmecske, almost one-third of the paragraphs about work appertain to the category of general ideas. In Rakaca and Tiszabő the proportions of the two categories are balanced, whereas in Egyházasharaszti there are three times more generally phrased ideas than concrete elements. In the schools of disadvantaged students, the wish to have work is strongly present, but there are no concretely defined elements concerning it. It becomes understandable how belonging to different social groups may have an influence on shaping individual perspectives about future life prospects. Concretely verbalized plans will probably become more feasible than blurred desires. These desires about concrete vocations, which were present in essays from all surveyed schools, were phrased in conditional or wishing sentences. In Rakaca, Berek, Tiszabő and the Practice School in Pécs there are sentences in the essays that did not name a concrete profession, but they are phrased in affirmative sentences reflecting a strong sense of goal-consciousness. With the exception of Egyházasharaszti, essays from every institution contain elements about work that were phrased in affirmative sentences, elaborating on future plans with the addition of elements defining the conditions of the would-be professions or would-be jobs.

Tiszabő was the only place where workplace descriptions included elements appearing as a kind of wishful thinking and hint at impossibility and no chance of fulfillment according to their context. Negative future vision due to ethnicity also came up among these explanations. We also encountered phrases reflecting "wishful thinking" from other approaches in Egyházasharaszti and the Practice School, where "childish" dreams also showed up in the images of the future workplaces. However, in the Practice School there is a low percentage of "childish" desires, whereas in Egyházasharaszti two-thirds of the texts about future workplaces belong to this "wishful thinking" category.

In contrast, we found extremely conscious elements fitting into realistic future visions with high frequency in the essays of Practice School and Berek students. These can be regarded as concrete plans with cause-and-effect connections and/or contain several feasible options about future professional careers.

Chart 7: Presence of the topic of "studies" in the essays

Institutions ↓	Category of investigation	Total number of quotes	Number of quotes per person	Percentage of quotes in the essay (institutional average)/	Number of words in quotes	Average number of words in quotes
Pécs, Practice school 1 of the University of Pécs	GENERAL	0	0	0	0	0
	CONCRETE	33	1.65	15.21	227	6.88
Pécs, Berek street Primary School	GENERAL	2	0.15	2.94	14	7
	CONCRETE	9	0.69	13.24	59	6.56
Primary School of Magyarmecske	GENERAL	6	0.6	11.54	51	8.5
	CONCRETE	2	0.2	3.85	14	7
Primary School of Egyházasharaszti	GENERAL	8	0.57	14.81	50	6.25
	CONCRETE	1	0.07	1.85	5	5
Primary School of Tiszabő	GENERAL	5	0.21	3.05	34	6.8
	CONCRETE	21	0.875	12.80	205	9.76
Primary School of Rakaca	GENERAL	2	0.2	2.70	12	6
	CONCRETE	2	0.2	2.70	31	15.5

The analysis of the essay content regarding studies and educational goals reveals whether the envisioned future career is supported by adequate study plans. In general, students wrote less about their study plans compared to other topic areas. A high proportion of concrete, specific ideas is characteristic in the two control groups. Disadvantaged students do think about their future studies, but typically reflect on them in general terms. With the exception being Tiszabő where some students prepared ambitiously for gaining admission into the secondary education institute with the name "Roma Esély" ("Chance for the Roma" that commenced its activities in the nearby Szolnok, during our period of sampling (Chart 7). Most of the texts are exclusively composed by affirmations about finishing school. There are paragraphs belonging to the general category that contain some specified elements, but these appear in contexts reflecting uncertainty. In the concrete category we may also discover elements where specification only refers to commitment about finishing school. Such examples are considerably rare in the essays from the control group, whereas they appear with significantly higher frequency in the essays of the disadvantaged students. The goals set by the students outline the differences in their future visions and the influence of their social status in the background. This is salient in terms of purpose-orientedness, where there is a remarkable difference between the writings of the control group and the essays from the other schools. Students from the control groups describe study plans for longer time spans and with higher outcomes, whereas in the other institutions most descriptions were about study events in the near future with lower qualifications at the end. In the essays from the control group, however, we also encountered concrete action plans for achieving the set goals in several cases.

Chart 8: Presence of the topic of "leisure time" in the essays

Institutions ↓	Category of investigation	Total number of quotes	Number of quotes per person	Percentage of quotes in the essay (institutional average)	Number of words in quotes	Average of words in quotes
Pécs, Practice School 1 of the University of Pécs	GENERAL	1	0.05	0.46	17	17
	CONCRETE	34	1.7	15.67	212	6.24
Pécs, Berek street Primary School	GENERAL	0	0	0	0	0
	CONCRETE	8	0.61	11.76	63	7.86
Primary School of Magyarmecske	GENERAL	0	0	0	0	0
	CONCRETE	0	0	0	0	0
Primary School of Egyházasharaszti	GENERAL	2	0.14	3.7	11	5.5
	CONCRETE	2	0.14	3.7	10	5
Primary School of Tiszabő	GENERAL	0	0	0	0	0
	CONCRETE	4	0.17	2.44	54	13.5
Primary School of Rakaca	GENERAL	0	0	0	0	0
	CONCRETE	0	0	0	0	0

The last remaining topic area of our analysis is the category defined as "leisure time", which is in connection with having quality free time activities, entertainment, hobbies, travels, holidays and vacations (Chart 8). It is astonishing to observe that disadvantaged students made almost no hints about these activities except for some wishes about holidays. The essays of the control group contain elements belonging to this category, with high frequency in the Practice School. The question of travels and holidays is detailed considerably purposefully in their texts, reflecting a level of financial welfare as well. Ideas about hobbies show similar patterns. Berek and Practice School students wrote descriptions with various ideas, which can be explained by the wider scope of opportunities available for them. In the future conceptions of disadvantaged students these "extra" activities are completely missing, or only appear at the level of desires ("wishful thinking"), and with very low frequency. In this respect, we observed an outstandingly large gap between the essays of the control groups and the compositions of the other institutions. Presumably, students from the control groups gained personal experience about the importance of these "extra" activities in the quality of life. In contrast, this essential part of quality life conduct is completely missing from the life of disadvantaged students.

Conclusion

The analysis of the future vision of the surveyed 8th grade students confirmed our hypothesis. There were remarkable differences between the essays. The disparity is spectacular if we compare the students coming from families with high and low social positions. However, there were considerable differences between the disadvantaged Roma, Gypsy communities as well, depending on their schools and socio-geographical situations.

The content-based analysis of the texts proved the following: in the compositions of students coming from families with higher social positions, there exists a significantly higher number of purpose-oriented affirmations in all the five topic areas in connection

with their future vision. This implies a higher probability of fulfilling the expressed wishes. The concrete conceptions in the essays of the disadvantaged students mostly dealt with issues of human relationships and matters of lifestyle whereas the text fragments about work and studies lacked the cause-and-effect concepts that were characteristic of the texts written by the control group learners. The topic area of free time activities was almost exclusively dealt with by the control group learners, which implies that disadvantaged students have very little personal experience about quality free time opportunities.

The high or low number of concrete affirmations may be explained by the given life situation of the student. Growing up in a family with stable financial background and highly qualified parents means an unquestionable advantage from the viewpoint of the purpose-oriented future vision as well. At the same time, it highlights the crucial importance of the school system in the role of compensating for these social disparities. Presumably, successful lifepaths can be expected where concrete elements appear and reflect a positive shift toward a more purpose-oriented attitude.

Therefore, it is important to note the findings of our research showed how salient differences are observable if we compare the various disadvantaged groups according to the five topic areas, in spite of all the similarities. In addition to the varying extents of social under-privilege, the efforts of the schools for compensating disadvantage are in the background of this phenomenon. In South-Transdanubia the life opportunities of the families are greatly linked to the socio-geographical circumstances. Moreover, the extent of inclusivity in the schools of the region is measurable, especially in Magyarmecske. There are differences between the children in the two Roma, Gypsy communities from Eastern Hungary. In the completely enclosed community of Tiszabő, the future vision of the students is the most uncertain, mostly lacking specific elements. Most elements of inclusivity cannot be found among the pedagogical services of the local school. In Rakaca, despite the deep poverty that most Roma, Gypsy families live in, the future visions expressed in the student essays contain some notions that may develop into realistic perspectives. Furthermore, the local school enhances these potentials, since its pedagogical services are stronger than those of Tiszabő.

Based on our analysis, we firmly believe that the schools in disadvantaged areas and societies have an immense role and responsibility in shaping students' future visions. The fundamental question for us is to inspect how these schools may serve their roles of determining life opportunities and compensating for social disparities. We presumed that we would find more resilient adults in 2017 with higher probability, where we read about more purpose-oriented future visions in the essays. We hope that in the third phase of our investigation (2017-) we will be able to gain a comprehensive insight into the protective effects of inclusive schools (both in terms of theory and practice) and social environments with the help of deep lifepath interviews.

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AUTHORS

Bálint, Ágnes: Associate Professor, Institute of Education Sciences, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, University of Pécs, Pécs, Hungary

Borosán, Lívia: Head of Department, Pedagogy and Methodology Department, Teacher Training Institute, University of Physical Education, Budapest, Hungary

Csepela, Yvette: Deputy Director of Institute, Pedagogy and Methodology Department, Teacher Training Institute, University of Physical Education, Budapest, Hungary

Gergye, Eszter: Assistant Lecturer, PhD student, Institute of Education Sciences, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, "Education and Society" Doctoral School of Education, University of Pécs, Pécs, Hungary

Hamar, Pál: Director of Institute, Pedagogy and Methodology Department, Teacher Training Institute, University of Physical Education, Budapest, Hungary

Imre, Anna: Educational Researcher, Hungarian Educational Research Association (HERA), Hungary

Kálmán, Csaba: Senior Lecturer, Department of English Applied Linguistics, Faculty of Humanities, Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest, Hungary

Kárpáti, Andrea: Professor, Institute of Teacher Education, Faculty of Central European Studies, Constantine the Philosopher University, Nitra, Slovakia

Kovács, Zsuzsa: Senior Lecturer, Institute of Research on Adult Education and Knowledge Management, Faculty of Education and Psychology, Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest, Hungary

Molnár-Kovács, Zsófia: Assistant Professor, Institute of Education Sciences, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, University of Pécs, Pécs, Hungary

Rayman, Julianna: Psychologist, Hungary

Soós, István: Research Professor, Pedagogy and Methodology Department, Teacher Training Institute, University of Physical Education, Budapest, Hungary

Varga, Aranka: Chair / Associate Professor, Institute of Education Sciences, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, University of Pécs, Pécs, Hungary

Whyte, Ian: Team Leader and Principal Lecturer, University of Sunderland, United Kingdom

Zank, Ildikó: Assistant Lecturer, Institute of Education Sciences, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, University of Pécs, Pécs, Hungary