

# **Education in Transition**

Edited by  
**Erika Juhász Ph.D.**

Reviewed by  
**Tamás Kozma D.Sc. habil.**  
**Ildikó Szabó D.Sc. habil.**

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**ERIKA JUHÁSZ**

**PREFACE OF THE EDITOR**

In Hungary in the past 20 years the life of education has undergone a major transformation on all educational platforms, from public education through higher education to adult education. New institutions have emerged such as Regional Integrated Vocational Training Centres in public education, private colleges in higher education or in adult education the regional training and research centres as well as several ventures of adult education. New functions have become stronger, like the dominance of labour market which is apparent almost everywhere. New methods have been gaining ground, e.g. the project method or inclusive education. The target group-oriented approach has also appeared, in which the education tries to satisfy the tailor-made demands of several special target groups, such as disabled people, mothers with babies or the elderly. Many researches have studied and still study these changes, as well as the survey of these changes and the survey of the impact, nearly 20 of which can be found in our volume of studies.

The essays of this volume are presented in two major units. In the first part we can read about the changes of the primary, secondary and higher education. The papers study both the Hungarian institutions of public and higher education and Europe, especially the Central and Eastern European regions. In the essays among the studied target groups we can find mothers (Ágnes Engler: Mothers as Part-time Students in Higher Education), women (Zsuzsa Zsófia Tornyi: Women at the University of Debrecen), disabled people (Ildikó Laki: Educational Integration of Disabled Youth) and residential college students (Gyöngyvér Pataki: Residential College Students at the University of Debrecen). There are questions of methodology such as the use of Internet in education (Judit Herczegh: Use of the Internet and Communication at the University of Debrecen in the Light of the Information Society), student satisfaction survey (András Buda: Conclusions of the Findings of Student Satisfaction Surveys at the Faculties of the University of Debrecen), problem solving in teaching (Ibolya Revákné Markóczi – Beáta Tóth Kosztin: Investigation of Scientific Problem Solving Strategies Among 9-10 Year-old Pupils) and the appearance of

violence in the educational institutions. Erika Szirmai: How Do Students Cope with Bullying?). We can read about comprehensive theoretical-research topics too dealing with the values of education (Katinka Bacskai: Educational Values of Reformed Secondary Schools in Hungary) and an international comparative research on education (Ilona Dóra Fekete – Szilvia Simándi: International Academic Relations in Central and Eastern Europe – a Brief Comparative Approach).

The second unit outlines the possibilities and limits of adult education and in a wider sense those of the cultural refinement in adulthood. The latter one includes adult leaning in an institution (e.g. learning a new vocation), visiting cultural programs (museums, concerts etc.) and the independent, autonomous and spontaneous learning forms too. At the beginning of the unit we can find the part studies of a nationwide research on autonomous learning (Erika Juhász: Main Aspects of Autonomous Adult Learning in Hungary; Judit Herczegh – Orsolya Tátrai – Zsuzsa Zsófia Tornyi: The Characteristics of Autonomous Learning). As for the wider interpretation of culture there is the role of educational televisions (Attila Kenyeres: The appearance of the informative function in the Hungarian, the German and in the Austrian newsreel), learning in non-profit organizations, (Edina Márkus: Nonprofit Organizations Serving Cultural Purposes in East Central European Cities) and festivals which create values (János Zoltán Szabó: Festivals And Non-Conformism In Hungary). On the field of the adult education defined in a narrower sense we can read about the accreditation of institutions of adult education in studies applying the method of organization sociology (Márta Miklósi: Quality Control and Accreditation in Adult Education. With Especial Emphasis on Institutions in the North Great Plain Region), about evening schools (Szilvia Simándi – Tímea Oszlanczi: The Role of Previous Knowledge in Adult Learning. A Case Study in an Evening High School) and we get a little insight in Danish Folk High Schools (Ágnes Szabó: The State of Play of the Danish Folk High Schools).

We recommend this volume of studies for anyone who would like to know the results of the Hungarian education research within and outside our borders. The material of the studies can be well utilised in education (pedagogy, andragogy and teacher's training), in renewing the platforms of education and also as an inspiration for new researches. We wish a useful and enlightening reading experience in the name of the authors and lectors too!



# **PRIMARY, SECONDARY AND HIGHER EDUCATION**



**KATINKA BACSKAI**

***EDUCATIONAL VALUES OF REFORMED SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN  
HUNGARY***

According to previous researchers, it greatly contributes to the success of a school how firmly and consistently certain principles and standards are represented or denied. A unified system of norms can itself support the achievement of the school's goals. If teachers' expectations are in harmony with each other, their observance can be executed more consistently. However, the transmission of values can only be fully successful if there is a closed network of friends behind (Burt 2000). Without it, students identify themselves with the values and norms conveyed by the school only superficially or temporarily. According to Coleman's closure (Coleman 1985) theory, if individuals have close and intense relationships, a climate of trust is developed, which supports the establishment of a common system of norms. Teachers' expectations regarding studying and students' behaviour influence not only directly but also indirectly the performance of students through shaping teacher-student and student-student relationships and also through judging offences of discipline and violence.

More than 15 % of Hungary's population belongs to the Hungarian Reformed Church. The church runs 26 secondary schools beside its other numerous obligations. The Doctoral Program of Educational Sciences in the University of Debrecen pays special attention to denominational educational institutions in Hungary and in Europe. There have already been a great number of studies in this field, and there are new findings at present as well. Among the Central European countries there are currently surveys about students studying in Hungary, Ukraine and Romania (Pusztai 2006; 2007), as well as teachers in Ukrainian schools where the language of education is Hungarian (Molnár 2007). The empirical research about the teachers and the organizational atmosphere of the reformed grammar schools was conducted by the Department of the University of Debrecen together with the Reformed Pedagogic Institution. The teachers got the questionnaires in envelopes and they were asked to give the closed envelopes back to the schools coordinators after answering the questions without giving names. We got 169 filled

questionnaires back from 11 schools, four of these schools are in the official residence of different counties, while 4 institutions are in smaller towns. We did not get back any questionnaires from the schools in the capital. The inclination to answer the questionnaires was very much varied in the different schools in question. There were institutions that sent back only 4 closed envelopes, while there was a school which sent as many as 20 envelopes. We would like to present the analysis made on the basis of these answers, which we also compared with findings of former empirical researches in certain cases.

### ***Characteristics of the sample***

38 % of the people filling in the questionnaires were male, compared to the national average of grammar schools which was as low as 28,7% in the school year of 2005/06. So we can say that the rate of genders is the best balanced in Hungarian reformed grammar schools. The rate of females increases in most European countries, which presents a problem there, too.

We divided the sample into three parts on the basis of age. The first group was under thirty, it meant altogether twenty people. The second group consisted of the middle-aged, this was the largest group with 93 people, who constitute the core of most of the staffs. The members of the third group were over 55, but only fourteen people complied with this category when this sample was taken. The average age in the schools was the same as the national average: 41 years.

As there was only one reformed school allowed to function before the change of regime, most of the teachers have not been working long in the school where they filled in the questionnaires. Less than one third of the teachers have been working for more than ten years in the institutions in question, and one third of them have not even spent four years there. The overwhelming majorities of the teachers work full time and has a status in the institution where they filled in the questionnaire. In some institutions all the questionnaires without exception were filled in by such teachers. It is an essential point, because a lot of educational tasks are carried out more efficiently by such stable teachers than by teachers who spend less time in the institution. There were only 19 people altogether employed part time or as teachers who give lessons but have not got a status. In one of

the schools, however, almost all participants belonged to these two categories. Unfortunately, we do not know whether it is a relevant indicator for the whole school as well. The reason why only a few teachers had personal experience about how denominational schools work is the same: only 14 of them studied in such institutions. Nevertheless, some kind of adherence to denominational schools could be detected in half of the cases, as a relative either attended or still attend a denominational school. There is another group of 14 people who did not study in a denominational school, but one of their relatives from the same generation did. In these cases especially brothers and sisters, husbands or cousins could speak about their experience. In most instances, however, it is their children or other children of the family who could keep the continuity. In rarer cases the ancestry (parents, grandparents) serve as links. It occurred only in 8 cases that the family chose denominational schools through several generations.<sup>1</sup>

20% of the teachers answering the questionnaires teach science subject(s), 16% teach art subjects, 16% teach languages, 6% teach religion and the rest teach other subjects like P.E., or they work in the youth hostel.

### *The features of the schools*

All the institutions except for one are refounded or newly founded. As a consequence the staffs are relatively homogeneous: there is a core, a so-called ancient generation, who has been working there since the foundation, and there are colleagues who joined later, when the school was already operating.

There is no standardized requirement regarding the entrance exams to the reformed schools. In most institutions (apart from two exceptions) there is some kind of assessment to check students' knowledge or competence or at least an oral exam or rather a conversation to get to know the students' personality.

We asked the teachers in the form of open question why they had chosen the given school as their workplace. 115 gave shorter or longer answers. We divided the answers into categories on the basis

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<sup>1</sup> Unfortunately, among those who marked that some of their relatives studied in a denominational school (76 people) only 69 people gave a detailed answer, which may not be full (they did not enumerated everybody).

of their marked message. The prime motivation for choosing the given school was the Christian value system, the spirituality of the school and the consequent school atmosphere. A lot of teachers explained their choice by their attachment to the reformed church and considered this job as a mission. In case of 18 people it happened by chance that they got into these schools. At a smaller rate it was the management or the maintainer of the school that offered the jobs. There were teachers who considered the school's high educational standards the most important. For 14 teachers there was either a personal attachment or family concern to the given school or the reformed schools in general, as the ancestors or they themselves had studied in these institutions.

### ***Reformed schools in the light of other schools***

As denominational schools were not allowed to operate apart from some exceptions, the teachers working for a longer time had already taught in other non-denominational schools, as we mentioned before. These are mostly older, experienced colleagues, who started teaching a long time ago.

In our survey 65% of the people have such experience. We asked them to compare their present and their previous workplace or workplaces (mostly it means 1-3 schools) from some points of view. They had to evaluate certain aspects from 1 to 5 (from much worse to much better).

The teachers evaluated their present school more favourable than their previous one from all the viewpoints. What they considered outstandingly better was the atmosphere of the school and the staff, and the school's management as well. Besides, they assessed students' behavior better, too.

### ***Teacher's religiousness***

The teachers under survey were mostly christened as infants. 94% of them got this sacrament by the age of adolescence. There were only six teachers altogether who are not baptized. 64% of the christened belong to the reformed church, 33% are Roman Catholic and three people are evangelic. There are schools where we can see that the teachers who filled in the questionnaires are overwhelmingly

reformed, while in certain institutions we got answers mainly from catholic teachers. As regards religious practice we make difference between personal and communal one. It is essential by all means in a denominational school how often the teacher goes to a religious community, church service or how they live their faith personally. One teacher claimed to be definitely non-religious and two more people considered themselves non-religious. Nine teachers could not define whether they are religious or not. All the other teachers regarded themselves religious, most of them in accordance with the doctrines of the church (54%). They think they have a very strong or a strong tie to their church. The rest (38%) regarded themselves religious in their own way, which is perhaps a bit difficult to conceive. They have only a loose tie if any to their church. The rate of religious people among the teachers of reformed schools is far above the rate of religious people among the adult population in Hungary. As a matter of fact, this rate in all the Hungarian adult population is just reversed: 15 and 59%

Most of the teachers (66%) agreed with the statement that their immediate family and friends consider them religious. So their religiousness is evident to their environment, too. Their family and friends are considered more or less religious as well, which means a mostly homogeneous religious background. About one fifth of the teachers' family and friends under survey can be defined as firmly religious.

### ***Educational values***

We asked the teachers to make an order of importance of five principles. They considered the principle „*students should extend their knowledge in school*” the most important, and spiritual growth was almost as important as that. The third place was taken by the principle „*students should learn to behave*”, the fourth principle was „*students should learn to work*”. The least important in the list was the principle that „*students should feel good in the institution*”. Among the educational values the most essential were reliability, honesty, responsibility, all of which are primarily altruist values. The least important ones were enforcing interests, economy and skills required to make a good leader (cf. Pusztai 2007, 174; Bacskai 2008). On the basis of preferred educational values and their order, we could divide the teachers into four groups. The first group (23

people) was made up of teachers who consider forming altruist values much more important than other values preferred at a workplace like leading abilities or economy. For them students' spiritual development is just as important as attitudes to work. The second group consists of teachers (25 people) for whom the most important values are in connection with work. They think that the primary goal of the school is to teach students to work. The third group comprises a great number of teachers (52 people), who prefer values appreciated by the middle class like independence, love of work and responsibility. It is also a numerous group (53 people) whose central values are the traditional, reformed, communal principles like patriotism, tolerance, good behavior and inner harmony at the same time. They not only live by these principles but they also try to impart them.

We could group the features appearing as typical educational goals with the help of factor analysis. We could separate five different groups as can be seen in Fig. 3. We classified the values expected from students into the following categories: 'Good adaptability', 'Developing personality individualistically', 'Traditional protestant values', 'Features exploitable in the labour market' and 'General Christian characteristics'.

Our respondents evaluate school's requirements towards students mostly high or medium in the field of discipline and studies, while their own requirements in this respect are definitely high or very high. The difference in the field of discipline is striking: eight people (4.8%) found the school's requirements very high, 86 other people (52%) high, however, regarding their own expectations, 27 (16%) and 112 (67%) people were of the same opinion respectively. That is individual expectations of teachers definitely confirm institutional norms. Nobody evaluated either the school's or their own expectations low or very low. Teachers seem to be less homogeneous in requirements concerning studying. There are institutions where respondents think these academic requirements towards students are very high, while there are institutions where respondents feel these requirements are just of medium strength.

When we inquired about the unity of the staff (on the basis of the following question: *"Please evaluate on a scale of one to five how consistent you think the staff is in the following issues!"*), we found that the staff can act consistently mostly in disciplinary matters, in well-defined areas like learning or students' educational progress. Teachers agree on greeting norms, the tone of communication with



the teacher, school habits and on the issue of how to prepare for competitions<sup>2</sup> or how to catch up with the rest of the class. There is also a relatively high consistency in norms controlling teachers' conduct and in rules regarding teacher-student relationships, although mainly in one of the latest institutions these norms do not seem to be settled yet. There is not a unity in the activity of teachers or in treating students' intimate relationships. In one of the schools teachers are mostly divided on the issue of smoking outside the institution. In general, one can observe that younger colleagues see less unity in the staff in several matters. It is no coincidence, since they themselves are also learning the organizational culture, and they are more vulnerable to controversy.

We asked the teachers to give priority to the five principles<sup>3</sup> listed by them. Respondents thought the most important factor was *"to broaden the knowledge of the student at school"* but it was almost as important to develop spiritually". The third is *"to learn how to behave,"* and the fourth is to *"learn to work"*. The least important in the list is *"to feel good within the walls of the institution."* Pedagogical goals of reformed teachers can be described best by the equality of intellectual and spiritual education in importance, closely followed by the preparation for social integration and integration into the labor market.

The most important educational values, according to the survey, are reliability, honesty and sense of responsibility, all of which are altruistic values contributing to help cooperation between people. The least important values are considered to be enforcement of interests, economy and managerial skills (cf. Pusztai 2007, 174; Bacskai 2008).

We grouped the 30 educational values in question (see Figure 1) on the basis of the following question *"How important is it to you as a teacher to develop the following characteristics in your students?"* We used factor analysis in order to reveal the relationships<sup>4</sup> between them. The process ensures that we can observe which variables go together, that is, if you prefer certain values, then what other

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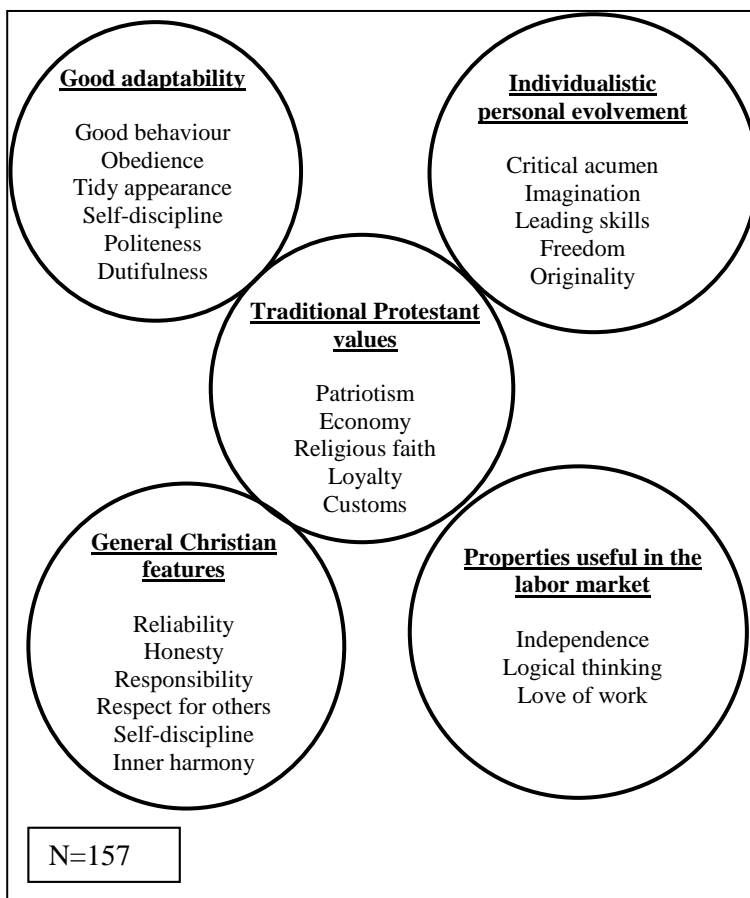
<sup>2</sup> There is a school where the teachers' opinion is divided into the issue of preparing students for competitions.

<sup>3</sup> These principles are as follows: the student should feel good at school; the student should learn to behave at school; the student should learn to work at school; the student should broaden his knowledge at school; the student should develop spiritually at school

<sup>4</sup> For weight factors see Table 4 in the appendix.

properties you will also give preference to. Five such groups could be distinguished. We named the preferences as follows: "*good adaptability*", "*individualistic evolvement of the character*", "*traditional Protestant values*", "*properties useful in the labor market*" and "*general Christian properties*". Each cluster includes several features that represent different "ideals". Figure 1 shows which group of values place which ideal in the center.

*Figure 1: Educational values in Protestant secondary schools*



We can see that Reformed schools try to pass traditional values and meet the challenges of the modern age at the same time. The different value groups are not chosen by the teachers with the same frequency. The most frequently chosen cluster is the cluster of general Christian values (58% of the respondents chose it). This group includes such features as universal human values like respect for others, self-discipline or human qualities useful for society such as reliability and responsibility. Christian values involve inner harmony and thus they embody together the idea of a man who lives for others and well-balanced at the same time. The second most frequently chosen cluster is the cluster of "*well adaptable*" students. Teachers choosing this cluster consider neat appearance and decency important. In this group we find properties that are essential requisites for school discipline. For most teachers these features are important too, turning out from answers given to other questions, as they belong to the classic image of reformed schools.

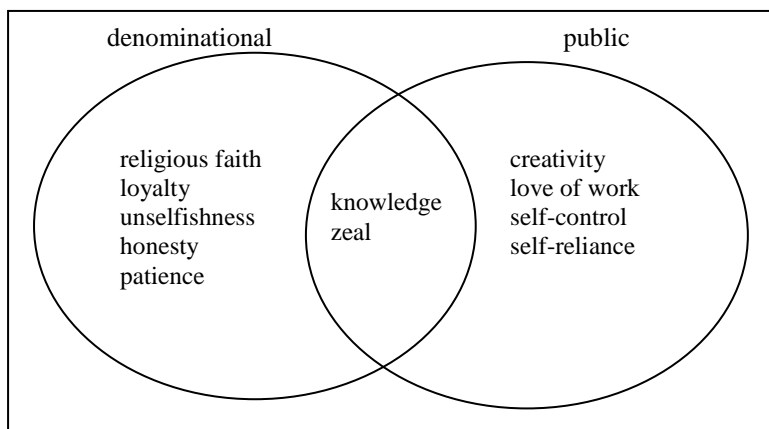
A talented individual is also in the focus of traditional religious education, think of "Fasori" Lutheran Gymnasium, and Jesuit schools. It is also among the first priorities for teachers in today's Hungarian Reformed schools to deal with students individually, and to help them through self-realization as far as possible. Freedom, imagination, originality are just as important as critical acumen, which should be an important hallmark of prevailing intelligentsia. While traditional Christian values were preferred by women mainly, individualistic values were preferred by men especially.

It is mostly typical of schools founded recently that traditional Protestant values are less emphasized. Teachers suggest the idea of conservative-minded people to lesser extent. Keeping respectable traditions, patriotism, religion, economy and loyalty are concepts that appeared in the conception of reformed education right from the start (Kopp 2007), but now there are other values coming increasingly to the fore. The least desirable is the list of practical values asserted so much in the labor market, which is given emphasis in educational policy in recent times as a topic of conversation (only 40% of the respondents regarded these properties very important). Reformed schools represent traditional and Christian values as opposed to trendy ones.

### ***Harmony between values of the school and the family***

Disharmony between the range of values in school and at home, the so-called "*dual education*" is a well-known problem in pedagogy. We can achieve the best results if the family and the school cooperate in passing on values. Pusztai (2009, 172) found that harmony between the school and the family is realized better in religious schools than in public institutions. It was explained by the fact that the value system of religious schools can be outlined easier, so students can perceive its similarity with or difference from the norms set in their own families more obviously. The researcher shows that students chose conservative values in religious schools the most often. This factor contained the values of a peaceful world, respectable customs, patriotism, religious faith and social order, compared to the post material factor (such as love, freedom, inner harmony, imagination), which is slightly behind as the second most frequently chosen group, and compared to the new material factor (power, material wealth), which was considered important only by half of the students. We conducted a qualitative research among students as well. We interviewed 40 students from 4 public and 4 private high schools.

*Figure 2: Values in High Schools in Debrecen according to the pupils*



According to the students in denominational schools their teachers prefer conservative values. More pupils said in public schools, that post material values are more important to their teachers.

### **Summary**

Principles in children's education are basically defined by traditions, attitudes and intentions (Füstös and Szabados 1998, 249), and so are the norms and values on the basis of which teachers in reformed schools try to teach. It is not an easy job, because there are newer social and political expectations of schools like easing social mobility, reducing intolerance, developing students' competence. Although teachers' working conditions have deteriorated in recent years, the prevailing atmosphere in schools seems to be positive in all the examined institutions. Most teachers highlighted from the basic characteristics of their school the following features: "*demanding*" and "*caring*". These are the main factors that determine their educational goals.

The teachers interviewed admit that the first among their pedagogical goals is imparting knowledge, but it turns out from their answers that they put a great emphasis on shaping their students' personality and also on spiritual care, despite their increased workload. For this reason the overload of teachers is a vital problem in reformed schools, too. Teachers feel the organizational climate of their school good from every point of view. They are satisfied with the school's leadership, although most of the teachers who do not have any position (administrative, in management, etc) do not have a say either in everyday things or in strategic issues. Thus the traditional division of roles works well in these institutions, that is teachers teach, leaders lead.

The staff seem to have unity in their perception of norms and values. General Christian values come to the fore not only in the classroom, but also through extracurricular activities. Schools from which students get into higher education more successfully have a poorer value system than schools with less good indicators in this respect – but with excellent indicators in general terms among reformed grammar schools.

In our study we wanted to show the background of teachers' work in these institutions, what the organizing principles, and conditions are like. Obviously, we can only show a one-sided picture because of the

limitations of large-scale studies. Only teachers and students know exactly what life is really like in schools, and time will tell later how successful they are.

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**SZÉCHENYI PLAN**

**ANDRÁS BUDA**

***STUDENT SATISFACTION SURVEYS AT THE FACULTIES OF THE  
UNIVERSITY OF DEBRECEN***

Higher education doubtless plays a key role in today's economic processes, as the economy and higher education overlap on several levels, thus success in one area promotes the development of the other. They have an impact on one another of several kinds, adopting from one another good practice, procedures, and analyzing whether they can apply tried and true solutions from one field in the other field.

Quality control has developed several highly functioning practices in different areas of the economy, and as one well-documented result of which consumer satisfaction is an ever higher priority in the practice of institutes of education. It is in the basic interest of the given institution to assess student satisfaction, as satisfied "*customers*" mean an advantage against competitors in the short and long run alike. This demand, however is not easy to satisfy; several special circumstances exacerbate finding a solution. On the one hand, the relationship of students and the higher education institution is a special one as the user is deeply involved in the service process. Their skills, attitude, motivation, preferences, in short, the student's performance, fundamentally define the quality of higher education service, and it greatly affects the quality also sensed by the other users (Bay and Daniel 2001). Moreover, the consumer's performance is also assessed in education, which may lead to new conflicts. Another problem is that there is a contradiction between the short-term and long-term goal systems of students. Current students evaluate the process itself, while graduates evaluate the result. The satisfaction of active students reflects the actual state, which changes doubly with respect to time. On the one hand, the change of requirements makes the students assess the same service differently; on the other, institutional reorganizations and developments make the service itself change, too. In the case of graduates an even more significant factor may be time, as the passing of time makes their actual labor market position change, which in turn naturally influences their opinions (Arambewela and Hall 2009).

Until the mid-2000s higher education institutions had been attempting to collect the opinions of graduates to varying degrees and by using different methods. First in 2008 a national project was launched to develop the programs of career tracking, which received central support from the New Hungary Development Plan. Along the research findings of general interest, the development of institutional occupational tracking models was commenced with methodological support and professional collaboration, in which the employees of the University of Debrecen actively took part. The project intended to systemize the measurements related to the problematic rather than carry out a one-off measurement, thus the observations collected during earlier surveys carried out at the University of Debrecen proved useful indeed.

As a result of the joint effort, a survey series was established, to be performed in several stages, part of which targeted the active students of the institution while another part focused on graduates. The difference in population naturally entails different survey questions; therefore, upon processing the answers we paired analyses that exhibited common features. Upon analyzing the questionnaires, however, the sheets presented a problem, as the successive surveys targeting similar populations used different questionnaires due to central requirements and limitations. In some cases both the content and the form of the questions changed; in the case of the latter, it was primarily the content of the reply options. This is why our survey concentrated on those questions and replies that were found in all of the paired up analyses, so that results could be comparative. The depth of processing was delimited by the fact that eight out of the fifteen faculties of the University of Debrecen belong to the Faculties of Science and Humanities (hereinafter referred to as “TEK,” an abbreviated form of the Hungarian name.) and in these faculties there are several further majors with different numbers of students, different traditions and labor market possibilities. There are several “small” majors, too, which are attended by less than ten students per year. In these cases the opinions of a given interviewee would significantly modify or even distort the results for the major, thus we decided to set as our priority task to present results for the faculties during processing.



### ***Surveys on active students***

The surveys focusing on the active students of the university were realized in 2010 and 2011 with the help of an on-line questionnaire. In 2010 1227 students answered the questions, but a year later 1790 people undertook to fill in the sheet<sup>1</sup>. The substantial increase is owing partly to the fact that in 2011 the project organizers arranged answering in awareness of previous experience, but at that time several lecturers and student government members also encouraged participation. Regarding TEK cumulative data, in 2010 female students showed greater willingness to answer than males, but this difference was diminished by 2011. Data on the increase of population also appear on the faculty level, but in this breakdown faculty specifics are already apparent.

*Table 1: The sex of interviewees in a breakdown by faculties  
(person)*

Name of faculty	Male		Female	
	2010	2011	2010	2011
Faculty of Law	18	52	65	143
Faculty of Humanities	81	116	261	306
Faculty of Pedagogy	6	21	54	92
Faculty of Informatics	172	230	37	53
Faculty of Economics	33	54	63	89
Faculty of Technical Studies	131	220	48	59
Faculty of Science and Technology	140	183	115	146
Faculty of Music	1	9	3	10
Total	581	886	645	898

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<sup>1</sup> The figures in the tables do not always agree with the number of questionnaires executed as not everybody answered all of the questions. There were some interviewees that did not provide their names, for example.

In the breakdown by sexes, the professional specifics of different faculties are well observable. In the Faculty of Pedagogy, primarily training kindergarten teachers and social workers the dominance of women students is evident, but in the Faculties of Informatics and Technical Studies the proportions of sexes is the opposite. A similar tilted balance to be supposed in the Faculties of Humanities and Science is not so substantial, but the tilt towards female students in the Faculty of Law is all the more surprising.

It is a priority for all educational institutions to know whence or from which school types they receive students. This information is important for learning about students' geographical and social environs, as the previous findings always help forecast the development tasks of the educational institution. Apart from this, this type of information has such a special importance for higher education institutions because it provides guidelines for planning recruiting activities. It shows which high schools and regions it is appropriate to perform this activity in as well as the areas yet unplumbed by the university. The surveys analyzed by our team repeatedly proved that the majority of students at the University of Debrecen, thus of the Faculties of Science and Humanities, are from the northeastern region of Hungary. The overwhelming majority of students are provided by three counties: Hajdú-Bihar, Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg, and Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén. In spite of this—taking into account the facts that in the case of two surveys no trend is apparent—the findings suggest that some change has commenced and the basis for sampling broadens. While in 2010 84.2% of students came from the above three counties, thus proportion decreased to 75.4% by 2011, including the substantial change in the proportion of Szabolcs County youth.

Nearly two thirds of students at the faculties of TEK were admitted to the institution on account of their grammar schools diplomas. Most of them graduated from traditional grammar schools, but a significant number (nearly 15%) took their exams in alternative structure, 6 or 8 grade grammar schools.

*Table 2: Type of secondary schools of interviewees in a breakdown by faculties (person)*

Name of faculty	The type of secondary school they graduated from							
	Traditional , 4 grade grammar school		6 or 8 grade grammar school		Vocational school		Other	
	2010	2011	2010	2011	2010	2011	2010	2011
Faculty of Law	56	114	9	26	17	47	2	9
Faculty of Humanities	202	262	41	71	52	76	46	15
Faculty of Pedagogy	20	60	6	3	24	46	9	4
Faculty of Informatics	96	129	18	34	76	113	20	8
Faculty of Economics	31	69	19	24	36	45	11	3
Faculty of Technical Studies	66	112	15	17	70	141	28	8
Faculty of Science and Technology	142	179	32	59	61	81	18	11
Faculty of Music	0	3	1	1	2	14	0	0
Total	612	928	141	235	337	563	134	59

There are significant differences between the faculties with regard to secondary schools of students. Nearly three fourths of three faculties, that of Humanities, Science and Law, have grammar school diplomas despite the fact that taking into account the findings of the two surveys, the indices of the Faculty of Law – the only one out of the eight faculties – deteriorated in this field. Slightly over half of the Faculties of Pedagogy and Informatics graduated from a grammar school but the greater proportion of the Faculties of Technical Studies and Music went to some vocational secondary school. It is conspicuous that we find rather high volumes in the category “other” – especially in the case of the 2010 survey. This is due to the fact that in 2010 the questionnaire did not only include school types shown in table no. 2 but the respondents could also indicate as their place of

graduation the categories bilingual school, nationality grammar school, or technical school. As the conversion of these answers is uncertain, these have been delegated to the category “other.” In the rest of the cases the students themselves chose this option, and marked five- (or three-) grade grammar school or lyceum as their place of graduation.

In relation to this it is also practical to examine parents’ qualifications. Unfortunately this kind of question was only included in the 2011 survey, so we cannot compare the results.

*Table 3: Level of education of the parents of interviewees on the basis of the 2011 survey (person)*

Name of faculty		Father’s highest level of education							Total
		no more than 8 grades at primary school	vocational school, trade school	vocational secondary school, technical school	grammar school	college	university	does not know, did not know	
Mother’s highest level of education	no more than 8 grades at primary school	43	73	25	7	1	1	3	154
	vocational school, trade school	10	160	78	16	4	8	12	288
	vocational secondary school, technical school	16	110	189	21	41	22	10	408
	grammar school	7	104	101	58	35	31	5	341
	college	3	45	111	35	97	101	7	399
	university	2	5	30	9	19	107	10	182
	does not know, did not know	0	3	0	0	2	0	4	9
	Total	81	501	533	146	199	270	51	1781

Out of the 1781 respondents 726 students have at least one parent that has qualifications from a higher education institution, out of

whom 324 people's (18%) both parents graduated from a college or university. The numbers, on the other hand, also suggest that 60% of the students will become members of the first-generation intelligentsia, which means that the Faculties of Science and Humanities takes a great part in training the country's mental potential.

Following the fundamental characteristics of the samples, we may analyze the answers on training programs. The analysis may be divided into two areas. One has to do with the material conditions, organizational and administrative side of the training, while the other deals more with content and components of the training, as well as their quality. In the case of both activities the environment and tools to perform the task received are definitive. These questions were analyzed on a five-grade Likert scale, where five meant positive opinion and total agreement and one negative opinion.

*Table 4: Opinions of the respondents of the conditions of the trainings in a breakdown by faculties*

Name of faculty	What is the condition and outer look of the buildings like?		What are the material conditions of the educational activity like?		How satisfied are they with the work of the faculty's office of education?	
	2010	2011	2010	2011	2010	2011
Faculty of Law	4.09	4.13	3.92	3.79	3.54	3.76
Faculty of Humanities	3.90	3.95	3.50	3.74	3.25	3.38
Faculty of Pedagogy	4.05	4.00	3.70	4.11	3.41	3.68
Faculty of Informatics	3.60	3.41	3.34	3.21	3.56	3.58
Faculty of Economics	4.24	4.27	3.94	3.83	3.40	3.34
Faculty of Technical Studies	2.42	2.27	3.02	2.93	3.19	2.94
Faculty of Science and Technology	3.40	3.43	3.08	3.25	2.49	2.74
Faculty of Music	2.00	2.68	2.33	3.17	4.25	4.37
Average	3.56	3.55	3.39	3.47	3.18	3.30

In the students' opinions the condition of the buildings requires significant development. Evaluation only reaches or exceeds slightly the average of four in the case of only three faculties. All three faculties have new or mostly renovated buildings, the two faculties with the best values are only 10 years old. The leading three are followed by the Faculty of Humanities, which is situated in the most beautiful building in the country (according to many). The beautiful building, however, entails several problems, as any remodeling or modernization is impossible or highly complicated due to the building's status as a historic building. The opinions of the infrastructure of the other faculties are more negative, paradoxically

the Faculty of Technical Studies is lowest, although the result is probably enhanced by the fact that the students training to be professional architects or mechanical engineers are likely to be critical towards the built environment around them. This presupposition is also supported by students' answers, for instance: *"The building and parking lot of the Faculty of Technical Studies have a condition befitting the Balkans; they are outdated and ill become the University. It is here that they train engineers, for whom this sight is rather exasperating."* According to another opinion, *"the outer look of the building suits an American ghetto."* In contrast to these extremely negative answers, however, what is certain is that the average of opinions of the Faculties of Science and Humanities will show significant improvement in this area, as the new building of the Faculty of Informatics was conveyed this Fall, and the renovation of several other faculty buildings have been commenced or will be launched soon.

The conditions of the buildings and rooms has primarily an aesthetic and emotive impact on learning and teaching activities, but the material conditions of education influences work on the practical side. Unfortunately these indices are even worse than the previous ones; it is only in the case of the 2011 values of the Faculty of Pedagogy that they are higher than an average of four. The results of the two faculties with the worst building conditions significantly improved in the area of material infrastructure, but even in possession of these higher values they were not able to come forward from the last places. They remained in the rearguard despite the fact that the figures of the other faculties decreased; that is, there is a lot to do in the area; even more than the development of buildings.

There is another area apart from buildings and tools that concerns all students: the office of education. At the beginning of the surveys we presumed that faculties with a lower number of students respondents would provide higher values, as there could even be personal relationships with the administrators, and there is a way to achieve custom-made assistance and problem solving. This supposition, however, only came true in the case of one faculty, the Faculty of Music. Out of the three areas shown in the table, here we find the highest value in both years, what is more, the administrators of the other faculties did not get values above four anywhere else. Accordingly, the average for the TEK decreased even further, in 2010 slightly exceeding an average of three. The Faculty of Technical Studies manages badly in this field, too, but regarding this

question the last is the Faculty of Science. The evaluation of performance is below three for both years, although by 2011 the situation has improved. Students in several faculties put their opinion into words similar to the following: *“The office of education performs their jobs, but I was taken aback at their style at the time I started my studies. I encountered untrusting, offended, and indifferent voices at the admittance and later, too. I had to face the same in the case of the employees of HSZK.”*

As it has been previously referred to, the material conditions of education are only a portion of work in the institution; the respondents' opinions of the quality of the training is altogether much more important. Only two questions about this area were repeated in the same form in the consecutive surveys. One examined the proportions of the content of the training, while the other asked about the general standard of the school.

*Table 5: Opinions of the respondents of the training programs in a breakdown by faculty*

Name of faculty	How was the harmony of the practical courses/seminars and lectures?		How sufficient is the standard of the faculty?	
	2010	2011	2010	2011
Faculty of Law	3.94	3.69	4.04	4.00
Faculty of Humanities	3.61	3.70	3.88	3.92
Faculty of Pedagogy	4.09	4.01	3.90	4.07
Faculty of Informatics	3.33	3.23	3.46	3.26
Faculty of Economics	3.76	3.51	3.99	3.66
Faculty of Technical Studies	3.27	3.25	3.28	3.12
Faculty of Science and Technology	3.41	3.48	3.64	3.58
Faculty of Music	3.33	3.82	3.67	3.80
Total	3.52	3.52	3.69	3.63

It is laudable that the opinions of the harmony of practical courses and lectures approached good (4) in the case of most of the eight



faculties, although only the Faculty of Pedagogy exceeds it. (Despite this – as it will be seen later on – there is need for further development in this field, too.) The opinions of the Faculties of Informatics and Technical Studies are the worst, and the third weakest is the Faculty of Science and Technology. Unfortunately these are the institutions (complemented with the Faculty of Music differently evaluated in the two years), at which manual activities have greater significance. Primarily these faculties need to change their training programs in order that they may shed the stereotype frequently mentioned in connection to universities: *“university training is too theoretical.”*

Further progressing in the questions examined we may observe that the evaluation of the standard of the faculties received the highest average yet. What is more, it is not only about the relatively high values around four, but there is not a big difference between the results from the successive years along with the low dispersion, that is, the faculties stably maintain their relatively high standard. Now the Faculties of Technical Studies and Informatics, performing generally badly in all areas, are again at the bottom of the list, while the Faculties of Pedagogy, Law, and Humanities proved to be the best.

Beyond personal opinion, in 2010 students could indirectly state their opinion of the realization of their requirements to the faculties.

*Table 6: The preference of choosing the faculty again in 2010, in a breakdown by faculties*

Name of faculty	Would you choose to reapply to the faculty to receive a second degree? (2010)
Faculty of Law	3.38
Faculty of Humanities	3.43
Faculty of Pedagogy	3.46
Faculty of Informatics	2.71
Faculty of Economics	3.70
Faculty of Technical Studies	3.19
Faculty of Science and Technology	3.07
Faculty of Music	3.25
Total	3.22

The best opinion of the Faculty of Economy is also observable in the fact that one third of the students marked the highest value on the

five-grade Likert scale. In contrast to this, 28.3% of the students of the Faculty of Informatics and 26.3% of the students of the Faculty of Technical Studies surely would not choose this institution as the place of further education.

Finishing studies, another option apart from further education is start of work. Both years have been asked what the average net wages are that they would find satisfactory. During the processing of data we found that comparison would be exacerbated by the altered mode of data input in the questionnaire. While in 2010 the respondents had to enter the appropriate numbers, in 2011 there was matrix data input. This basically involves the interviewee's entering the number in the appropriate place value, but this was not obvious for every one of them. Thus rather a great number of persons marked unreal amounts. A demand for HUF 1 000 wages appeared as well as an idea about HUF 9 000 000 (the latter marked by many). We finally decided to exclude from the analysis any figures lower than HUF 60 000 and higher than 1 000 000. Thanks also to this, the 15% lack of responses in the 2010 data increased to 23% in the case of the 2011 data.

*Table 7: Expected average net wages in a breakdown by faculties*

Name of faculty	What are the average net wages that You would find sufficient?					
	2010			2011		
	Average	Max.	Min.	Average	Max.	Min.
Faculty of Law	176285	350000	80000	205947	900000	80000
Faculty of Humanities	175828	900000	80000	160715	600000	70000
Faculty of Pedagogy	153677	400000	85000	139736	300000	68000
Faculty of Informatics	201993	500000	100000	214424	800000	74000
Faculty of Economics	188986	500000	80000	193123	550000	70000
Faculty of Technical Studies	194609	450000	70000	218499	600000	75000
Faculty of Science and Technology	182691	900000	80000	185260	500000	80000
Faculty of Music	168491	200000	120000	145247	300000	90000
Total	184434	Responded: 1040 people		190252	Responded: 1387 people	

The cumulative average for the TEK grew only to a slight degree (3%) in one year, but in the faculty rate we may notice significant

changes, too. While in 2010 only the average wages expected by the students of the Faculty of Informatics reached HUF 200 000, in 2011 two other faculties' (the Faculty of Law and the Faculty of Technical Studies) student averages exceeded this level. In the previous case expectations are 16.8% higher than a year ago and in the latter case, due to the 12.3% increase, in 2011 the demands of the students of the Faculty of Technical Studies became the highest among the eight faculties. The data of two faculties, the Faculty of Economics and Business Administration and the Faculty of Science changed only slightly, average expectations decreased by almost 10% in case of the Faculty of Humanities and Pedagogy. We should handle the 13.8% decrease in the data of the Faculty of Music under reserve due to the low number of the respondents, but the difference in the results is still remarkable. What is really thought-provoking is the difference in the 2011 faculty level findings. The difference between the highest and lowest average rates is HUF 80 000! Note that a number of persons marked this value or lower as the expected monthly average payment!

In a questionnaire the freedom of the respondents is slightly limited by closed and half closed questions, which follows from their role. To counterbalance this, the leaders of the survey planted an open-end question at the end of the questionnaires in which everybody could opine freely. It comes as a deficiency from the aspect of the analysis that relatively few people (in 2010 101 persons, in 2011 268 persons) took this opportunity and in a few cases it happened that due to the problems with data input the longer answers were not available in their full length (although most of the time their point was clear anyway). During processing we performed content analysis attempting to group the answers into thematic sections. We found several components that showed up in both of the surveys but we also managed to identify individual features.

One group of identical components referred to the content, form, and judgment of the questions.

*"The questions mostly refer to full-time students, as a correspondent student I could not formulate an opinion of a lot of things."*

*"In a few places they ask about special fields, although I do not feel I have any one specialty that I could be employed in. I could not mention one scope of activity or job which actually needs this major. We are being trained to be researchers by the university!"*

Most of the observations were successfully redressed by 2011; in this survey the incorrect phrasing or deficiency of reply options identifying the respondent's major was in the centre of these types of opinions.

*"The major chemical engineer (which I am) was left out of the list of majors."*

*"My profession's proper name is Administration and Management and they do not even know it correctly. This says it all about the university in a nutshell."*

In several comments the respondents remarked upon the teaching job and the characteristics of the student-tutor relationship:

*"A lot of questions depend on the tutor as unfortunately at the university the range goes from the most conscientious to the most negligent."*

*"At the major not every lecturer is suitable for teaching. Understanding and knowing and being a doctor are one thing, but they cannot impart their knowledge to the students."*

*"The tutors' attitude to delivering the classes; their attitude to the fact that they could also raise the level of education. How much teachers care about a student's opinion or suggestions. How much a teacher considers a student."*

*"Because of mass teaching unfortunately the relationship between students and lecturers is impersonal, there is no way to form a partner relation, which makes it difficult to solve individual problems."*

As it can be found later, most of the students related to the surveys in a mature and highly responsible way; therefore most of the comments referred to the content of the given course. In both of the periods under survey, 20% or so of the answers belonged to this group, which means that every fifth student had that kind of comment. The great majority of these observations remarked on the lack of practical knowledge at the majors.

*"There is a need to transform the curriculum, to raise the amount of practical knowledge to replace traditional, fixed subjects."*

*“We need a lot more practice and a lot less redundant theoretical education, a great part of which will not be used by anyone who will not deal in scholarly studies.”*

*“The practical training almost equals zero. The most important thing is to strongly increase the number of practical classes.”*

In 2011, too, the most focused-on problem was the amount of practical knowledge in the course, but in this year we could read comments that remarked upon the lack of general competencies needed for work.

*“They should train us more to be independent thinkers. Students need to be made familiar with performing.”*

*“The University does not at all prepare us for team work, I did not have any subjects where I needed to work with the other students to create something, in my opinion the University has to develop a lot in this.”*

*“Imparting theoretical bases is really good, but I am not really satisfied with practice, or practices. I do not feel like I will be able to do my best in the course of my future job: exactly because of the lack of practical courses.”*

These deficiencies lead to another problem group in the remarks which appears in both years' material. Those remarks were included in this new section that analyzed deficiencies and development possibilities of university training in relation to the labor market:

*“They should announce more employment opportunities on the university home page.”*

*“At the trade fairs organized at the university we can learn about certain employers, but they usually offer only a few possibilities for work and after applying there is no reply or confirmation whatsoever.”*

*“The university and the employers should have a lot tighter and much more flexible cooperation. The university should assess real opportunities for employment and regulate student numbers!”*

*“As I see it, it is one of today's urgent questions that graduates not only receive a nicely titled degree, but that they can make use of it in their special field.”*

*“They should be constantly in contact with the employers of the industrial and other sectors and if in a given profession*

*say 100 persons graduate but none of them can find a job, then they should not train so many people but only a minimal number, say 10 of them."*

Beyond the thematic focal points identifiable in both surveys, in the 2011 survey two new elements appeared. One of them referred to the answers given to the questionnaire's questions, as the respondent interpreted or explained this as a supplementation or comment.

*"The 'grade' 3 means that there are subjects in which the class, the curriculum, and the lecture are very good and there are those which are not efficient in their realized form. So it is mixed, it does not mean that there are any classes, subjects which I am not satisfied with."*

Some of them expressed an opinion about the transformed training structure or asked about the lack of such questions in the questionnaire.

*"I deem it a disadvantage of the BA system that there are subjects which were formerly taught in the final years of the 5 year training, but today we need to learn these in the first 3 years."*

*"They did not ask about the Bologna system, even though I think the biggest problem is that there is no real possibility of transition between individual majors. I can get admitted to an MA, but if I did not study in the basic major I have a huge disadvantage compared to the others."*

Beyond the features described above, open questions had one other common point, appearing in both surveys, that was related to the future and continuation of the studies. Many responders suggested new questions, question groups, and the majority of these concerned the fields above judged and criticized by the respondents.

*"I miss questions about the tutors' work since the level of education depends on them best, on how seriously they do their jobs!"*

*"They did not pose concrete enough questions about the lecturer-student relationship."*

*"If they inquire about how I saw our financial situation when I was 14 then they should inquire about how I see it today."*

*"They did not ask about the level of education and practice. So, for example, how practical we deem the knowledge that we receive here. How student-based the tutor-student relationship and the tutors' attitudes are."*

*"Perhaps the question about finding a job with a degree should have been more emphasized as nowadays it is still a problem--or the obtaining of practice in relation to this."*

In several cases the respondent not only suggested a new question but answered it immediately:

*"Would I change my major's training methods/the subjects taught regarding their later use or practical worth? Yes."*

*"The usability of the material learned in the current labor market conditions (possibility of finding a job): on a scale of 5 it is 2"*

Of course, beyond the comments organized thematically a lot of other remarks appeared in the answers. But these specifically concerned one field or problematic: what is more, in several cases the comments told about individual offences, so we now refrain from describing these.

We think that a survey series like this can only reach its goal if not only the findings are introduced but action is also taken to redress imperfections and problems. This is also one of the demands the students wrote about!

*"I am happy that the institute is asking about the students' experiences via this channel, too, and I trust that novelties like these—in contrast with the survey on student satisfaction related to Neptun—will have some results."*

The publication of the present survey report, the publicity of the results, is already the first step on the path of reformation, which can induce changes in itself.

*"The findings of the questionnaire should be made public, this could be useful data for applicants to higher education when they are choosing their university/faculty/major."*

So we started on the path, our goal is that at the end of the training, in possession of the degree, more students comment the same:

*“In summary I am really pleased with the tutors’ professional preparedness as lecturers and that is why I always suggest DE as an option for further education to my friends who need to make a career choice.”*

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ÁGNES ENGLER

**MOTHERS AS PART-TIME STUDENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION**

The aim of the study is to present the investment into education and the return of this investment among the part-time students who study in higher education while being on a maternity leave during this period.<sup>1</sup> We focus on this group of part-time students from the aspect of their investment into advanced studies during a planned break in their career and also whether this investment has proven to be useful in the re-integration of these women into the labour market. The concept of lifelong learning is based on the idea of knowledge-driven society. European strategists emphasize that knowledge and competence are powerful engines of the economy, therefore they are calling states to invest time and money into learning, bringing studying and students closer together this way. (European Communities 2002) Mothers who study invest not only material resources into education, but also time, fatigue, and sometimes they risk their relationship with their husbands and children. At the same time they can model an educational success for their children (Haleman 2004). The highly qualified mothers are able to care for their children at higher quality think of to help with homework or of the communication with the doctors, teachers. (Kates 2004)

Part-time students are often called „*non-traditional students*” who did not follow the classical academic route, meaning they did not continue studying after their graduation. Before the expansion of higher education the „*traditional students*” entered universities directly from secondary schools and were typically male students coming from families of high social status. During the expansion more and more adults got involved in the tertiary education, referred to in the literature as “*the greying of the campus*”, or as “*adultification of higher education*” (Schuetze-Slowey 2000, 13). In the 21. century women are no longer in minority in higher education. There are some faculties where the attendance of women

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is more than 90 percent. In turn there are few female correspondent students with small children at universities and colleges as well. The examined group – female students with small children – is much more non-traditional than the group of correspondent students.

The influx of women into higher education resulted in a rapid levelling of the genders all over Europe, and, together with other factors, induced the expansion of higher education. (Archer 1982, Collins 1979) DiMaggio (1982) observed that women have higher cultural capital and they read more than men. However, the men's institutionalized cultural capital raising could cause a major cultural mobility, and women tend to choose the reproduction of traditional culture. Other studies have found that though women have higher cultural capital, the men's further education was influenced by the educational level of parents and the financial capital of the family. (Fényes-Pusztai 2006) Different ways of knowing were compared by Severiens and Ten Dame (1998), which showed that the learning path can be different due the socialisation processes of men and women. In the research of studies in higher education it is also important to take into consideration the social differences between the students. Members of various social layers inherit their different investment strategies from generation to generation. Members of lower social strata often underestimate the future benefit of studying in higher education, so they tend to be unwilling to spend a lot of money on studying in the present, as opposed to those belonging to higher classes. (cf. Bourdieu 1983, Boudon 1974)

Returning to the gender-specific viewpoint it can be stated that obtaining a degree after graduation is more difficult for women. Some disadvantages have been observed in the labour concerning female employees, for instance horizontal and vertical segregation, gender discrimination and differences in wages. However, these problems have only been relevant in the observations insofar as they influenced the return of the investments of women with small children into higher education by their return to the labour market. This kind of returning to education to refresh the knowledge and skills requires a high degree of autonomy, however, the independent learner is typically masculine characteristics. (Leathwood 2006) Despite the anomalies in the labour market, some of which are listed above, an analysis of the interrelations between the economic activities of the population and education revealed, that the higher qualification of an individual increases his or her chances in the re-integration into the labour market, increases his or her abilities to

retain their current job and reduces the chances of becoming unemployed. (Nagy 2000, Frey 2001) It is also difficult for women to bring their work and other commitments (home) into harmony, however, various studies show that women with higher qualifications managed these problems a lot more efficiently (Beck 1992, Goldin 2006).

### ***Part-time students in higher education***

Female students with small children were examined in a longitudinal research. We followed the women from their decision making to study in higher education all the way to the moment when they utilized their degree in the labour market. Two institutions of higher education were involved in the research: ten faculties of the University of Debrecen, and four of the College of Nyíregyháza. Because of their particular situation and problems, female students receiving a maternity benefit usually choose corresponding courses: this group of students was found to be the most suitable to be approached first. The first phase of the research took place in 2006, with female students being on a maternity leave. Students selected for the sample received the questionnaires designed for self-respondents by mail.

In phase two, the cohorts examination, in the spring of 2009, we searched for graduates who obtained their degree during their maternity leave and had been working for at least one year. In this phase we were not able to rely on any kind of data base or register, this way we could not continue the research with a probability selection method. The employees, alumnis of the University of Debrecen and the College of Nyíregyháza were chosen thorough the snowball method to complete the questionnaires with the assistance of interrogators.

The research sought aswers to questions as to why the students embarked on a college or university course, how this decision yielded a benefit to them, what were the motivations and strategies of the students, and what the return of these studies was during their re-integration into the labour market. When examining the investment into education we revealed the decision making mechanisms of the individuals, the motivation behind obtaining a degree, and the direction, type and scale of investment. We also inquired about the different processes of studying, and the behaviour of those investing

into education. We examined any potential return of the investment into education after the individuals became active in the labour market again. As their social background influences their decision-making mechanisms, the efficiency of learning, and the quality and quantity of the expected return, we took the different social backgrounds of the students into consideration as well. We focused on the individual costs and benefits, however, the collective costs and benefits were also taken into consideration.

### ***Young mothers as students in education***

Taking their decision-making strategies into consideration, great significance was attributed to the previous qualifications of the students in higher education. We therefore divided students into two categories: those with a secondary education, and the postgraduate students (those who had a college or university degree before starting another degree course). The research programme included a comparison of these two groups.

*Table 1: Features of the groups according to demographic background and learning path (%)*

Variable		Non graduates	Graduates	p
Demographic background	Marital status	usually married (82%)	usually married (83%)	
	Number of children	usually one (46%), three or more: 18%	usually one (59%), three or more: 9%	**
	Type of location	usually small town (43%)	usually large town (46%)	
	Qualification of father	usually lower level (62%), higher level: 10%	usually lower level or secondary (40-40%), higher level: 20%	**
	Qualification of mother	usually lower level (55%), higher level 7%	usually lower level or secondary (46%), higher level: 22%	** *
	Qualification of husband (partner)	usually secondary (48%), higher: 20%	usually higher level or secondary (43-45%),	** *
	Number of siblings	usually one (57%), two or more: 36%	usually one (65%), two or more: 23%	*
Learning path	Type of institution	university: 39%, college: 61%	university: 56%, college: 44%	**
	Last semester average	3,67	4,16	**
	Language skills	speaks at least one foreign language: 46%	speaks at least one foreign language: 85%	** *
	Language exam recognized by the state	at least one: 17%	at least one: 50%	** *
	New studies planned	certainly will continue studying 48%	certainly will continue studying 46%	

In table 1. it can be seen how the two groups differ in their demographic background and learning path. Our assumption was justified, as there were major differences between the two sample groups in terms of decision-making strategies related to higher education and also in the accomplishment of the study courses. Highly qualified students, usually working as professionals, who were financially also in a better position, had a more elaborate decision-making strategy usable for a longer period of time, showing signs of a homogeneous family atmosphere. Undergraduate students with a lower financial status also calculated with the potential benefit of obtaining a degree, however, they tended to measure the risks and advantages of investment into higher education in the short term only.

It explains that the families of students with a secondary education suffered most from the mother's efforts invested into studying, as they were able to coordinate their educational and family commitments with difficulties only, they lacked the necessary flexibility in organizing their tasks, and their efforts invested into studying caused regular conflicts in their lives. We also assumed that the learning attitudes, efficiency and motivation of the two groups were different as well. Taking the motivational background into consideration, we found a considerable difference between the two groups (table 2.).

*Table 2: The reasons behind the initiation of studies, hundred-grade scale (N=226)*

	<b>Non graduates</b>	<b>Graduates</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>obtain a diploma</b>	92	78	85
<b>individual ambitions</b>	90	90	90
<b>hope of better employment</b>	90	79	85
<b>professional interest</b>	81	85	83
<b>preferred learning</b>	77	82	80
<b>use of child care time</b>	74	80	78
<b>use of tuition exemption</b>	71	77	74
<b>hope for progress at the workplace</b>	65	72	69
<b>strengthen the position at the workplace</b>	58	63	61
<b>encouragement of partner</b>	56	51	53
<b>encouragement of parents, siblings</b>	48	44	46
<b>encouragement of friends</b>	44	37	40
<b>N</b>	103	123	226

Postgraduate students were characterized by a largely positive attitude towards learning in higher education in general, whereas in their selection of the specific subject major they were motivated by pragmatic aspects in the first place, like the expected benefit of the subject major concerned. Students with maturity exams were motivated by the possibility of obtaining a degree and expected advantages in connection with finding a job later on. They had similar motivations in their selection of a specific subject major. The higher degree of learning efficiency of postgraduate students was not only reflected by their better grades, but also by their choice of learning methods, their ways of preparing for examinations, as well as by ways of organizing their work and acquiring the information necessary for them. It is clear from the answers provided by the respondents that they really recognized the loss of knowledge and skill caused by their absence from their jobs, and they wished to compensate for the loss by studying. The results suggest that students in the baccalaureate programme consider their studies as a way leading to achieving the desired status, whereas postgraduate female students wish to utilize their new studies in order to improve or



further specialize their already obtained professional qualifications. The time spent in higher education is a qualitative change for undergraduate students. During this time their learning aspirations continually increase, their inner motivations grow stronger, and they acquire apparently effective learning strategies and plans for the future.

### ***New qualification and reintegration***

An important result was that three-quarter of the women involved in the research had a rapid and problem-free re-integration into the labour market, they were able to avoid unemployment and find a job suited to their new qualification. During later years of employment, the years spent with studies had advantages such as a better job suited to the new qualification, higher wages, and an ability to avoid downward mobility. All except two women were able to return into the labour market. Half of the respondents went back to their previous jobs, 28% of the women who changed jobs did it voluntarily, 10% changed jobs under a protest, one-tenth were on a maternity leave again with a following child.

Social mobility analysis reveals that the social status in Hungary is more risked if the employee is outside the labour market than if (s)he stays in the labor market even in a worse position. (Kolosi-Róbert 2004) Results of mobility study researching women who returned into the labour market after maternity leave show that the employees were rather immobile (Harcza 2008). We expected that the graduate women would be upward mobile, and that the women without a degree would stay in unchanged positions. The results were reviewed based on our expectations: the previously non-graduates were more successful, with 43% of them stepping forward and 32% of them getting a degree (table 3).

*Table 3: Occupational mobility according to previous educational attainment, percent (N=105)*

<b>Occupational mobility</b>	<b>Non graduates</b>	<b>Graduates</b>
<b>Upwards</b>	43,1	31,5
<b>Unchanged</b>	56,9	68,5
<b>Downwards</b>	0	0
<b>Total</b>	100	100

Twenty percent of women returning to their previous jobs (in both groups) reported positive changes at their workplace, for example they were promoted and received a salary increase. 40% of employees didn't experience a significant change. 46 persons were looking for a new job of which 18 women were dismissed from work, the rest wanted to work according to the new qualification. The results of finding a new job were the following: jobs according to the new qualification (44%), salary according to the new qualification (35%), consistency of family and work (33%), favorable working conditions (28%), sympathetic colleagues (17%). Women strongly concerned returning to the labor market during the period of maternity leave. They weighed their chances of re-integration in the labour market and promoting their career, also balancing the problem of family-work life, and they decided to start learning in higher education.

An important result of the research was that the number of different elements increased during the time the individual spent in the labour market: the desire of the participants to learn increased, they paid more attention to self-instruction and, most importantly, they were successfully involved in professional work in the process of re-integration. It is an important development that the willingness and commitment to continue learning increased the most among women who were initially less successful in the labour market. It is also an important result that the return of the investment into higher education in the labour market proved to be independent from the socio-economic background of the employees, as well as from the size of cultural and other types of capital. No interrelation were found between the efficiency of learning and the success of the individual in the labour market. The key to the implementation of investments into higher education in the labour market is the appropriate preparation for the decision (selecting the most suitable

subject major, gathering information about the institution, surveying the supply and demand) and the positive attitude to studies (the recognition of the importance of continuous studying, the interpretation of studying as a source of pleasure and working hard in a commitment).

The difficulties and conditions of integration are summerized in table 4. In addition to the individual advantages derived from education, a number of long-term collective advantages were identified in the course of the research project. As a result of studying further in the case of the employee, the employer is to be prepared for a shorter period of time making up for the time lost during the maternity leave of the employee, hopefully saving costs this way. In another words, employers will have more competent employees returning to work.

*Table 4: Difficulties and conditions of integration at collective and individual area*

	<b>Collective area</b>	<b>Individual area</b>
<b>Problems of reintegration</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Fears of losing job</li> <li>• Discrimination against people with small children</li> <li>• Lack of child care institutions</li> <li>• Lack of atypical work-forms</li> <li>• Lack of family-friendly work environment</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The erosion of knowledge and skills</li> <li>• Professional difficulties in recruitment</li> <li>• Private life recruitment difficulties</li> <li>• Weakened or lost contact with the employer and the colleagues</li> </ul>
<b>Facilitate the successful reintegration</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Safe-labor desertion</li> <li>• Building up a flexible institution to accomodate children</li> <li>• Attracting the atypical work-forms</li> <li>• Promoting the balance between work and family life</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Continuous maintenance of knowledge and skills</li> <li>• Participating in training assistance in the return</li> <li>• Continuous contact with the employer</li> </ul>

Successful re-integration of women into the labour market reduces unemployment, and through it, the whole economy saves money.

Hidden unemployment also diminishes. In the long term, as a result of reducing employment problems, social and health care expenses will be reduced as well as demographic indicators may improve. Out of the numerous forms of the return of investment into higher education, one of the most important factors is the positive influence on demographic procedures. All the students with small children made it clear that by obtaining a college or university degree their positions in the labour market became safer, their chances of returning to work increased, and they were willing to have more children.

The results of the longitudinal survey suggest a close correlation between the studies accomplished during the inactive period of the individual and her positions in the labour market, studying therefore plays an outstanding role in the decision to leave the labour market because of childbirth and to return there afterwards. An important result of the research concerning the decision-makers of the business world is that the re-integration of women into the labour market after a maternity leave, during which they have accomplished a successful training course, positively influences the economic activity of the population thorough increasing employment, reducing the number of unemployed people this way. Hidden unemployment also recedes, as it becomes unnecessary to maintain the status of forced inactivity. As a result of the successfully completed training courses, labour market will receive professionally competent employees. The majority of the respondents found that the most positive effects of learning were the better chances of re-entering the labour market and the proper maintenance of knowledge and skills.

### ***Summary***

The results of the research confirm the relevancy of lifelong learning. Investing into education is important in all stages of life, especially in periods away from the labor market. The investment in human capital earnings returns in the collective and in the individual area as the results revealed. Our goal is to continue the research, to examine the results more widely. The expansion can take place in two ways, by broadening the geographical boundaries, and by expanding our research to other groups of part-time student population.

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***ILONA DÓRA FEKETE – SZILVIA SIMÁNDI***

***INTERNATIONAL ACADEMIC RELATIONS IN CENTRAL AND EASTERN  
EUROPE – A BRIEF COMPARATIVE APPROACH***

The past two decades have witnessed sudden and sometimes drastic changes in most of the countries of Central and Eastern Europe – in the fields of politics, in society as well as in the structure of educational systems. These changes, along with the emerging problems and their strategic solutions, have become the centre of attention for several international organizations and many researches.

Within the frames of formal and non-formal education, a greater emphasis is put on getting familiarized with each other's culture and mutual communication – by which many people expect a solution, or at least the handling of the problems among the different nations and people. Discussions supported by both parties are not restricted to the learning of certain languages, but they slowly go through changes and set up expanding networks in the fields of science and research.

***Changes in the CEE region\****

The history of higher education in Central and Eastern Europe is closely connected to the history of the region, since the co-influence of nations, people and culture characterizes the given area, which also influenced the structure of its higher educational system. However, the influence is obvious backwards as well; universities and colleges – as peculiar representatives and stages of knowledge and culture – need to find solutions for the problems of the region and help in building out informal social networks.

The countries that had been constrained behind the Iron Curtain for a long time, after 1990, found that the distressing notion of embargo disappeared and thus Central and Eastern Europe had to face that the region was in many ways lagging behind the Western World (Kozma 2004). This proved to be especially true in the world of science,

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\* as elaborated on in Fekete 2009

where globalization after 1990 acted as a catalyst and as a result, an international researchers' community, a research market came into existence. In the establishment and development of such a community, soon the Internet got a major role, which made it possible to get hold of the latest special literature without the costly traveling, and it also meant a great help in joining easily to international networks or foreign higher educational institutions and research centers. Nonetheless, as phenomena and procedures become worldwide, it can also be a pressure for the higher educational institution or the researcher, for those who are not present on the international stage and have no publications in English, the world language, experience isolation and stay unknown to the international world of science. (This, evidently, raises further questions, like for whom does the researcher who is a member of an international community carry out his research, and who will utilize the outcome of that?) More decades of shortage (and not necessarily arrears!) are to be filled in this regard in the CEE region – and indeed, the quick changes of the last decade of the 20<sup>th</sup> century have proved to be rich soil for the researchers of the different disciplines.

Although the countries of the CEE region are underdeveloped as opposed to other Western countries regarding economy, health and population, but if we look at the human potential, we can see that its place in the scientific world is very prominent. This might be the result of the fact that these countries had strived to stay in the competition for many decades – due to historical traditions and prestige – often exceeding their own economical power and development. An example for this could be the number of people from this region who have received the Nobel Prize – unfortunately most of these scholars achieved this honor with their work abroad, which tells us something about the region's capabilities and conditions. After the Change of Regime the sources, which were already poor, suddenly started to decrease, which change deeply affected all higher educational institutions and also had a negative effect on the scientific performance and development. Higher education got restructured to meet the demands of the labor market, which resulted in the research function being pushed into the background and the lack of strengthening of cooperation between research institutions.



In the period of time before the Change of Regime, westward relationships (academic and non-academic ones as well!) in the CEE countries were considered valuable, due to them being isolated from the West for decades. It remained true even after the 1990s, as many expected flows of financial support. The former dominant eastern connections decreased quickly in the first half of the decade, and only later, when the region got into the center of attention owing to the change of regime, were they revalued. For then, besides the new concept of “permissible”, the common (or at least similar) foundations that seemed to be more homogenous regarding comparability ensured the sometimes already existing cross-country cooperations. However, the region that had been the western periphery of the Soviet Union influence belt before 1990 (Kozma 2004, 159), was now seen as the eastern periphery of the European Union, which has influenced the cooperation of higher educational institutions and the establishment of new connections – in this way, the CEE region plays an intermediary role between “East” and “West”.

### ***Higher education and researches***

After the Change of Regime, the main goals of the researchers were to see the key connections between the educational institutions and the state clearly, and also to highlight the processes in society and politics, which did have a great influence on education in the given countries. Many researchers wanted to apply the methods and models of the Western World, but it was soon clear that those were not applicable in the CEE context, for the peculiarities and results of the socialist heritage had left their fingerprints on the educational system (Weber & Liikanen 2001; Polyzoi & Cerna 2001). In such a framework, social capital is such a force that enhances the willingness and unity for cooperation (Mihaylova 2004). One of the basic characteristics of higher education is the tradition of academic relations across the borders, claims Smeby and Trondal (2005), and the different European higher educational programs, frame programs, the need for a Higher Education Area and its initiative, as well as the academic cooperations are all important tools for the developing of a European higher education.

The analysis of academic cooperation of researchers and instructors has not had a long term history, especially in our country, thus it is a field yet to explore; therefore, it is likely that this area will be in the focus of attention of education politics in the coming decades. There have been several studies written on researchers and instructors, or on the social background and professional socialization of the emerging generations of researchers and instructors. The international special literature focuses mainly on the instructors of the restructured higher education, the effects of the expansion, the difficulties of the switch to the multiple cyclic training structure, and the changes in the roles of instructors. Even more researches touch upon the question of student and staff mobility – but only as a desired, supportable phenomenon, and only a few studies analyze the social composition of students in mobility, which rank them according to sex, age, social and minority status. Other works examine questions of the quality and efficiency of training, but the similar parameters of the instructors' academic work are mainly studied by accreditation bureaus, that fabricate more or less subtle indicators for measuring their international academic integration.

### ***International academic relations***

Considering the fact that researchers' international relations and their mobility are looked upon as milestones for academic development, it is essential to gain information about their actual condition, standards, problems and directions of development, claims the leader of one of the few researches in the topic (Viszt 2004). The inquiry made in 45 research centers in Hungary – university, state and private ones – wanted to know the extent of international mobility in our country, the destination countries, and how these differ according to the different branches of science.

One of the hypotheses of the authors was that certain disciplines have distinct destination countries. In a research carried out in the Partium region (Fekete 2008) this was proven on the maintainers' level, since the core for cooperation at church maintained higher educational institutions was the networks built out based on religion and denomination – which, in this case, were open to the west. However, Viszt's results showed that there is no such thing as preferred countries, and an explanation for that could be that the

research communities are highly “internationalized”. Of course, European cooperations prevail, and the restoration of networks suddenly fallen back after 1989 with post socialist countries is continuous. A significant number of the inquired researchers were in cooperation with Japan, Mexico, Chile, South Africa and South Korea.

At this point the Hungarian research is exact to a Norwegian one (Smeby – Trondal 2005), which was not conducted in the CEE region, but it is among the few researches on this topic, thus it can still be of great importance when examining our region. The authors examined researchers who were assistant professors or in higher positions at four Norwegian universities between 1981 and 2000. In the northern country the number of cooperations outside Europe and North America has tripled. This can be due to the general effect of the globalization, but it is also possible that the rising number of common projects handed in with the developing countries to the European Union is the reason.

International relations examined in the light of the dissimilarities of the various branches of science brought something else than what Smeby and Trondal expected, namely that a rather definite borderline could be drawn between “soft” and “hard” branches of science regarding internationality. It is assumed that the different branches are on different levels of international relations, hence “hard” sciences like medical or natural sciences could be considered more international than “soft” sciences, like for instance humanities (Kyvik – Larsen 1997). The basis for this idea is that some branches of science are global a priori in a sense that the researches’ results are not influenced by the country or the regional location. However, with some research subjects the social, cultural, biotopical and geographical context could be determining.

Comparing these data with the Hungarian results (Viszt 2004), we can state that while in the northern country mainly all branches represent themselves proportionately equally in the forming of international relations, in Hungary the dominance of certain branches could be noticed. The reason for this could be that in Western Europe every lecturer and researcher in higher education can go on a sabbatical year – while in our country it is not a tradition –, thus they are less over laden than their Hungarian colleagues. Furthermore, our

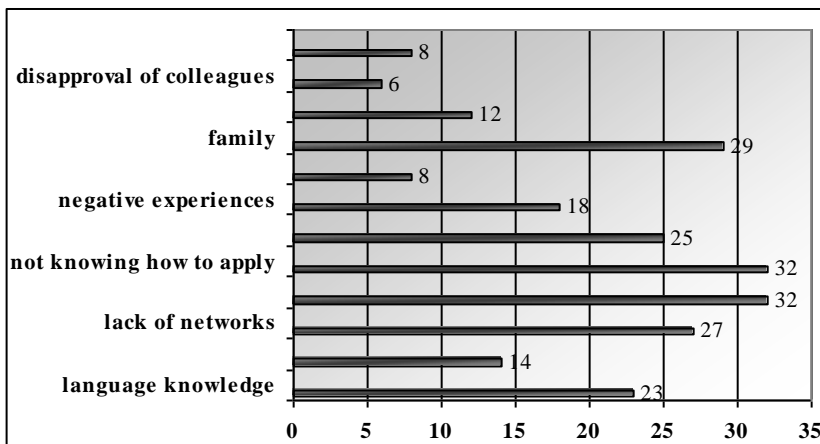
researchers believe that in the western European countries the project application system on the national level is available for every branch of science alike, and they also highlight that the more intensive mobility could be the cause of the better financial resources.

We can get further explanation from another research carried out also in Hungary (Pusztai 2007), which is based on interviews made with leaders and experts of higher education. It focuses mainly on the years before and after the Change of Regime, and claims to find the root of the problem there. Despite the fact that traveling and application for foreign scholarships were restricted in certain areas of science, there were some fields which were not so “dangerous” politically or ideologically – such as natural or medical sciences, where researchers and instructors enjoyed a greater freedom in establishing international relations. It goes without saying that the political reliability of the researcher was a point of selection as well as the field of interest. Therefore, it is not surprising that after 1989 there had already been well-working and stable networks in certain fields where academic relations were supporting the summits and cooperation of Central and Eastern Europe and the West. In other areas we can see just the opposite. Before the Change of Regime it was the social sciences that were under significant pressure, which manifested itself not only in the decreased number of researchable topics, but also in the low level of support and opportunities for publishing (Farkas, 2000, 22). Later on, the previous disadvantage worked as a catalyst in connection with international relationships, since social sciences researchers tried to exploit the topics given from the Change of the Regime as much as possible – though the Western World did not always look at “the East” so positively, openly and without suspicion (Pikó 2003, 172).

In the research of 2003 (Viszt 2004) participants were asked to range the factors that mean the biggest obstacles for them in choosing a destination for traveling. The researchers ended up with a range of 12 main factors where there was a significant change observed among the different types of institutions. Thus, the state (academic) institutions ranked the first three places as follows: lack of information, not sufficient information about projects, and concerns of family. These researchers do not list language knowledge or professional standards as obstacles for mobility. Researchers at the departments of universities said that the main obstacles are not

having much information about projects, family problems and weak international networks. Among the workers at private research institutions the insufficient knowledge of project-possibilities is in the second place, the lack of language knowledge is the first. The third one is the lack of information and motivation. In the following figure we have summarized the results of the opinions of researchers from the different types of institutions in a way that the main obstacle got 12 points and the least binding factor got one point; these added up shows what the researchers thought generally in our country.

*Factors obstructing researchers' international mobility*  
*Table 1: The author, based on Viszt's data (2004)*



It is clear that the researchers from the state, private and university research centers claim that insufficient knowledge about projects and the lack of information, which for them is closely connected to the previous, are the main obstacles. It is surprising in a way, just like the fourth factor in the range, which is the lack of connections, since in the section of the research that analyzes the role of projects and scholarships in the networks shows that the financing of mobility is dominated by local and international tenders – the latter mainly in the fields of technology, social sciences and humanities. According to the data, most Hungarian researchers can join the international academic life with the support from domestic or international scholarships and projects.

For us it is astonishing (although somewhat a relief) that it is not the lack or deficiencies of language knowledge is emphasized by the participants of the research, although a research carried out in 2007 (Pusztai 2007) claims that the interviewees are convinced that English is very much needed in joining European academic research networks successfully. That is the reason why language knowledge can be regarded as one of the most important basis, as it is very hard to join any network outside our boundaries without it, and also several examples prove that it is difficult to build out networks even within the country.<sup>1</sup>

We can find the same in Norway where most publications in the “hard” sciences were not written in Norwegian. The process of making publications internationally known has increased in the field social sciences as opposed to that in humanities, but still, only half of the publications have been published in a language other than Norwegian in the time of the last phase of the research (Kyvik 2001). Norway belongs to the wealthy and modern industrial states, which has a population of slightly more than 4.5 million. Just as in Hungary, there are only few in the world who speak the official language apart from the citizens, and most of them live in the other Scandinavian countries. Therefore, Norway, if we do not count its territory, can be claimed to be a small country. Within these circumstances, even if we just look at the linguistic barriers, researchers and instructors of universities can face a great challenge in establishing international academic networks – however, they can also work as catalysts of scientific development and quality (Kyvik – Larsen 1997). Researches (Luukkonen et al. 1992; Hakala 1998) prove that smaller countries play a more active role on the international arena, which can possibly be due to the limited number of local cooperation possibilities and partners, therefore countries are more forced to find success and publicity in the bigger, greater and more colorful international “market” (European Commission 1997).

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<sup>1</sup> This opinion is underlined by the first results of my research of 2011, which was carried out as a part of my PhD dissertation (Ilona Dóra Fekete).

## **Conclusion**

International academic cooperation and contact among lecturers and researchers could be understood as a complex procedure, which could be influenced both by a series of individuals' decisions, and the competitive and cooperative features of governmental initiatives and international academic communities. However, the patterns of collaboration can be organized according to Benoit Mandelbrot's Matthew Effect – which tries to explain the social processes in sciences by using a depiction from the Book of Matthew in the New Testament ("whoever has, to him will be given more") – that is, the international networks of well-known and recognized researchers are expanding, while the initiatives of the others will die away and will not be successful.

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**JUDIT HERCZEGH**

***USE OF THE INTERNET AND COMMUNICATION AT THE UNIVERSITY  
OF DEBRECEN IN THE LIGHT OF THE INFORMATION SOCIETY***

***Foreword***

Unquestionably, the invention of the 20th century with the greatest impact is the computer, which has become an integral and essential part of our everyday life. It not only lightens our workload, it is not merely a free-time activity and expedient, but thanks to the Internet, the computer has also appeared as a new channel of communication and information flow, which is able to transform every segment of education and research with an overwhelming force. Merely a device of fiction on the big screen years ago, the Internet has now become reality. With the help of two networked computers, it is possible to transcend geographical, cultural, and linguistic boundaries (Angelusz-Tardos 2002, Farkas 2002).

In the comprehension of our age's society the effects of electronic, info-communicational devices play an important role, however the most instructive is to follow and to understand the changes of social life in the mirror of internet and computerized media (Csepeli-Prazsák 2010). Internet and computer have become part of individual socialization. If family is the primary, school is the secondary socializational scene, then information society is regarded as the third one. Its great advantage is - especially for the youth of today - that while school mediates models and values during school years only, now information society provides a lifelong forming similar to family.

The aim of our essay is to give a general outline of the big global change which is called information society, and which is fundamentally changing not only the economy, the culture and the general picture of the society, but has an effect on the individual way of living, interpersonal communication and relationships already formed and those still being formed (Webster 2002, Negroponte 2002).

In our essay we have presented the results of the student-survey at the University of Debrecen due to 2008-2009, in which we - among other things - have tried to find the answer to the question, how to

categorize themselves as the citizen of the information superhighway, how they build up and maintain contacts, and with what regularity and intensity they get in touch with info-communication devices (Prensky 2001).

### ***The effects of electronic and info-communication devices***

We live in the information age which gives an explanation of the fact that internet can function as a strong engine of social and economic changes (Castells 2000). In the case of such a medium as able to report and get information of real time and content to distances with the infringement of the limits of time zone that has been unimaginable before; so this central role is not accidental. This medium is not only destined for the acquisition of cultural values and patterns but it can appear as a community model or a social tradition creator (Webster 2002). What kind of and how extensive social capital do people possess? Recently in Hungary more and more surveys are aimed at the exploration of the relation between computer use and internet, as well as social and connection capital. Researches point to the fact that the expansion of computer and internet use greatly depends on the expansion of the individuals' social capital. The bigger the system of individuals' connections are, the sooner they acquire computer and internet sciences.

Computer networks and the machines themselves constitute part of the individual socialization in our present society. Can the instrument, the interface live a life of its own or can we control them? With our empirical research we have tried to examine the generation, whose members are in the centre of this global change, as they have been in constant contact with these instruments since their childhood. We have thought to put stress on gaining information on the use of computer, internet and communication habits of the generation mentioned because at present they are the target of the long-term investments and current innovations of the ICT-market, they have already been socialized under the spell of computers, mobile phones and the Internet, and become role models for future generations (Tapscott 2008).

The effects of electronic and info-communication devices play an important role in the changes of today's society; however, tracing the tendencies of social life in the light of the Internet and computers is the most informative means (Tari 2010). The Internet and the

computer have become part of the individual socialization process. If family is the primary and school the secondary place of socialization, then information society can be seen as the third place of socialization, whose big advantage is – mostly for youth of today – that whereas school conveys patterns and values only during our years of study, information society – similar to the family – provides lifelong forming.

### ***The internet generation***

With such a manifold and diverging theme like capturing information society, it is difficult to choose that narrow path to which a research be attached. In this case, our research attention was aroused by the communication patterns, possibilities and attitudes towards the given technological devices generated by this new type of society. All individuals, old and young, teachers and students seemed to be equally exciting in connection with the topic examined. The basis of the empirical research was provided by the theories on the utilizations of the computer and the Internet in the education, which focused our research curiosity to the question how far these processes got in Hungary in 2008-2009. Within the wide spectrum of education, we have focused on the most sensitive part of the higher education, the students taking part in education, as they make up the most measureable unit of the former mentioned changes of information society.

We built our empirical research upon the trio of inequalities, socialization patterns and communities. When examining the role of the Internet in education and in the students' lives, we considered the presence of accessibility, availability, the ability of usage and the target oriented usage, just as the presence of the trio of attitudes towards the instruments. We started our student research along these segments in order to gain information on where the generation of students is on the way of becoming a citizen of information society. Due to the above mentioned reasons, we chose the students of the University of Debrecen as the basic in the period of surveying (2009), among whom the samples were those students who were taking part in the teacher training course in the given year. The research was cross-sectional. Among the empirical research methods, it was the quantitative method, within that the self-fill survey, that proved to be the most effective decision concerning the research.

With this type of questionnaire we could get information on the widest scale about the communication habits, forms of maintaining contacts and ways of Internet usage of the students taking part in full-time courses. Students involved in the teacher-training course could be reached during seminars offered for trainee teachers at the highest rate.

Now Let's see our results. The Items of our Model are 385 persons. They are 92 male and 289 female. The age distribution are between 19 and 32 Years. The average are 21 and 22 Years old students. And now let's see aour results. Primerly the students use the internet for communication and recieving informations. Browseing is the most aproproate process of using the internet. Nearly 70% of the students use the web browser every day. Near the browsing students use the internet as a target information collector in a higher rate. The most attractive characteristics of internet is interactivity. It's not only a resource of information for the user, but it's a way for a new kind of approach. The user can keep contact to the information, it can shape in a free way, it can form it, and what is the most important, it can react to the information. Internet consuming of printing products is more and more popular. From its early history internet was a useful and sistematicly used field of scientific work. It is an expected result among students to use the internet as a professional target.

The analyses showed us that students accept the presence of these devices in their lives and they use them, they seem to be interested in technological innovations and instruments; it is clear to see that they are aware of the possibilities and dangers offered by the Internet. Based on the model of Bronfenbrenner, we created a socialization framework that can be defined within the information society and with the help of this we positioned our students. In the chapter *Use of Tools* and in the sub-chapter *Online Communication* we took a look at the frequency of the students' use of tools and we have found that primarily they use the Internet for offline communication and getting information regardless of the fact whether it is an unstructured or purposeful search. However, both the computer and the Internet have a significant role in promoting learning processes. Entertaining contents and pastime also emerge within the results in the frequency of listening to music and surfing; on the other hand, there emerge - with a lower intensity - activities showing differences between sexes, like games, forums, reading blogs and watching films. Students' attitudes to the computer and the Internet are predominantly positive; they use them both for communication and studying, spending their

free time and going about their work. They are present in their lives as a multifunctional entertaining and activity supplement device. They use the computer in a multiple way, moreover, getting information, communication and maintaining relationships emerge among the emphasized features of the Internet. This presumption has partly been justified in connection with our first hypothesis.

Online filmongs and buying tickets on concerts and programmes, buying flight tickets, booking, buying Books and DVDs, internet banking and so on don't belong to the usual activities of students. Those who use these processes they use it very rarely. The most probable explanation of the difference between these thing mentioned above are found in financial causes. Because the process of shopping always goes together with economical expenditure. Because students can not afford these expenses.

*Table 1: Computer usage related Opinions(1-4)*

1. I'm interested in the technical novelties.	2,8
2. The university is fitted out well technically.	2,64
3. I treat the computer well.	2,87
4. The computer facilitates my life.	3,48
5. express an interest in the informatics devices, but I do not ripen into enough to it.	2,59
6. The computer, which I have to tolerate, is a necessary bad one.	1,39
7. The computer became the indispensable part of my everyday life.	3,06
8. The computer is equipment merely.	1,88
9. The computer is worthless without the internet.	2,07

It clears from the chart that for the students computer is a help wich became part of their everyday lives, handle their orientation ont he world. According to their opinion they handle it appropriately they use it reguralry and on purpose, they are interested in technology and

they treat the conditions for given, because they find the university well equipped.

The next table demonstrates the values of related opinions by the internet.

*Table 2: Internet usage related Opinions (1-4)*

1. We live in the Information Age.	3,79
2. The internet overproduces the information.	2,89
3. The internet facilitates my life.	3,44
4. The internet intensifies the social differences between the people.	2,01
5. I find out the informations interesting me on the internet easily.	3,36
6. The internet is the information source with a first number for me.	2,73
7. The informations which can be hit on the internet are unreliable and can be forged.	2,65
8. The language of the internet is obscene.	1,99

The fact that we have arrived into the age of information society is undeniable and so the fact that the internet is a help of everyday life and it's an important information source

*Table 3: Online appearance related Opinions (1-4)*

1. The frequent internet usage does lonely one .	2,27
2. may develop new contacts with the help of the internet.	2,90
3. I can make the acquaintance of the help of the internet much more easily.	1,86
4. I have more friends online, than in the real life.	1,38
5. I dare to write about things like that, to speak on the internet, from which in the reality heavy to speak.	1,67
6. My virtual life is equal to my real life.	2,37
7. The internet facilitates the maintenance of my contacts.	3,14

As You see the most positive value is given to the keeping contact role of internet but according to the students internet can create new relationships. They don't have the feeling that their personality is changed int he moment of entering the net. And they have no more online relationship than they have int he real world.

On the basis of the questions about the topic in our questionnaire it has been stated that students use the Internet for offline communication every day: they posses two email addresses an average, they send emails on a daily basis and they use other text- and voice-based communication programs to keep in touch with each others, but not with great significance and frequency. We took a look at the creation of own contents on a web interface; these were, however, accompanied by a low rate of marking and frequency. Students take part in the life of forums in a higher proportion than in reading and writing blogs. The overall majority of students are members of a community page, the first of them being the portal of iwiw. Contacts available on this community portal are also basic parts of the contact net in the real world. The Internet makes keeping in touch for the students easier because it has fast and effective communication forms, but it completes regular personal meetings, not rarefy them. It seems from the fact that the majority of acquaintances, contacts and friendships are formed within the students' world that the university itself provides a perfect place for regular personal meetings and students take this opportunity in the first place. We examined in both the loose and the tight friendships

how the frequency of online and real meetings is changing. Naturally, the most favoured and frequent form of keeping in touch is the one based on physical presence, nevertheless, mobile communication and online communication were also popular, but in looser relationships students didn't consider physical meetings that important. Online contacting won't substitute physical appearance, but makes maintaining them easier. Students' opinions coincide with this statement.

*Table 4: Online Companionships*

<b>Keeping Contact with Close Friends</b>	<b>MEAN</b>	<b>Keeping Contact with Friends</b>	<b>MEAN</b>
<b>Personal meeting</b>	<b>Several times a week</b>	<b>Personal meeting</b>	<b>Several times a month</b>
Telephone	Several times a day	Telephone	uncharacteristic
<b>Mobilphone</b>	<b>Several times a week</b>	<b>Mobilphone</b>	<b>Several times a month</b>
Internet phone (ex. Skype)	uncharacteristic	Internet phone (ex. Skype)	uncharacteristic
Chat (ex. messenger)	Daily	Chat (ex. messenger)	Several times a month
Sms	Several times a week	Sms	Several times a month
E-mail	weekly	E-mail	Several times a month
Messaging community site (ex.Iwiw, Myspace)	weekly	Messaging community site (ex.Iwiw, Myspace)	Several times a month
Postcard, Mail	uncharacteristic	Postcard, Mail	uncharacteristic

As we expected the communication intensity of strong friendships and loose connections shows differences. Students keep more frequent connections to those who stand nearer to them. Personal meetings are more frequent but they try to communicate with their friends in almost all kinds of ways. In case of friends and close friends the most typical communication is chat, meanwhile letter or skype don't appear in any groups. Difference appears in the use of



telephones, in case of closer friend it is a popular form of communication while it is not typical with any other fellows. Online connection forms serve the reinforcement and maintenance of available physical connections.

Finding partners started a new age in the history of internet (Wallace 2002). Technical knowledge, capacity, communication skills, our personality and our characteristics are measured on the global market. We can be paired to another partner searcher according to favourite books, film or food. During building relationships on the internet we can't lean on our good appearance or personal magic. This disadvantage can give us a chance to the beating of the stereotypical physical attraction. The question is rather that if we really want to overcome these limits?

*Table 5: Where to build relations*

<b>Where to build relations</b>	<b>Mean</b>
Clubs, Pubs	1,76
University/College Programs	1,95
Camps	1,53
Organized Trips	1,59
Journey or Trip	1,86
Internet forums	1,25
Chat sites	1,13
Partner research on Internet	1,08
Concerts	1,61
Sport Clubs, Gyms	1,41

As students can have the possibility of meeting regularly to others, they won't become a target group of online partner searching sites. Their most typical scenes of building relationships are trips, university programmes, clubs and pubs and concerts. Typical social forms are meeting through acquaintances' acquaintances, or at University Courses.

## ***Backword***

At least we can say that Practical experiences show that the acquaintance of a person skilled in computer science increases the probability of successful attaining individual computational and internet knowledge. One explaining power of the expansion of computer use is personal connection. Although it's not just the expansion of relationships that influences the use of computer and internet, the process can work backward as well. Those rather-called extrovert figures who possess an extensive relationship in real world, too, won't meet with difficulties if it is about building connections. Internet can get the relationship closer between two people or just approach individuals with similar interest and attitude on the same topic.

Above all we use web for communication, reinforcing, keeping our existent connections and creating new ones, reproducing our connecting capital.

The information society is the society of self-generating growth of knowledge, where knowledge is an economic and use value. The information society alters the nature of knowledge: it becomes trans-disciplinary, multimedia-based, and practical. The characteristic patters of gaining knowledge also go through changes, 'life-long learning' becomes dominant, and the 'virtual environments of open education' replace formal schooling institutions (Nyíri 1999).

Today it is evident that the Internet is a useful crutch not only for the newly growing generations of the information society, but it also slowly takes a firm stand in tutor-researcher fields and those of social science, as well. As every medium, the Internet has its positive and negative poles, but all in all, I do not hold its existence in any way unjustified.

In our essay we made an attempt to give the readers an insight into the versatility of the Internet so that they can experience the process during which the Web became part of the everyday life. Like all media, the Internet has its positive and negative poles, but by and large, we don't consider its justification questionable. We tried to approach the network of contacts and communication on the Internet from several theoretical angles in our work. We examined social relationships developing on the Internet, either friendship or partnership is concerned. We made an attempt to present all this in the light of the formation of online personalities. Because of the confusion due to the anonymous nature of the Internet and the human

nature, relationships formed via this medium are vulnerable: people can give away too much of themselves in too short a time, they can idealize their virtual partner too easily. Role playing, deception, experimenting with sex change, the sudden disappearance of the partner make the Internet a risky place when establishing contacts is concerned; nevertheless, getting out of the allurements of the dark side, the Net possesses a really exciting and valuable feature – it can support and foster the relationship between two or more people.

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**ILDIKÓ LAKI**

## ***EDUCATIONAL INTEGRATION OF DISABLED YOUTH***

### ***Abstract***

In my summary I aim to elaborate on the living conditions, quality of life, and social status of young students with disabilities, i.e. hearing, vision-impaired, and physically disabled students, as well as the means for interaction with their own age group available for them. Additionally, I focus on the integration strategies currently being employed in this field.

There has been a measurable increase in the number of disabled young students and young adults participating in some area of the higher education system, either earning a degree or a specialized certificate of high achievement in a field of study. By doing so they attain an elevated social status not merely among the intelligentsia in general, but also among their peers, both disabled and non-disabled, in particular; thereby simultaneously realizing the principles of equal opportunities and acceptance of diverse groups in society.

The study consists of three main parts. Firstly, it examines the conditions facing disabled students in the higher education system in Hungary and their participation in it. Secondly, it surveys upon their graduation the opportunities awaiting them on the job market. And thirdly, it summarizes the support systems and strategies, which played a significant role in the integration, re-integration, and social co-existence in the past few years and generated tangible results.

### ***Introduction***

My study aims to describe the participation of hearing-, vision-impaired, and physically disabled students and young adults in the Hungarian higher education system. The urgency of the topic is in that the already conducted studies in Hungary seldom focus on the situation of the target group under scrutiny in light of higher education.

The realization of the current paper was helped by a research project carried out between 2008 and 2010, which inquired about the chances for social integration among disabled youth and young adults within the context of higher education. That project and the current paper mainly attempt to find out about the opportunities and challenges awaiting the hearing-, vision-impaired, and physically disabled students entering the higher educational system and then the labor market; furthermore, the extent and nature of support extended by society, state agencies, and NGOs is also examined.

The status of people living with disabilities has radically altered since the regime change, the collapse of communism. Society has become more welcoming, the enhancement of acceptance, or at least tendencies toward it, and the emergence of values and approaches based on diversity spur, even if slow, but tangibly positive changes in the treatment of certain groups, including the disabled. Following a gap of several decades the census of 1990 allowed again the assessment of the number of the disabled; although, the followed means of measurement was that of self-assessment, thereby the final figures may have been partially incorrect, but at least, an until then mostly disregarded, invisible group gained some prominence.

The censuses of 1990 and 2001, although not precise in their entirety, but still list the demographic data of the disabled, including education, living conditions, as well as participation in the labor market. Having factual data on this segment of society meant a notable step in the right direction in comparison with the situation when no figures whatsoever were available. The provision of information on social expectations became an urgent necessity, as in some member states of the EU disability issues occupy an elevated policy area with continuous streams of information available on the topic covering both public and non-state actors.

In Higher education institution except for a few specialized schools, up until the turn of the millennium the participation of disabled students was a rare occurrence. The reason for this could be found in part in the unpreparedness of institutions and academic personnel and in part in the visible and implicit prejudices against the disabled and the prevailing social norms and rules.

Concerning the legal regulations on admittance to an institution of higher learning first Decree 29/2002 (May 17) ME should be mentioned. This regulation establishes from 2002 the scope of

admissible students to institutions of higher learning. It defines the category of students living with disabilities, in addition to placing marked emphasis on the complete fulfillment of the rights of admitted disabled students, it also calls for guaranteeing full access to facilities and services such as the compulsory provision of special notes or substituting materials, accommodation of students with special needs, and the definition of the role of disability coordinators. Subsection 8 in section 147 of Act CXXXIX. of 2005 regulates the scope of admissible students with disabilities. Thereby, given adequate academic credentials, students with physical disabilities, vision and hearing impairment, speech impediment or with conditions that severely impede the learning process (e.g. dyslexia, dysgraphia, dyscalculia, and autism) can enter institutions of higher learning. From the 2002/2003 academic year the members of the aforementioned groups were going to gradually enter the system. Although exact figures are not available for students with physical disabilities, or vision and hearing impairment, however, given the data directly transmitted by individual institutions roughly 27 to 35% of all disabled students suffer from physical disability, or hearing or vision loss.

*Table 1: Compiled by Laki, Ildikó based on data from the HCSO and the MNR (2011.)(person)*  
*(HCSO: Hungarian Central Statistical Office ([www.ksh.hu](http://www.ksh.hu))*  
*MNR: Ministry of National Resources ([www.  
http://www.nefmi.gov.hu](http://www.nefmi.gov.hu))*

<b>Year</b>	<b>2002/2003.</b>	<b>2007/2008.</b>	<b>2009/2010.</b>	<b>2010/2011.</b>
Number of students	341 187	359 391	328 075	361 347
Number of women	104 008	120 278	116 981	199 580
Number of students with disabilities	<b>271</b>	<b>1176</b>	<b>1658</b>	<b>2134</b>

### **Coexistence-integration-segregation**

*„The main obstacle for the realization of equal access is a type of mindset and attitude rooted in mental torpor. This is the consequence of the complacency of people, who prefer to avoid confrontation and tend to follow patterns that do not require independent thinking in order to draw their own conclusions. Rather, they favor easily applicable models of thought, stereotypes, and routinely used clichés without overly concerning themselves with their validity.” (Zs. Kálmán-Gy.Könczei, 2002)*

Prejudices against the disabled, even if diminishing, however, are still a persistent and functioning mechanism in contemporary Hungarian society. Especially because of it, the role of educational and welfare institutions/organizations has burgeoning importance. As they are not merely tools for integration, they increasingly function as vehicles for inclusion and acceptance. Institutions of higher learning occupy a unique role here, since the educational process and the attendant initiatives for acceptance take place in an altered manner as individuals and groups often form opinions about others within their own environment more rationally and in a less biased way, although still not without preconceived value judgments. Several factors are responsible for the small number of students with physical disabilities, or vision and hearing impairment in higher education. If we consider the family backgrounds of the youth and young adults, it can be stated that those who are enrolled in institutions of higher learning usually belong to families with higher socio-economic status with parents who have completed their secondary education or earned college/university degrees and are active on the labor market. Consequently, these students enjoy a higher standard of living; not surprisingly the attainment of education and the realization of a quality life with all attendant perks measure high on their agendas. The main motivating factors for excellence include a more lucrative job, elevated social status, and establishment of solid diverse social networks.

From a social/communal aspect the emergence as an appreciated and accepted member of society is significant, acting as a member who is able to make a noteworthy contribution to the whole community. This is further amplified by the type and nature of work carried out. For disabled graduates of institutions of higher learning, in this context, the picture is rather disheartening. The various types of disabilities still register in the labor market as legitimate handicaps;



meaning that oftentimes highly qualified young professionals are disregarded.

The survey encompassed those institutions of higher learning where students with disabilities have been present for nearly ten years, but still numerous questions need to be solved. Such challenges to be tackled are the persistent individual prejudices, the more expeditious realization of equal access and integration, and the provision of disabled friendly facilities and communication infrastructure.

The number of institutions of higher learning in Hungary currently stands at 70 (according to a news statement by the Ministry of National Resources it is 69), these include 19 public state universities, 7 private universities, 10 state colleges, 34 private colleges.<sup>2</sup>

In nearly one-third of the institutions (21) we can find students with disabilities. The majority of them is enrolled in public state schools (12 schools with 361 disabled students as of June 7, 2011); while a small number is in private institutions (9 schools with 35 students as of June 7, 2011<sup>3</sup>. The problem of wheelchair accessibility of public state schools is largely solved, or is under way of being solved as part of development projects. On the one hand, this implies the wheelchair accessibility of all the facilities and the buildings on the inside; while on the other hand, it means the installment of the kind of communication infrastructure that guarantees equal access to all students. The presence of disabled students, however, signifies not only the need to make the necessary alterations in buildings and infrastructure, but also a change in the mentality of the various actors in education for the realization of principles of full participation of special students in the education system. The latter is perhaps an even more challenging undertaking than the provision of equal access since it presupposes the modification of deeply ingrained, almost dogmatic, lines of thought in this area, which until the middle of the 1990 was characterized by a lack of progress. Additionally, there is a need to actualize a marked shift besides the academic and administrative staff also among the non-disabled students. The success of integration or the emergence of segregation depends on the rates of acceptance or rejection among the student population.(Laki, 2010). Beyond the social, the institutional

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<sup>2</sup> Source: [www.nefmi.gov.hu](http://www.nefmi.gov.hu). Downloaded on May 25, 2011

<sup>3</sup> The calculation of the figures was based on Ildikó Laki's study on disability coordinators in higher education, conducted between March 8 and May 23, 2011.

initiatives must also be legitimized as they, besides the strengthening of communal bonds, also serve as valuable supporting tools in the entry to the labor market, serving as so-called secondary communities. Thus, this function fulfilled by institutions of higher learning is just as significant as education itself.

However, disabled students still face many undue difficulties. The disadvantages stemming from disabilities often can be considered as genuine handicaps, even if the non-disabled do not consider them as such. This impacts the manifestation of stereotypes and the emergence of inappropriate norms and codes of behavior. In the Hungarian higher education system from 2007 on extra credit was awarded during the admission process for disabilities. This resulted in a backlash and the rise of negative attitudes among non-disabled students.

Simultaneously, the disabled young do not intend to gain undue advantages from their condition. Given the data from the Ministry of National Resources we can state in the 2010/2011 academic year of the enrolled disabled students 42.2% could gain admission without extra credit, while 23.5% could not be admitted even with extra credit\*.

*Table 2: Compiled by Ildikó Laki from data provided by the MNR  
(2011.)(person)  
(MNR: Ministry of National Resources)*

Students living with disabilities	Total number of applicants receiving extra credit for admission	Applicants admitted even without extra credit	Applicants admitted only with extra credit	Applicants not admitted even with extra credit*
2007.	1209	535	181	493
2008.	1340	851	325	164
2009.	1802	834	626	342
2010.	1675	707	574	394

For disabled students educational institutions represent a primary means for possible integration. Higher education is a crucial actor in

this process, since by now the number of students in the system has increased manifold, and is rising, as it is seen as one of the optimal means for attaining a higher socio-economical status in society.

Or as the disabled students see it, graduate, then get a decent job, start a family and incidentally prove that one can live a fulfilling and valuable life even with disabilities.

### ***Summary***

My brief study gave an analysis of the presence of disabled youth and young adults in Hungarian institutions of higher learning. The study, based on available data and analyses, pursued as its main aim the exploration of the relationship between higher education and the disabled.

The qualitative and quantitative development in higher education must be seen as a positive factor in the educational opportunities and chances for success in the lives of disabled youth and young adults. Through the expansion of higher education and the realization of equal opportunities, by now the disabled students are able to participate not only in specially designed education programs, but also gain admission to a wide array of programs and able to utilize their professional skills and potentials within the wider institutional setting.

Higher education, besides acting as a means for gaining qualifications, also acts as a social venue forming functioning communities in which the majority of the educational institutions themselves play a positive formative role. The push for guaranteeing equal access is a multi-faceted phenomenon, which has been coupled with the emergence of other actors, including disability coordinators, supporters and advocates of disability rights, equal opportunity commissioners, and protective regulation. All these players and measures combined attempt to ease the tensions arising from the co-existence between disabled and non-disabled students.

Therefore, education is still the main ground for achieving integration. These institutional actors play an elevated role in this area; however, this process must be unceasingly pursued. Among the Hungarian institutions a good measure of progress has been made, nevertheless there are still many issues that need to be tackled in the future.

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**GYÖNGYVÉR PATAKI**

***RESIDENTIAL COLLEGE STUDENTS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF  
DEBRECEN  
ACTIVITY STRUCTURE, VALUE PREFERENCES IN A LIGHT OF  
REGIONAL DATABASE***

***Abstract***

Given evidence from regional surveys that the services of college housing has been completely altered since 2003 due to growing popularity of PPP constructions in the Partium Region (Ukraine, Romania, Hungary) the purpose of this article is to conduct an analysis of how these changes of living conditions actually altered the socialization potential of student houses. Because of the attention that has been given to student communities and political socialization in the region this paper aims to give an overview of the activity structure and the value preferences of residential college students in the light of a regional database (Campus-let <http://campuslet.unideb.hu/>). By evaluating a regional database it seeks to answer the question whether the category of a residential college student has a specific distinctive character in terms of activity structure, value preferences or whether the patterns are similar among students having different living conditions. To reach this aim we used cluster and factor analysis to aggregate variables regarding student lifestyle indicators. The results show that residential college students mostly represent the first generation in their family who enters universities. Since students living in student houses are significantly more frequently lonely their integration in the student body seems to be neither entire nor satisfactory. We assume that the reason for this phenomenon lies in the value preferences of residential college students, which show similar but somewhat more conservative and materialistic attitudes than the average. The importance of academic expectation, financial necessities, family and Christian values indicates that their life is governed by the expectations and necessities of their surroundings. At the same time their extracurricular activity structure reflects the common trend, namely individualistic and passive free time activities are gaining

more popularity. As a result self-governance and active participation in determining their own living conditions is diminishing.

*Key words: extracurricular activities, values, student housing,*

*Key words on research methods: factor analysis, cluster analysis*

## ***Introduction***

Socialist countries experienced the political transition with a deficit of social capital and a complete loss of trust in public affairs. Trans-border areas are similar in several respects: they are characterized by low economic indexes, moderate possibilities for developing their educational systems, low levels of social security and, as a result, a limited political culture. In addition, their communities are undereducated and their educational institutions lack institutional networks. The inhabitants of these trans-border areas are at economic disadvantage (low number of workplaces, underdeveloped infrastructure) and the effects of these weaknesses have been cumulating for decades.

Parallel to the university expansion taking place in the region since 1989 the numbers of atypical students has been rising in two different sense of the word. On the one hand new social groups have entered higher education system and the process of widening participation in higher education is slightly evident. On the other hand the number of students who do not accommodate to academic values and use higher education to strengthen their social capital is increasing (Pusztai 2011; Bocsi 2009; Bauer 2002; Bauer/Szabó 2005,2009, Kabai 2006,2007; Murányi 2010). Therefore less and less can be understood by unraveling the relationships between socio-economic background variables and students' behavior. There is a growing gap between activities expected from students and activities students are engaged in.

This study is based on and part of a research currently running at the University of Debrecen (OTKA, 81858, Ildikó Szabó, Center of Higher Education Research and Development) The project aims to describe and analyze how extracurricular activities at the campus relate to the formation and dynamic of groups of university students in the Partium region (Romania, Ukraine, Hungary). The research, qualitative and quantitative, aims to explain how group culture, the constitution of values, norms and competencies contribute to civic

and professional education. As part of the Campus-lét project this study forms part of a subproject that examines residential college students in the region between 2009 and 2012.

While student housing is understood as having a role in the educational careers of students, administrators, faculty members, parents, and even students sometimes have difficulty reconciling this expectation (Rappaport 1972; Weidman 2003; Kaufman, Feldman 2004; Lehman 2009). This question is even more striking in the Partium Region (Ukraine, Romania, Hungary) where the services of college housing has been completely altered since 2003 due to growing popularity of Public Private Partnership constructions. While researchers in Hungary rely on neo-institutionalist approaches in their account of how the forms of campus housing impact the behavior and attitudes of residential college students, the micro level process at work are frequently paid insufficient attention (Gábor, 2006; Bauer 2002, Bauer/Szabó 2005, 2009; Dénes 1995). Several recent studies on campus housing have demonstrated that this alteration has also entailed extensive changes in student communities, extracurricular activities and attitudes towards norms and regulations. (Falussy 1984,1991).

Taking into consideration the increasing attention towards the changing role of student houses, we have been especially interested in examining the impact of residential halls on students' extracurricular activity structure and value preferences. The educational role of student houses in the region has always been significant in the life of institutions, particularly since the communist regime. Student houses suffering from insufficient financial state support in the Ukrainian and Romanian part of the region still have a relatively high socialization potential whereas in Hungary the situation somewhat different. In Hungary due to the fundamental institutional restructuring (2003-2010) through the use of public-private partnership funding, the whole scale of institutional diversity can be discerned. As a consequence this paper focuses on the University of Debrecen in Hungary. Further studies should identify differences between the various parts of the region.

#### *Data and methods*

Data for this study were taken from the 2010 Campus life database ([www.campuslet.unideb.hu](http://www.campuslet.unideb.hu)) designed to record the nature and the influence of group cultures on civic and professional socialization. It was an on-line survey connected to the administrative system of the universities. For the University of Debrecen the sample size was

4828. The samples in the survey were appropriately weighted to correct unequal probability of selection. Because of its online nature the sample cannot be considered to be representative of the students' population at University of Debrecen. Nevertheless, it still indicates the existence of distinctions applicable to the qualitative part of our subproject.

A number of questions was asked to assess activity structure and value system in different dimensions. For activity structures respondents were presented with a list of questions in two dimensions including a.) How often do you visit the following places? b.) How often do you do the following things?. Respondents were asked to indicate the frequency of visiting these places or doing these things on a scale from 1=never, 2=yearly, 3=monthly, 4=weekly, to 5=daily.

Regarding value preferences questions were organized in three different dimensions: a.) attitudes towards academic values, b.) attitudes towards professional values and c.) attitudes towards general values. Students were asked to give priority of each value or concern on a four- item scale (1=not important, 2=rather not important, 3=rather important, 4=very important). Respondents were asked to answer questions including a.) How important are the following things in a job? b.) How important are the following things in your studies? c.) How important are the following things in your life?

Because our study is motivated by an interest in better understanding the impact of residential conditions (independent variable) on extracurricular activities and student values, we reduced the variation to dimensions indicated through factor analysis. Since each dimensions explored slightly different aspect of the question analyzed, we constructed factors on each dimension. Thus we carried out five different factor analyses and gained the factors indicated in table 1. Using the factors gained we constructed two clusters: one which represented the extracurricular activity structure and the other one the value preferences of University students. Therefore the analysis contains three different levels: a.) the level of variables, b.) level of factors and c.) level of clusters. For the sake of illustration we rescaled responses from 0=never 25=yearly 50=monthly 75=weekly to 100=daily. (See the scores of factor analysis in the Appendix.)

Finally, we used discriminant analysis to clarify how these factors differentiate in terms of their loneliness and forms of residence.



*Table 1: Methods used in the analysis to construct typology in term of extracurricular activities and value cluster.*

Factor Analysis	Factors gained	Cluster Analysis	Clusters constructed
1. Frequency of activities students are engaged in	a.) Artistic activities b.) Digital culture consuming c.) Tv viewers d.) Physical recreation	Students' typology in Extracurricular Activity structure	a.) Reserved students (inwards turning persons) N=1811 b.) Consumers of entertainment industry N=1376 c.) „Balance of body and soul” (outwards turning persons) N=1002
2. Frequency of visiting places	a.) Parties b.) Elit culture c.) Restaurants, cafés d.) Pubs e.) Fitness, sport events		
Factor Analysis	Factors gained	Cluster Analysis	Clusters constructed
1. Attitudes towards professional values	a.) Profession oriented b.) Carrier oriented c.) Society oriented d.) Family oriented	Students' typology in terms of value preferences	a.) social capital oriented students N=1001 b.) Students committed to academic values N=1744 c.) students forced to work N=1444
2. Attitudes towards academic values	a.) Academic values-social behavior b.) Academic values-antisocial behavior c.) Social capital oriented d.) Knowledge oriented e.) Financial difficulties		
3. Attitudes towards general values	a.) Adult value preference b.) Naiv dreamland c.) Christian values d.) Post materialist values e.) Materialist values		

### ***Extracurricular Activities***

Previous Hungarian studies have provided great conceptualization and empirical grounding to assess young adults' and students' multiple dimensions of activity structure (Füstös-Tibori 1995; Pikó2005; Bauer/Szabó 2002, 2005,2009). They point to the fact that young adults (15-29 years) spent significantly more time at home in 2008 than in 2004 and individualistic, passive free time activities have become more and more popular. Forms of entertaining at home have been evolving whereas cafes, restaurants and other settings where young people congregate have been deserted.

Our data is completely in accordance with these findings. According to our data popular activities among students are surfing on the net (98,8 point), listening to music (96,9 point) and watching TV (86,3 point) or DVDs (74,25point). A quarter of students visit pubs or clubs on a weekly basis whereas the majority of the students never take part in the work of political associations (91,7%), civil society (74,1%) or artistic groups (86,3%). A quarter of students never attend sport events or theatre and 18% of them not even attend classical concerts.

Trends are slightly different among residential college students. At the level of the variables differences were most significant between students living with their parents and students living separated from their parents. It further indicates that independent life and dependent life are the factors that really differentiate them in terms of extracurricular activities. This hypothesis was also supported with discriminant analysis. Residential college students' daily use of the internet is, however, lower (96,2%). They are more likely watch TV or DVDs on a weekly rather than a daily basis. What is more, they are more likely go to pubs ( 35,7% at least weekly) or parties (34,8% at least weekly) yet less likely to visit cafés (19,6% at least weekly). In addition, they are the most frequent consumers of elite culture (theatre monthly 8,8%, classical concerts 40,9% at least yearly) compared with students living with their parents (6,8%, 30.5%).

According to our first factor analysis we employed five distinctions gained on the basis of site visits. While the first factor contains all kinds of party places the second factor includes elite cultural programs. The third factor shows that certain proportion of students prefer small cafés and restaurants as opposed to huge party places to meet their social aspirations. Finally, pubs dominate the fourth factor whereas the fifth factor concentrates around fashionable places of

recreation. Considering activities student engaged in rather than the place they visit we identified the four factors indicated in table 1. Although we must admit that these factors inter-correlated their distinction still has significant explanatory power. The internet usage was excluded from the model since its explanatory power was limited due to the homogeneity of internet usage. Political activity and voluntary work were also excluded because of low frequency of reported activities. We found that residential conditions have more predictive power on the places students visit in comparison to the activities they engaged in. Residential college students go to pubs and parties more frequently than the other two category (42.6, 31.8 point–40,5; 31,5 living apart from their parents vs. 40.7,27,5 living with their parents). They score lower average points in terms of consuming digital culture whereas their consumption of elite culture is significantly higher.

Regarding residential college students we found significant relationships with substantial explanatory power in the case of party places (0,016 eta square), elite culture (0,005), restaurants and cafés (0,004), digital culture consuming (0,004) and pubs (0,003).

Out of the priority students give to places and activities we constructed clusters to create typology of the students' activity structure at the University of Debrecen. We had to leave out artistic activities because of the insufficient number of cases. Students belonging in the first group can be characterized by relatively low mobility. They hardly ever leave the house. Their activities are typical of university students (digital culture), though their social contacts appeared to be quite limited. This evidence is interesting if we consider that almost a quarter of students of the University of Debrecen belong to this group and that they spend only a limited amount of time in social surroundings. According to the earlier studies (Murányi 2010) the number of students who were suffering from problems such as finding partners, being part of a community or regulating their lives were 33-37% at the university in 2009. This absence of social integration is even more explicit among residential college students.

The second group of students prefers entertainment from party places to small cafes and pubs, since they also give a high priority to digital culture and watching TV. Finally the third type of students can be differentiated by a high level of physical recreation they are engaged in. The high rate of social activities is attributable to this group, such as going to pubs, restaurant and cafés. These types of students

seemed to be aware of their outfit and social relations. They do not want to enter new relationships but rather take care of the ones they already have. Considering socio-economic background variables we found that the first group, which we have labeled “*reserved students*”, mainly live in big cities, are significantly older than the other two groups and more frequently have girlfriends or boyfriends. As far as the parents educational background is concerned the first two groups– the “*group of reserved students*” and the “*consumers of entertainment industry*” – are quite similar to each other. The third group, however, has significantly more stable educational and financial background and live in more urbanized surroundings. The first and the second group can also be separated from each other on the basis of their urban position on stable relationship and age. The target of entertainment industry is somewhat younger without stable relationship and live mainly in small cities or villages whereas the “*reserved students*” are older, more likely to have partner and live in larger cities. Their financial and educational background is quite similar though.

Analyzing what impact residential condition has on these clusters. We found that the proportion of “*reserved student type*” was significantly higher among students who live together with their parents whereas the “*consumers of entertainment industry*” is more common in the other two categories. 41% of residential college students belongs to the reserved type, 35, 7% to the consumers of entertainment while only 22.8% in the third group where physical recreation just as important as digital culture or small cafés and restaurants.

### ***Value Preferences***

Inglehart (1995) and Stern (1994) are prominent among those who have tried to argue theoretically and demonstrate empirically the weight of values in relation to other attitudinal and socio-demographic variables in explaining behavior. Since the topic of the survey focused on understanding students’ behavior we adapted Inglehart and Stern value clusters and tested the explanatory power of these two autonomous lines of value research on centering Inglehart’s materialistic/post materialistic and Stern’s altruistic/egoistic/biospheric values. Although we found these

dimensions behind our variables the overall applicability of these models in post-communist countries is questionable.

Previous studies indicated that the restructuring of value preferences started soon after regime change in Hungary. Although the transformation moves from materialistic to post materialistic values it varies according to regions and urban conditions (Bauer/Szabó 2002, 2005, 2009; Bocsi 2010; Pusztai 2011). Young adults in Hungary (at the age of 15-29) prefer post materialistic values (familiar protection, friendship, love, peaceful world) more than materialistic ones (wealth, order, interesting life, creativity). These values are followed by national identity and traditions. Power, however, is measured as the least important in life, job and academic life. Although in our region young adults having similar value patterns than the rest of the country, they prefer salary, money, nationality and politics, to a degree somewhat higher than the average. On the basis of previous empirical data this region can be characterized with a family-based, materialistic value profile where values connected to practice and norms are quite close. Bocsi (2010) argues that the above mentioned value pattern among university students is slightly different from the regional norm. Money, nationality, but also free time was considered not so important among students.

Analyzing our data we gained a complex picture of students' value system concerning important values in their life, study and job. For general values we found that happiness (96,5 point), reliability (92.9) and cleanness (91.4) reached the highest values in life. Responsibility and freedom was soon after the above mentioned values. At the same time resurrection (54.45), creativity (68.7) seemed to be not so important in life for students. The fact that 39.9% of the respondents found creativity rather not important at a university clearly shows the restructuring of value systems after the regime change of communism. In comparison to priorities in jobs and studies we also found self-contradictory elements indicating instable value system among students.

Concerning job preferences the distance between the workplace and the home seemed to be the least important as 100% of students said it was rather not important. Our findings indicated that 55% of respondents found easiness, 36.3% responsibility in a job not or rather not important whereas good atmosphere (72.2 point), success (70.79) and security (74.4) was significant in their future professional life. 34.6% indicated that he works in some forms

besides studying. In the light of our data secure, administrative type of job opportunities are preferred.

In accordance with the general value preferences only 40% found professional curiosity important and ranked high achievements (55.9) and meeting requirements (55.6) quite high. 21.1% of the respondents found rather true that only the diploma matters. The variable level analysis has already shown that students at the University of Debrecen give higher priority to meet the requirements of financial funds and academic expectations than to reach professionalism. They prefer secure hard work without responsibility and find success and high achievement important to reach this aim. Their academic attitudes prepare them to get the administrative positions they wish to have.

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professionalism. They prefer secure hard work without responsibility and find success and high achievement important to reach this aim. Their academic attitudes prepare them to get the administrative positions they wish to have.

Regarding residential conditions students living in student houses indicated significantly higher values in case of responsible, useful and family oriented job preferences. They also gave higher priority to statements reflecting responsible attitudes towards academic career in terms of meeting their requirements. On the other hand professional curiosity was similarly important between students living separately from their parents and residential college students. These results might be explainable in the light of general value preferences where Christian values (resurrection, obedience, responsible, cheerful) were much more respected among residential college students.

Examining value preferences through factor analysis we consistently found that social capital appeared to relatively less important to residential college students compared with those students living with their parents. Students in student houses appear to be eager to meet social, academic and financial requirements and also find smartness, rationality and professional curiosity relevant. As far as the knowledge oriented and the family oriented factors are concerned we also found similarities between residential college students and students renting flats. There is significant relationship in the case of the following factors: academic values-social behavior (0,008 eta squared), knowledge oriented (0,006 eta squared), society oriented (0,004 eta squared), family oriented (0,002 eta squared) and social capital oriented (0,002 eta squared).

We also constructed clusters out of our value factors to enrich the complexity of our model and classify students in respect of their value preferences. We managed to construct three types of students. "*Social capital oriented students*" use university to build their social network as their other values were low in comparison to the "*students committed to academic values*" and the "*students that are forced to work*". "*Students committed to academic values*" are the so called traditionally good students giving high priority to adult values facilitating their career (efficiency, responsibility, self-disciplined, intelligent, logical, diligent, clean), well balanced and inertly motivated in their profession. They also appreciate socially oriented jobs requiring social sensitivity and rank Christian values highly. "*Students forced to work*" during their studies have a similar pattern

in value preferences with minor differences. Among them post materialistic values on all kinds of value scales appear to be less popular. As a consequence they give to interesting, useful and responsible work opportunities less priority. In addition, they more often feel academic duties to be so stressful that it makes impossible for them to recreate or build their social network.

Examining the socio-demographic variables behind these types of students, we found that “students forced to work” are first generational students. “*Good students*” and “*social capital oriented*”, are easy-going students more often living in cities and having a better educational background. “Good students” are more likely live in big cities whereas “*social capital oriented students*” are from small cities. Taking into consideration their parents’ educational background “*social capital oriented students*” take an intermediate position between the two other types. “*Good students*” and “*students who are forced to work*” both are older and more often have stable relationship than the social capital oriented students. “*Good students*” and “*students who are forced to work*” can be differentiated on the basis of having better financial, urban and educational background indicators.

Residential conditions significantly explain the types of students in terms of their value preferences. Among students living with their parents there are significantly more students who have social capital oriented value preferences. We found more good students among students living separated from their parents. Finally we detected more students having very similar but somewhat more moderate value preferences among residential college students.

### ***Results and conclusion***

Analyzing the impact of residence on activity structure and value system our results show that residential college students are either the target of the entertainment industry or spend their free time at home. They go to parties or pubs, consume elite culture, but definitely avoid small group entertainment in cafes and restaurants offering services of a higher quality. On their priority scales they give high priorities to adult values such as efficiency, self-discipline or diligence and rank Christian values high. According to their value preferences they want to meet social, financial and academic requirements. This kind of eagerness to accommodate to



expectations can be detected more often together with cases when problems in finding sufficient social support are reported.

Entering to universities includes a transformation of lifestyles and social networks. Students leave their parents, they also have to integrate to new social surroundings and accommodate to new living conditions. All in all students have to address lots of different challenges as they start their studies. In some cases – especially in the case of first generational students – the process of restructure of social network and support can cause problems in social integration and loneliness (Bernardon/Babb/Hakim –Larson/Gragg 2011; Cacioppo/Christakis/Fowler 2009; Cutrona 1982; Williams/Forgas/Hippel/ Zadro 2006).

In the region where 87% of young adults consider their parents life as at least partly admirable (Bauer/Szabó 2002), and the average value profile shows family-based materialistic and practice oriented preferences reciprocity-based, mechanic solidarity is obviously high. Under these circumstances having strong familiar social support it is not surprising that first generational students wish to meet social, financial and academic expectations. On the other hand the fact that 67% of the students not living in Debrecen go home at least once a week (Murányi 2010) further underpins our argumentations. We assume that strong familiar attachment parallel to academic and financial necessities does not facilitate social integration at the campus.

At the same time according to our empirical data forms of entertainment at home has been changing and social scenes (cafes, restaurants) losing their popularity.

Using discriminant analysis we tried to understand which of the above mentioned factors of value preferences and free time activities play a decisive role in differentiating dimensions of loneliness. We found that exaggerated eagerness to meet requirements, low physical activities and not visiting social scenes are relevant to explain loneliness. By contrast digital culture consuming did not have any affect on loneliness. Firstly, it further indicates that students do not feel themselves lonelier just because they spend more time in digital surrounding. Secondly, student in student houses, who are eager to meet requirements, low and avoid social scenes, are significantly lonelier.

Loneliness and the lack of participation and self governance is relatively new phenomenon in student houses in the region. Since the middle of the twentieth century student houses in their objectives

have always been proud of creating identities, communities and strengthening professionalism. Market oriented student houses providing hotel services and having strong regulations hardly ever able to reach this aims. We assume that the higher the quality of services student houses offer, the more elaborated housing regulation is introduced which in turn regulate all different kind of everyday activities. As a consequence self-governance becomes limited. Based on data received we suppose that the distinguishing character of residential student housing has been fading away. Thus we take into consideration that the socialization potential and educational role of residential colleges is decreasing. This trend is more plausible in Hungary where the number of institutions constructed or reconstructed in PPP construction is higher than in other parts of the region.

Although we detected just minor differences among students having altering housing conditions we are convinced that through these minor differences we still managed to give a certain profile of residential college students. Further studies should attempt to compare our findings to databases set prior to fundamental institutional restructuring of student housing.

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### Appendix1.

#### 1.Factors – only >0,33 factor scores are indicated (Kaiser-criteria)

##### 1.1Values

##### 1.1.1. General values

Values	Adult value preferences	Naive dreamland	Christian values	Post materialistic values
Efficient	0,761			
Responsible	0,751			
Self-disciplined	0,719			
intelligent	0,682			
Logical way of thinking	0,682,			
diligent	0,540			
clean	0,485			
happiness		0,810		
True love		0,788		
Familiar protection		0,694		
Close friendship		0,595		
Well-balanced		0,566		
tolerant			0,666	
Social equality			0,646	
resurrection			0,644	
forgiveness			0,638	
helpful			0,575	
freedom				0,686
Interesting life				0,671
Self-respect				0,568
Social appreciation				0,398

### 1.1.2. professionalism

values	Profession oriented	Carrier oriented	Society oriented	Family oriented
Interesting tasks	0,779			
Good atmosphere	0,779			
Success	0,716			
Challenging	0,558			
High salary		0,787		
promotion		0,644		
Secure employment		0,584		
Easy work		0,420		
Caritative tasks			0,736	
responsibility			0,735	
Useful for the society			0,716	
Decision making			0,629	
Workplace is close to the permanent residence				0,678
Family friendly workplace	0,337			0,504

### 1.1.3. Academic values

Values	Academic values-social behavior	Academic value-antisocial behavior	Social capital oriented	Knowledge oriented
Scholarship is motivating	0,709			
Maximum achievements during exams	0,657			
I can find the balance between entertainment and my duties	0,565			
My duty is to study	0,438			
I do not have time to relax because of high academic expectations		0,859		

My personal social network is getting smaller because of my academic duties		0,836		
My friends are more important than my achievements at the university			0,668	
It is not worth giving up my own life because of my academic duties			0,636	
Entertainment is important in these years			0,634	
Social network is more important than professionalism to get on after university			0,518	
I am dealing with professional matters also in my free time				0,779
I am really interested in my major				0,766
Only diploma matters				-0,571
I appreciate knowledge more than certificates				0,539

**1.2 Free time activity**  
**1.2.1. Activities students are engaged in**

Activities	Artistic activity	Digital culture consuming	TV watching	Physical recreation
I take part in an artistic group	0,813			
I take part in a hobby course	0,759			
I play music	0,536		-0,378	
I watch video/film/DVD		0,701		
I listen to music		0,671		
I go out to some small places in the evening		0,569		
I read books			-0,661	0,370
I watch Tv			0,631	
I am dealing with my hobby on my own			-0,443	
I go hiking				0,799
I do sports				0,534

**1.2.2.Places visited**

places	Parties	Elite cultural places	Restaurants and cafes	Pubs	Fitness, sport events
Disco	0,782				
Kazán-house	0,770				
Lovarda party	0,700				
Scenes of entertainment industry	0,667				
Parties, private parties	0,594				
Klinika party	0,451				
<i>Classical concert</i>		0,736			
<i>Art exhibition</i>		0,692			
<i>theatre</i>		0,661			
<i>Art movie</i>		0,546			
<i>Restaurants</i>			0,733		
<i>Multiplex movie</i>			0,714		
<i>Café shop</i>			0,533	-0,471	
<i>Pubs</i>				-0,760	
<i>Concerts</i>				-0,542	
<i>Wellness centres, gym</i>					0,732
<i>Swimming pool, sauna</i>					0,671
<i>Sport events</i>					0,598



## Appendix2.

### Clusters

#### 2.1. Activity cluster: activities students are engaged in scale:0-100; Places scale 0-100

	Reserved students	Consumers of entertainment industry	Outward turning person
Parties	19	41	35
Elite cultural places	21	21	24
Cafes, restaurants	34	42	45
Pubs	34	47	46
Wellness centers, gym	21	25	51
Digital culture consuming	71	78	79
Tv watching	55	65	58
Physical recreation	45	48	57

#### 2.2. Value cluster: general value scale 0-100; job preference scale -100-100; academic values scale -100-100

	Social capital oriented	Students committed to academic values	Students forced to work
Profession oriented	52,2	75,7	64,3
Carrier oriented	47	55	55,2
Society oriented	-13,2	47	25,8
Family oriented	29,1	35,5	31,7
Adult value preferences	73,5	81,7	79,1
Happy dreamland	86,9	90,1	88,5
Christian values	63,5	73,1	70,4
Post materialist values	64,3	69,9	68,6
Academic values-social behavior	28,8	58,9	49,1
Academic values-antisocial behavior	-42,5	-36,7	-28,2
Social capital oriented	-3,7	-27,9	-15,9
Knowledge oriented	18,7	63,2	45,6
I have to work during my studies	-69	-71	64

**Crosstabs: independent variables: activity cluster x dependent variables: value preferences, % within value cluster is indicated**

	Social capital oriented	Students committed to academic values	Students forced to work	total
Reserved students	38,6	43,3	46,3	43,2
Consumers of entertainment industry	37,4	31,4	31,5	32,8
Well-balanced/social type	24,1	25,3	22,2	23,9
Total	100	100	100	100

**Appendix3.**  
**Discriminant analysis: method stepwise**  
**3.1 Classification results**

loneliness	Predicted group membership not lonely	Predicted group membership lonely	Total
Not lonely Count	1415	788	2203
Lonely	714	1057	1771
Ungrouped cases	11	7	18
Not lonely %	64,2	35,8	100
Lonely	40,3	59,7	100
Ungrouped cases	61,1	38,9	100

**3.2 Variables in analysis in the 12<sup>th</sup> step**

12 th step	Tolerance	Sig. of F to remove	Wilks' lambda
Academic values-antisocial behavior	0,958	0,00	0,932
Fitness/sport events	0,909	0,00	0,928
Family oriented	0,944	0,00	0,922
Restaurants, cafés	0,925	0,00	0,924
Goes home because of loneliness and boredom	0,909	0,00	0,925
Goes home because of social necessities	0,871	0,00	0,925
Knowledge oriented	0,866	0,00	0,921
Group membership with creative aims	0,922	0,00	0,923
Digital culture consuming	0,874	0,001	0,920
Society oriented	0,843	0,00	0,921
Tv watching	0,907	0,013	0,919
Group membership in fan clubs	0,944	0,022	0,919

**Means**

Lone- liness	Academic values- antisocial behavior	Fitness/ sport events	Family oriented	Restaurants, cafés	Goes home because of loneliness and boredom	Goes home because of social necessities
Not lonley	-42,0026	31,9146	34,1394	40,9489	-72,0955	-13,9131
lonely	-26,5148	27,9431	30,8499	38,0379	-65,3451	-26,3513
Total	-35,1382	30,1548	32,6819	39,6590	-69,0887	-19,4534

Loneliness	Knowledge oriented	Group membership with creative aim	Digital culture consuming	Society oriented	Tv watching	Group membership in fan clubs
Not lonley	49,2403	14,6543	75,8075	28,8753	60,0238	19,5893
lonely	43,0668	16,2101	75,3456	20,9358	58,4915	20,5519
Total	46,5041	15,3437	75,6028	25,3574	59,3448	19,8624

**IBOLYA MARKÓCZI REVÁKNÉ – BEÁTA KOSZTIN TÓTH**

**INVESTIGATION OF SCIENTIFIC PROBLEM SOLVING STRATEGIES  
AMONG 9-10 YEAR-OLD PUPILS**

Problem solving thinking is a part of the cognitive skills which have helped human beings become social individuals and which is even today an essential element of socialization. It is essential of life to solve social, economic and everyday problems and save our health and environment as well. That is why the process of teaching and learning has to be planned in such a way that students become more and more successful in life problem solving. To do this we need to know the micro- and macrostructure, the process, the characteristics and the influential factors of problem solving.

In this study we planned to investigate the characteristic of scientific problem solving strategies of 9-10 year-olds, which fulfilled as a part of didactic programme among to improve scientific thinking and positive attitude of primary school pupils.

***Improving scientific thinking***

One of the most debated areas of pedagogics is development and improvement of scientific concept forming and thinking. The latest investigations have spread three main areas: 1) improving cognitive skills, 2) improving scientific thinking, 3) planning science teaching and education.

Among theories describing the process of learning Piaget's (2003) basic thesis about cognitive stages of development is widely accepted. Piaget (2003) thinks intellectual processes wants to reach balance similar to functions of life (Tóth 2000). He emphasis the role of appropriate levelled cognitive conflicts in the process of intellectual development. He supposes that solving difficult problems can help us improve cognitive skills definitely. According to Adey and Shayer (1994) metaconstructivism has an important role in this process, which means that during problem solving students can get to construct their own thinking.

Wygotsky (1987) with other scientists contests Piaget's view in several points. For example he does not think that different intellectual phases cannot be divided sharply or a given intellectual

phase appears in determined age and stepping into another phase is influenced by the surroundings. Wygostky (1987) supposes learning is such a surroundings influenced process in which interactions between teacher-students and students-students have crucial roles. According to his view reflection is important in the process of learning. Discussing how to solve problems with the teacher or classmates is such an action which help metacognitive skills and through it general and cognitive intellectual skills develop (Adey 1999). In the theory of Wygotsky and his followers pupils can reach the phase of formal thinking at the age of 6-10 as a result of the interaction between their own personal psychological schemas and the influence of the surroundings. Their theory must be taken into consideration when we plan and apply various teaching methods.

One of the fields of studies on development of scientific thinking is investigating pupils' predictions, explanations and concepts about scientific phenomena. Most of the studies state that thinking development is mainly influenced by knowledge and experiences the child has about the given phenomena. As these depends on surroundings, consequently there are crucial differences among cognitive development of pupils in this field (Stern 2003, Strunk 1998). According to Papageorgiou and Jonhson (2005) children concret real experiences determine how long they stay in each cognitive phase. An 8- year –old child depending on his formerly and newly acquired knowledge is capable of formal thinking, though it can happen that he cannot express it in an appropriate way because of his language characteristics. Beyond acquired knowledge and experiences pupils motivation and emotional attitudes towards the given phenomena are essential (Mahler 1999).

Among studies on development of scientific thinking the theory of conceptual change has a definite role. Although there are crucial differences among interpretations of this concept, they agree on laying emphasizes on constructivism. Scientists agree that pupils are active characters in acquiring knowledge and they interpreting their own experiences and knowledge on the basis of their formerly fixed knowledge. During teaching pupils' former knowledge and the way in which the former - the everyday - and the new – acquired at school- knowledge match have to be taken into consideration (Korom 2005).

Scientific learning and thinking is nothing else but turning from everyday concepts to scientific ones (Carey 1985). Improving skills is available by knowledge fixed to special fields which can also be

transferred into other fields (Molnár 2002). According to the theory of conceptual change development of formal thinking depends on pupils former knowledge rather than their age. Hodson (1998) states that turning to scientific concepts and thinking is due to specific instructions and pupils active work. Creating the structure of this system of activity needs specially trained and qualified teachers.

International studies investigating concepts of living and inanimate nature among different age groups show that with the help of aimed teaching method serious turning can be seen towards scientific concepts. Majority of investigations concern 9-10 year-olds (Stern 2003, Möller 2001, Faust-Siehl 1993, Kircher and Rohrer 1993) which results show that before experimental teaching pupils have naive concepts and predictions which become scientific later. This process has an important interaction between language development and the way of expressing thoughts.

Studies on improving cognitive skills and scientific thinking prove that applying specific teaching methods aiming development of problem-solving is worth, though characteristic of child's thinking has to be taken into consideration.

### ***Modeling of strategies of scientific problem-solving***

We cannot find an unified, widely accepted definition or theory of problem-solving. At the very beginning of the 20th century more scientists tried to describe each phase of problem-solving which were organised by Lénárd (1984) and Rowe (1985).

All of the opinions on it agree that problem-solving consists of several following steps. Some of the scientists make emphasis on the phase of planning (Pólya 1957, Osborne 1963), which help us understand practical problem-solving for example: steps of experiments etc. Others present the schemas of solving theoretical problems (Newell, Shaw and Simon 1962).

Most of the models are linear which contains steps one by one and circle-like process of problem solving is not taken into consideration (Assessment of Performance Unit 1984). It represents nicely that we can turn back to former phases even from evaluation until the solution is successful. (Watts, 1991).

Stuyind most of the significant investigations on the topic we can draw the following conclusion: problem-solving is a cicle-like system of actions which consists of well-seperated phases in more

steps involving linear interactions. In every case its final phase is evaluating aims and solving the problem. According to the theory of metacognition these phases can be learned consciously, such as the macrostructure of problem-solving (Lénárd 1984) which itself is needed but not sufficient of successful problem-solving. So evoking and developing each phase of problem-solving is one of important aims of our education.

### ***Developmental program***

The developmental program called Rostock Model is the result of an international co-operation (Hungary, Germany, Lithuania) which investigated the development of scientific thinking and system of concept of pupils between 2004 and 2008. In this program 94 pupils took part from three different countries from class 1 to class 4.

The program central aim is to structure the process of learning and take the characteristic of scientific cognition into consideration.

The basic aim of the program is to create such a school surroundings in which: 1) former knowledge and abilities of pupils are taken into consideration; 2) based on motivation and other emotional factors; 3) try to evoke understanding learning; 4) thinks learning is a social and cooperative process; 5) by applying methods of scientific cognition it improves scientific concept; 6) it leads to performance knowledge due to the applied teaching methods; 7) makes an effort to evoke and develop such skills which can be transferred into other fields; 8) emphasizes independent, original activity for pupils.

The program involves: 1) unified system of knowledge (the topic of Water) in each country; 2) 8-10 experimental teaching in each school year; 3) measuring efficiency by pre- and posttests; 4) evaluating pupils' answers; 5) assembling materials on the theory and conclusions of the program.

Applying each strategy step consciously happened in a direct way. During the given lessons pupils discussed the aim of applying knowledge and the main essence of the lesson. These aims and tasks appeared on applications using drawings and words too and can be seen all through the lesson. In this way we formed the skill of defining aims consciously. Teacher's demonstrations and independent pupils' work led by the teacher helped the process of learning. The report pupils filled up had the same structure. Pupils answered the following questions: „*What is going to happen? We*

*suppose...*” – evoking creating hypothesis, „ *What have we experienced? We can see...*” – helping put down experiences, „ *Why did it happen? We know that...*” - questions about evaluation. The report always was a formerly made working sheet, which contained description of planning and taking the experiment, too.

Our investigation spread the following areas: 1) development of scientific concepts as knowledge; 2) use of scientific concepts for explaining phenomena; 3) studying the inner structures of scientific concepts; 4) appearance, characteristics and development of problem-solving strategies.

## ***Investigation***

### ***Aim of the study***

Within the frame of the developmental program our study concerning strategies of problem-solving is supposed to get four aims. These are the following: 1) explore the scientific problem-solving strategies and their characteristics used by pupils; 2) draw consequences about efficiency of the applied teaching method; 3) focus on the strategy elements of problem-solving which actually appear in the studied age-group; 4) how to improve strategy steps into the interest of successful problem-solving.

During investigation we searched for the answers of the following questions: 1) What kind of strategies do pupils use during solving scientific problems? 2) What strategy elements and what portion appear in the process? 3) How does former knowledge influence appearance of strategy elements? 4) What portion do pupils use scientific language during problem solving? 5) How conscious are pupils in forming aims and problems? 6) In what extent are pupils able to interpret, explain the solution of the problem?

### ***Sample***

Our investigation took place at the end of the developmental program (2008) because by that time the four years of experimental teaching had made real influence on studied skills. Furthermore, in class 4 pupils have more scientific knowledge, consequently they can solve more complex problems so that problem-solving strategies can be



investigated nicely. We could evaluate the answers of Hungarian and German pupils, as the program spilt in Lithuania. So our sample involves 60 experimental pupils from Hungary (39) and Germany (21) and 52 control pupils (26 Hungarian and 26 German)

### ***Tools and procedure***

To investigate strategy elements we made two problem-tasks. We studied the possible ways of solutions in class 4 before experimental teaching in April 2008, right after teaching in June 2008 and four months later in October 2008. Clinical interviews were chosen as a tool in which pupils thoughts were put down in an auditive way, coded and evaluated. The reason for chooosing clinical interviews was that pupils could have presented possible answers in a written form with fewer instructions. Moreover, in interviews pupils during thinking use expressions full with informal values, gestures and metacognitive elements, too.

The first problem was the following: *„Dog, called Rexi lives in the garden in his kennel. In a cold winter day his drinking water was frozen. How could you have helped him?“*

The second problem is the following: *„It is winter and it is very cold. The lake was frozen. Untidy people threw a lot of rubbish for example: oily and stained sheets of paper, plastic and glass bottles on the ice. After frozy weather longer sunny hours come. What is the problem? How would you solve it?“*

When we chose the studied strategy elements, we based on the model by Pólya (1957), though we supposed that in the case of the studied age-group not every step would be seen nicely. We added the phase of aim naming to his model, as the experimental teaching puts a great emphasis on it. Studying how pupils form hypothesis we wonder whether they are able to make it and when they can what kind of hypothesis can they form. We did the same while studying the phase of planning. They can express it partialy or completely.

We creat direct and inderect categories in order to express how consciously pupils can compose the problem and the aim of solution. We consider the answer direct if the following half-sentences appear: *„My aim is..., With it I would like to get..., I want to...“*, etc. The adjective „conscious“ refers to means of expression. We think in the same way in the case of problem composing.

We create further sub-categories in order to be able to analyse in what extent pupils use the learned scientific concepts, if they express their thoughts in every-day or scientific language. (Table 1.).

The phases we measured three times in the experimental group: a) before experimental teaching b) just after it (in two months after the first test) c) four months later experimental teaching. We did everything in the same way in the control group, of course we missed experimental teaching. The results published here were taken during the third testing, showing steady knowledge of pupils after experimental teaching. We gave one point if the given category was present in the pupil's thinking, and nil when it was missing. In the quantity study of hypothesis forming, planning and performance pupils get as many points as many suggestions they did (Table 1.)

*Table 1: The studied strategy phases and characteristic of scientific problem solving*

Steps of solving strategy	Characteristics of steps		
Composing aims	direct		Scientific language
			Everyday language
	indirect		Scientific language
			Everyday language
Composing problems	direct		Scientific language
			Everyday language
	indirect		Scientific language
			Everyday language
Forming hypothesis	skill		Scientific language
			Everyday language
	quantity		Scientific language
			Everyday language
Planning procedure and	undetailed	skill	Scientific language
			Everyday language
		quantity	Scientific language
			Everyday language
	detailed	skill	Scientific language
			Everyday language
		quantity	Scientific language
			Everyday language
Evaluation			Scientific language
			Everyday language

Analysing our data we applied different sub-programs of SPSS. We took the variable of task (1st or 2nd) and group (control and experimental) into consideration.

### ***Results and discussion***

Our investigation is longitudinal as it follows changing of strategies before experimental teaching, right after it and four months later. Within the frame of this study the results referring to development are not showed but rather we would like to give a complex picture of characteristics of problem-solving of pupils class 4 which is got as a result of the developmental program.

*Table 2: The means of the studied strategy phases*

Steps	Experimental group	Control group	Significance of differences	Experimental group	Control group	Significance of differences
	1. task			2. task		
Composing aims	0,24	0,24	n. s.	0,24	0,17	p<0,05
Composing problems	0,25	0,19	n. s.	0,25	0,20	n. s.
Forming hypothesis: skill	0,51	0,49	n. s.	0,51	0,48	n. s.
Forming hypothesis: quantity	0,70	0,63	p<0,05	0,66	0,56	p<0,05
Plannning, procedure: skill	0,28	0,34	n. s.	0,26	0,19	p<0,05
Plannning, procedure: quantity	0,36	0,28	p<0,05	0,31	0,31	n. s.
Evaluation	0,07	0,00	p<0,05	0,08	0,00	p<0,05

According to the values of significance and eta-coefficient ( $p < 0,005$ ;  $\eta^2_p = 0,969$ ) used for separating different phases, all of the elements of studied linear strategy appear in pupils problem-solving process.

As Table 2. shows we determine means of four steps in the cases of aim setting, problem forming, skills and quantity of planning and procedure, while means of two items are determined in the case of evaluation and the skill and quantity of hypothesis forming. If the pupil has more ideas in the phase of hypothesis forming, planning or procedure, he gets more points than one, consequently the means of these steps are higher.

Forming hypothesis, planning and procedure have crucial roles among other strategies. At this age children are very creative, have several ideas which has to be taken into consideration during planning of teaching and learning.

According to the means showed in Table 2. the skills of aim setting and problem forming are far away from the average, especially comparing with the skills of hypothesis forming, planning and procedure. So even the developmental program could not make such a great effect on them. Although the difference of the mean of the second task in aim naming is significant between the two groups, there are not any significant differences between the groups in this phase. It seems that the experimental program does not put enough emphasis on improving the skills of problem forming, so the situation is the same with it. Results of this category are due to the impact of pupils age which is more significant as a result of the experimental teaching. The means of evaluation in both tasks are significantly higher in the experimental group which is due to the developmental program in which we put more emphasis on understanding and applying scientific concepts. The pattern referring to the strategy phases of both groups is very similar to each other which proves that at this age what are the weaker and stronger points of problem solving.

Comparing the means of the first task of both groups we can state that the experimental group has significantly more ideas in the phases of hypothesis forming, planning and procedure. Also, their achievements in the phase of evaluation is better (Table 2.). In the second task the quantity features of aim naming, hypothesis forming and the quality features of evaluation and the means of evaluation are significantly higher in the experimental group.

According to the means showed in Table 2. the experimental group's achievement in strategy elements of both tasks is steadier, there is

not significant difference between the same phases of the two tasks. At the same time the control group's achievement in second task in aim naming, hypothesis forming, planning and procedure of the second task is lower ( $p < 0,05$ ). *According to these results it is important what kind of former knowledge pupils have when they solve a given problem.* The abstract characteristic, structure and quality of the applied knowledge does not seem to have effect on the pattern of problem-solving but rather on the level of each phase. However, with the help of learning and teaching methods which aimed to apply problem solving strategies consciously and consistently we can reach the state where the differences owing to different former knowledge disappear.

The aim of the study was to answer that *how much aim naming and problem forming become conscious* when the experimental teaching requires it consistently from the pupils. In order to analyse it we created two subcategories: direct and indirect.

Both groups name their aims several times in an indirect way, so unconsciously (Table 3.).

In naming aims of the first task the experimental group's direct, conscious feature while the control group's indirect feature show better means significantly. In the second task the experimental group's achievement is better ( $p < 0,05$ ) in direct naming, but there are not any differences between aim naming in an indirect way.

*Table 3: The means of direct and indirect categories of aim naming and problem forming*

Steps		Experimental group	Control group	Significance of differences	Experimental group	Control group	Significance of differences
		1. task			2. task		
Composing aims	direct	0,15	0,08	$p < 0,05$	0,15	0,00	$p < 0,05$
	indirect	0,33	0,40	$p < 0,05$	0,34	0,35	n. s.
Composing problems	direct	0,29	0,26	n. s.	0,38	0,31	$p < 0,05$
	indirect	0,20	0,11	$p < 0,05$	0,12	0,09	n. s.

Comparing the achievements of the two groups we can say that the experimental group is better in conscious and direct aim naming. The control group names the aim clearly which direct, conscious expression is significantly better than the similar subcategory of the second task (Table 3.). The steadier achievements of the experimental group is supposed to be the result of the developmental program. *As we have already mentioned above age has a serious effect on the skill of aim naming.* The positive impact of the developmental program can be seen in their better achievements in direct, conscious aim forming. *It calls our attention to the learning – teaching methods which important elements of acquiring and applying knowledge and making pupils understand aim naming* Which improvement is worth paying attention to.

In forming problems we experienced just the opposite trend. (Table 3.). Both groups get higher means in direct category. Among tasks in the second one there are more conscious problem forming. The positive effect of the developmental program in problem forming is not detected.

Another question of the study was that *how much pupils use scientific and every-day language while solving problems.* We evaluated only the means referring to skills in the phases of hypothesis forming, planning and procedure, as use of scientific and every-day language appears on the level of skills in the other phases too.

The members of the experimental group use scientific language to compose their solutions more often than the control ones (Table 4.) It is not a chance, as experimental pupils got more scientific knowledge which they used more often. The members of the control group use mainly every-day language. In the first task, except evaluation pupils get significantly higher means in every category than the similar category of the second task.

Studying the tasks separately, we can state that in the first task both groups use mainly every-day language (except the phase of evaluation, which shows significant difference ( $p < 0,05$ ) in every category comparing with scientific language. In the second task achievements of the experimental group is very the same, while in the case of the control group only in the phase of planning using every-day language is more significant. In the other strategy elements they express their thoughts rather in scientific language or both languages appear. *The last result proves that former knowledge has a crucial role in problem solving. Moreover, the more often*

*scientific concepts are used the more possible that due to improvement of their language ability they use scientific concepts to express their own thoughts.*

*Table 4: The means of the studied strategy phases in the subcategory of scientific and every-day language*

Steps		Experimental group	Control group	Significance of differences	Experimental group	Control group	Significance of differences
		1. task			2. task		
Composing aims	scientific	0,18	0,13	n. s.	0,20	0,18	n. s.
	everyday	0,29	0,35	n. s.	0,02	0,17	p<0,05
Composing problems	scientific	0,20	0,12	p<0,05	0,23	0,22	n. s.
	everyday	0,29	0,26	n. s.	0,27	0,17	p<0,05
Forming hypothesis	scientific	0,53	0,16	p<0,05	0,48	0,26	p<0,05
	everyday	0,49	0,82	p<0,05	0,48	0,26	p<0,05
Planning, procedure	scientific	0,31	0,09	p<0,05	0,22	0,11	p<0,05
	everyday	0,29	0,58	p<0,05	0,29	0,26	n. s.
Evaluation	scientific	0,11	0,00	p<0,05	0,00	0,00	n. s.
	everyday	0,02	0,00	n. s.	0,00	0,00	n. s.

Answering the question concerning how conscious pupils are in naming aims and forming problems, we can see that the means of the phase of evaluation in both tasks are higher in the case of experimental group than in the control one. *As evaluation needs several thinking operations which are at a high cognitive level, pupils find it difficult to fulfil. It is even more difficult when they should carry it out during solving a complex problem with abstract system of concepts.* The developmental program by analysing

students' and teacher's experiences consciously managed to improve the skill of evaluation too.

## **Conclusion**

One of the important elements of scientific cognition is problem solving which development has to be dealt with from the age of 6. Our study shows one of the results of a developmental program which aimed to improve the conscious use of strategy elements of problem solving in primary school in class 1-4. During fulfilling the aim of the study it has been proved that the elements of the simplest linear models of problem solving can be separated finely in pupils' answers.

Within strategy phases the proportion of hypothesis forming, predictions about solution, suppositions, plans is significant, which has a relationship with flexible thinking pupils have at this age. *It calls attention to that the skills of forming hypothesis, plans can be improved with the help of a suitable teaching method.* It is an important point of view that in the process of teaching science we can improve our pupils skills of problem solving by making it clear what the practical essence of the given concept and why they have to learn it. Although the level of the skill of conscious aim naming is significantly higher in the experimental group, it did not meet our requirements in spite of the fact that experimental teaching put a big emphasis on it. The same can be stated in the case of problem forming. *In these two phases the impact of age seemed to be more crucial.*

The experimental group reached significantly better results in evaluating and explaining solutions which are the results of applying methods which helped understanding and analysing.

Investigating the effects of former knowledge on problem solving strategies we got pupils to solve two tasks which were different from each other in their system of knowledge. The experimental group reached higher levels of planning, procedure and evaluation in both tasks, though there were not significant differences between the similar phases of the two tasks. The achievements of the control group is not so steady, there are serious differences between the similar phases of the two tasks. In the case of the experimental group the development is due to the positive effects of the developmental experience in which they applied problem solving strategies



consciously and consistently. The achievements of the control group calls the attention to the importance of former knowledge. Consequently, during scientific teaching teachers have to be aware of pupils' former knowledge and help them integrate their former knowledge into their new system of knowledge. As successful problem solving depends on whether pupils get and understand the knowledge they have to apply in the process.

Important conclusion of the study that the members of the experimental group use scientific language to solve the same problem more often as the control group. *But the means of the use of every-day language are higher than scientific one in each phase of the two tasks in the case of both groups.* If we take the characteristics of child's thinking into consideration, it is an obvious result. *Expressing their thoughts every-day language plays a more important role, but it does not mean that they cannot interpret solution and its process, cannot express it in an understandable way.* Further aim of the study is exploring individual characteristic of pupils in scientific problem solving with the help of such a method which provides continuous follow of development of the studied skill.

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**ERIKA SZIRMAI**

## ***HOW DO STUDENTS COPE WITH BULLYING?***

### ***PRELIMINARY RESULTS OF RESEARCH ON BULLYING IN HAJDÚ- BIHAR COUNTY, HUNGARY***

#### ***Abstract***

School bullying, a widely researched area in several countries of the world, has proved to be a serious problem. Different aspects have been studied, but – though a wide array of intervention and prevention programmes have been developed – fewer results focus on the coping strategies bystanders or victims use. This paper shortly points out some characteristics of prevention and intervention programmes and introduces research results found so far. The main part summarizes findings of the research carried out in Hajdú-Bihar county, Hungary, in the spring of 2008, discussing similarities and differences between its results and those of international research.

Key words: school bullying, coping strategies, peer victimization, children's disclosure

#### ***Introduction***

School bullying – a series of aggressive acts against a weaker individual by groups or an individual with the aim to systematically hurt – calls for research not only in areas widely researched already (like prevalence, types, participant roles and their relationships with other factors), but also in examining participants' reactions, i. e. how they can cope with these events. This can serve as a basis for further steps, programmes for intervention and prevention trying to fight the problem.

Although some research evidence exists of results on how children react, this area seems to be somewhat neglected, even though knowledge based on successful coping techniques could be used to stop the bully and end the torture. This paper aims to briefly summarize some of the research data of international publications

and offers findings of a research carried out in Hajdú-Bihar County, Hungary, in spring 2008.

### ***Coping with bullying: international perspectives***

Steps taken by victimized children or bystanders having experienced an act of bullying do not show a wide variety: these children, even if they have average social skills, as participants of a stressful situation having experienced physical or psychological injuries use a limited range of coping: they cry, run away, fight back, ask for adult or peer help, or show indifference. The possibility of successful coping tends to be less probable also because the child victimized is often chosen to be victimized because of the very fact that he/she is lacking in the necessary social skills and/ or interpersonal relations: passive victims are introvert, isolated, anxious, and oversensitive, have little self-confidence and few friends (Unnever 2005, Egan and Perry 1998 in Mishna and Alaggia 2005). Often they blame themselves for being bullied and by showing pain they encourage the bully to continue the aggression.

Research results of coping tend to be similar to data about other areas of bullying by showing results that often contradict each other. E.g. results on the correlation between school size and prevalence of bullying show both a lower prevalence in smaller schools and smaller classes (Wolke et al. 2001) and no correlation between prevalence and school or class sizes (Whitney and Smith 1993). Moreover, Stephenson and Smith found a higher frequency of bullying in larger schools (Stephenson and Smith 1989). A similar contradiction is seen in data of coping: disclosure – telling others about the bullying event – appears to be steady and unchanging (Eslea and Smith 1998), but also seems to become less frequent as victims get older: they tend to cope with being bullied by themselves, not telling anyone about it, i.e. disclosure gets less common (Glover et al. 2000).

Research carried out in countries where bullying has been an important area of research seems to show different steps taken by victims and bystanders: they may fight back, ask for help, show indifference, pay no attention, cry, answer back, run away or react with a combination of the above.

Prevalence of different steps taken shows the following in different studies: Half of the victims stand up against the bully but do not

fight. 37% ask for help, almost a quarter of them keeps away from the place where the bullying happened. 16% of them do not do anything (Glover et al. 2000). In Scotland, the study on children's health behaviour showed that children most often try to escape, shout for help, or wait till the bully calms down and stops the attack. One quarter of the children do not do anything (Currie et al. 1993). In 1997 Smith and Shu found that 66% of the answers indicated paying no attention, 26% asking the bully to stop, 23 % asking an adult for help, and the same number indicated fighting back. In smaller proportions children cried, asked a friend to help, and ran away (Smith and Shu 2000). Research in Maine studied third graders, 91% of whom do something (choose an active answer): 44% tells and adult, 32% tells the bully to stop, 32% leaves the place, 24% tells a friend, and 3,4% stay at home. 2,1% of the answers indicated further violence: they said they bullied others (a larger number of boys than girls) (Silvernail et al. 2000). The difference between the differing results is likely be caused by contextual differences: the studies examined different age groups, different cultures, at different times. Research attempted to find connections between steps and other variables: correlations of coping and age, or coping and gender were examined.

Older participants tend to choose strategies where adult help is not asked for: they try to cope with the situation on their own (11-year old children chose fighting twice as often as seven-year-olds (Glover et al. 2000). (This seems to contradict data that claims that physical types of bullying are less frequent as children get older (Brame et al. 2001). However, it should be noted that in the first case the answers refer to coping –as an answer to the bullying act–, which might differ from the type of the act itself, i. e. physical aggression does not necessarily elicit physical reactions). In Smith and Shu's research as participants got older, they tended to pay no attention instead of crying or running away used earlier. As Smith, Madsen and Moody claim, social skills improve and get more sophisticated with age, and as it can be expected, victims choose more complex strategies to fight bullying. Their data also showed that the steps tend get more successful with age (Smith et al 1999).

Correlation between gender and coping tend to show results similar to the correlations of bullying types and gender. Due to the different socialization paths between males and females in the acts of bullying boys more often choose physical ways to bully, whereas girls bully more relationally (the fact that the latter type is less obvious makes

people believe that bullying is typically carried out by boys). In coping, boys also tend to fight back more often (Smith and Shu 2000) and hit back or beat (Currie et al. 1993, Glover et al. 2000). Girls tend to ask for help more often (Hunter et al 2004), tell their parents (Currie et al 1993), tell their teachers (Glover et al. 2000), cry or ask a friend to help (Smith and Shu 2000).

Gender differences have appeared in another step, in disclosure (see below in more detail) in different cultures as well. The study comparing results of British and German schoolchildren found that in both cultures girls more often chose the answer “always” on disclosing bullying events to the teacher and more rarely chose the answer “never” than boys (Wolke et al. 2001). (The same study found a significant difference between the answers of the two countries: more than half of the British children (51,3%) indicated they “always” told if they were victimized, whereas only 9,8% of the German children did so (Wolke et al. 2001). This also underlines the importance of interpreting results only in context.)

Disclosure seems to be a very important way of coping with bullying. It might efficiently help the victim – or a bystander, though less often - for different reasons: the partner’s help can result in ending the bullying. Moreover, the fact that by telling someone the victim can get rid of the tension and hiding is also considerably beneficial. Research shows that those who do not tell are those who are bullied most, since this way they offer the possibility for the bullying to continue. (Charach et al 1995 in Mishna and Alaggia 2005).

Despite of this, a lot of victims do not tell anybody (Pepler et al 1994). Charach and his team found that one third of the victims decide to tell someone about the aggression at most. 63% of those who do, tell their parents, 47% their teachers (Charach et al 1995 in Mishna and Alaggia 2005). Those who do not tell can do this for several reasons: they might prefer coping on their own, or are afraid that asking for someone to help will just worsen the situation. Keeping these things secret belongs to bullying, as this can be one way to threaten the victim. Bullying is about the victim believing that the bully is more powerful. The bully has clear ideas of social relations: victims are chosen because they tend to be less powerful. Quite often victims blame themselves for being picked on, and they believe that they can’t be helped. Victims are also often afraid that the bully will take revenge if having been told on or punished.

Another reason for not telling anyone about having been victimized or having seen a bullying event lies in children's expectations about adult reactions. 40% of the answers told that the adult does not intervene, intervenes only once or does hardly anything (Pepler et al. 1998 in Mishna and Alaggia 2005). With age this seems to be even worse: they believe less in the success of adult intervention (Charach et al 1995 in Mishna and Alaggia 2005).

### ***Coping with bullying: schools in North-East Hungary***

The research carried out in Hajdú-Bihar County in Hungary in spring 2008 involved 1006 primary school pupils. The list of participating schools chosen from among all primary schools of the county was generated by a computer program to random sampling and could be considered representative. In each school the head teacher chose a fifth and a seventh class where pupils filled in the 100 item questionnaire prepared by the research team.<sup>1</sup>

The questions were organized around several topics (school climate, prevalence of school bullying, types, participants, coping, and attitudes towards bullying). In most questions students chose between the options given, but pupils also had a chance to add their comments.

Answers about coping were divided into two groups based on the different participants: answers of bystanders and those of victims are discussed separately. The reason for this is that different participants are affected in different ways: victims are under direct attack. Bystanders, although involved less directly, can play a key role in how bullying continues.

### ***Results***

#### **Bystander answers<sup>2</sup>**

Evaluating bystander answers separately from those of the other participants' results from the belief that this group can disclose their attitudes most frankly: they cannot be blamed for the bullying event,

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<sup>1</sup> The team is led by Dr. Buda Mariann, senior lecturer at Debrecen University.

<sup>2</sup> Bystanding experiences were asked for in different sections of the questionnaire (Questions 26-47)



as opposed to bullies, who might not want to take the responsibility of bullying others or victims, who might be ashamed of being bullied.

Our data show that bystanders report more occurrences of bullying as compared to victims:

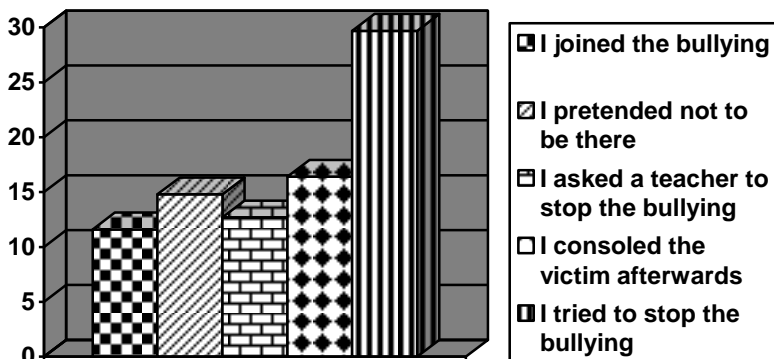
Bystander answers to „*Nothing like this happened*”: 11,2%

Victim answers to „*Nothing like this happened*”: 18,1%

Answers show that bystanders reported experiencing bullying 41% more often than victims.

Steps taken by bystanders show the following pattern (Figure 1): almost one third of the bystanders tried to stop the bullying by themselves (29,7%). The second choice is to ask friends to help to stop (17,4), then consoling the victim afterwards (16,4%), and pretending not to be there (14,8%). Teacher help is asked for in 12,7%. 11,6% joined the bully.

*Figure 1: Bystanders' answers to "What did you do when you saw an act of bullying"?*

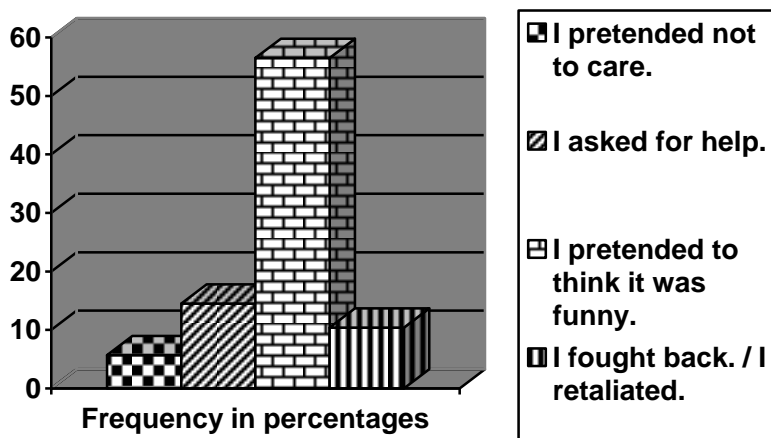


If the two age-groups are compared, a significant difference is shown: fifth graders tell their teachers and pretend not to be there more often than seventh graders, who, on the other hand, ask their friends to stop the bullying more often. ( $p < 0,05$ ). Girls' and boys' answers show that girls report experiencing a larger occurrence of bullying, and their answers show that girls more often tell their teacher, console the victim later but also more often pretend not to be there.

### *Victims' answers*

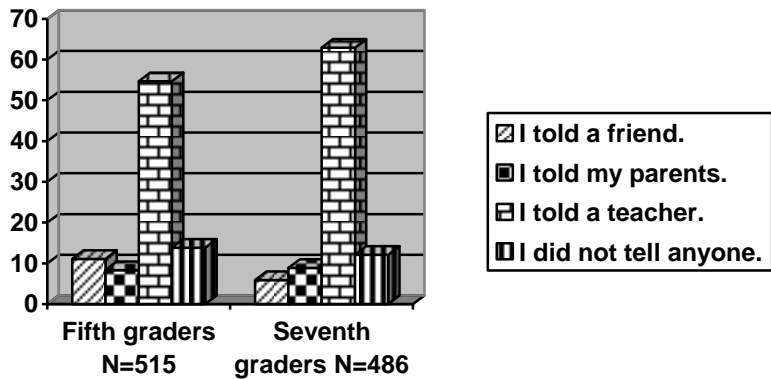
Among the participants of bullying victims are those who are most likely to be deeply hurt in bullying: its effects may affect all their lives. The outcome of the bullying event greatly depends on their social skills, their courage, or moral strength.

Figure 2: Victims' reactions (%)



Victims' reactions to being bullied show the following pattern (Figure 2): most often they pretend finding it funny (56,5%), ask for help (14,55%), retaliate (10,4%), pretend they are not interested (5,7%). (Answers to disclosure are given separately.) Significant differences appear between fifth and seventh graders: younger pupils pretend indifference, retaliate and ask for help more often, whereas older pupils choose to think and show the case to be funny more often. Between the two genders there's significant difference in asking for help and showing indifference: boys do it more often. Questions that look into disclosure offered four possibilities: not telling anyone, and telling to a friend, parents or a teacher. Hungarian students most often tell a teacher about being bullied (58,7%). This is followed by not telling it to anyone (12,9%), then telling their parents (9%), and lastly to a friend (8,54%). Comparing age groups (Figure 3) fifth graders significantly more often tell their friends than seventh graders. Differences between girls and boys are negligible.

*Figure 3: Who do victims tell about being bullied?  
Answers by age group*



### ***Discussion***

The findings of this research are both similar to and different from results of other studies, which reminds us of the importance of interpretation in context.

Bystander answers do not contradict social expectations: active steps to fight bullying were indicated most often (trying to stop it, telling friends). Here, for the first time in a series of answers we need to face the possibility that students answer what they know they are expected to answer. Answers in the mid-section (average frequency) are the ones which show avoiding involvement or passivity. On one point answers fall short of expectations: bystanders show reluctance in telling the teacher and asking for their help. It is difficult to say why, but a lesser involvement – as compared to victims – might explain this: they do not consider the case so serious, and do not consider need for help essential. It also needs to be considered that the term „bystander” includes several different roles: they can be followers of the bully, assistants, reinforcers or defenders. These subgroups show roles with different, often opposing attitudes: thus the heterogeneity of the group might be an answer.

The result that fifth grader and seventh grader bystander answers present with the younger ones asking for teacher help more often, older ones involving their friends, justifies earlier findings that show that with age children turn towards their peers and move away from adults.

The victims' answers of pretending being bullied to be funny got an unexpectedly overwhelming dominance. This step seems acceptable if the type of bullying is not physical but relational or verbal. This explanation seems to fall in with results that show this answer was more often given by the older pupils. Earlier findings that "*physical bullying declines with age*" (Brame et al 2001 in Stassen Berger 2007:95), and relational and verbal ways take over seem to explain this result.

Looking at disclosure our answers contradict earlier ones showing a decline in willingness to tell as children grow older. Our seventh graders indicated a growth in the frequency of disclosure, moreover, they told adults more often than their peers. Although there might be different reasons, we suppose the reason to be the expected answer.

The answers also show that children told their teachers most often about being bullied. Research data from other countries show that the person to be told is least often the teacher. This, we think may be explained by the difference between the mostly Anglo-Saxon context of education and that of Hungarian. In the former countries education is less teacher-centred, individual initiatives and active involvement, learner responsibility and independence get a larger emphasis in these cultures, consequently students are educated to take an active role in solving their problems. In Hungary education is traditionally more teacher-centred and until lately students were "trained" to ask for teacher help both with academic or behaviour problems. However, another possible reason for the dominance of disclosing the bullying to the teacher might again be caused by students giving the answer expected of them – which also points out the importance of working for the teacher's appreciation primarily.

### **Summary**

The results – preliminary, as indicated in the subtitle - and discussion above are just the first steps in our research on coping with bullying. However, this short piece already indicates further directions of research and interpretations (e.g. correlations between coping techniques and frequency of types of bullying).

The above results so far have shown a picture that is – as expected – not favourable at all: bullying is present in Hungarian schools, to a degree that is similar to research results in other countries. Moreover, certain points show a picture even grimmer than expected:

Hungarian schoolchildren in the study seem to be more helpless and less assertive in standing up against bullying. Even with age students do not show a growing responsibility over fighting for themselves or being more conscious of choosing coping techniques that either avoid or successfully stop aggressive acts. It is quite a discouraging result especially if we consider that being successful at fighting bullying means appropriate individual decisions born in the self or assisted/ encouraged by a healthy community. Most research results on programmes fighting bullying show that any attempt aiming at intervention and prevention should focus on a wider context than schools themselves: if we want children to stand up against aggressive acts on their own more efficiently, it is not enough to aim at particular cases. Personal training on problem-solving, conflict resolution should be the basis of the programmes – both on individual and community levels. Also, as conclusions from other studies suggest even small, hardly visible results can only be achieved by serious long-term efforts.

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**ZSUZSA ZSÓFIA TORNyai**

***WOMEN AT THE UNIVERSITY OF DEBRECEN – THE RESULTS OF THE  
CHERD GENDER RESEARCH***

In the last hundred years the number of women has increased in higher education as well as in the scientific careers. As for students, today the number of male students is more at the primary level, in secondary education the number of male and female students is equal, while in higher education the number of women is over 57%. In PhD training there are more males than females, and this tendency is the same in the scientific careers or among instructors in higher education. In this research we examine the causes of this by viewing the female teachers of the University of Debrecen. The research of women's special role in education and in science – among many other aspects – includes the research of the phenomenon called „glass ceiling”, the careers and opportunities in the lives of female students and instructors, and the terms „success” and „career” are also viewed objectively and relatively. We search for the specific characteristics of their lives and the background of their work in the scientific life through quantitative and qualitative methods. The basic question is: what did the women who got into higher positions of science do in a different way compared to women having similar conditions, and how were they able to meet the gender, social and their own expectations.

The research focusing on the women's role in education and science can be divided into two categories: we distinguish between competitive and complementer research. According to the competitive research/study, women obtain a so-called „lack of time” or „time-ness” in higher education, both students and teachers, and with time this difference becomes equal. These studies compare men and women in employment, higher education, and in science.

The other type of research is called complementer research, which defines the role of the genders as complementer ones. According to this view the role of male and female tutors is not comparable and both of them should be defined separately. This research connects to this second category: we compare the female tutors with each other not with males.

We examined three sub-fields of the topic in more details using the qualitative method: we examined and made interviews with two special groups of female students in the doctorate programme (Tornyai 2007a, 2007b) and the religious female instructors of higher education (Tornyai 2009). During the quantitative research we focused on all the 15 faculties of the University of Debrecen, questioning (with questionnaires) the 479 female instructors from February to June in 2009. There were 134 questionnaires filled in which means that 30 % of the questionnaires sent by post returned.

### ***Success***

It is very interesting that through this research we get to know the main features and promoters of academic/scientific success. The women who gave answers could give 12 points in a four level scale according to their importance. In the following chart we can read the five most important promoters of academic/scientific success (*Chart 1*).

*Table 1: The five most important characteristics of academic/scientific success, average*

	<b>Average</b>
Hard work, endurance	3,82
Supportive professional background	3,69
Mentor	3,52
Talent	3,45
The role of supervisor, the quality of correction/overseeing	3,44
Good relationship with the professional researchers of the given field of study	3,44

The academic success is therefore determined by both inside and outside features (see more: Pusztai 2007). It is interesting that the women who answered considered hard work and endurance the most important elements, talent is not really important, it stands only in the fourth place. The elements which are not connected to the person are more important: professional help, which is the second, a mentor,



the help of the supervisor, and the good relationship with the professors, professionals of that given academic/scientific field.

There are not many studies regarding the situation of women, which would not mention the role dilemma that comes from the burden of family and career (Lind 2008). This often requires a choice which basically determines their success or career. In the academic field becoming more successful, climbing up the ladder and becoming a leader often hindered by the opposition of work and family (Csépe 2008). As for mobility and career opportunities, the chance of women with family is less than of their male counterparts and this is also strengthened by the view of these women themselves who say that the reproductional role of women is the cause of gender related differences in career opportunities (Nagy 1997). In spite of this 40 % of women with little children would like to have successful careers, but they can only imagine this without the damage of the family – and men (fathers) have positive feelings towards their wives career only if the family does not disintegrate (Paksi 2007). This is also supported by the idea that the number of those who equally want family and work, grow, and the number of those decrease who consider private life important, two-third of the women consider private life more important than work (Pongrácz 2001, 38).

### ***Success explanations***

Career and success are terms in our topic which need more elaborate explanation. The women had to answer an open question connected to these two terms: „*What would she consider the most success in her life?*” This question divided them but there are some common aspects too: there are four distinguishable groups among the women who we will introduce now: the mothers, the jugglers, the altruists, and the explorers.

The Mothers consider the family as their most important success: „*my child*”, „*my family*” and there were those who even shared their doubts „*if my answer was my children, would it be very unacademic?*”

These women also referred to the masculine character of their workplaces, the traditional division of labour, which Kissné Novák (2002) calls the most restrictive element of women's career. This

means a definite disadvantage – especially in the first years of having a child or children – but also later it hinders the opportunities of women in their professional and academic progress. Besides – adds Kissné (2002) – women got used to the fact that the leading role always belongs to men, they are the organisers, and this tendency is even true at work even if the woman has the same qualification. In European culture the inequality of men-women roles within the family are also present at workplaces (Kissné 2002, Zimmer, 2003).

*„Because they have to decide (we as women) to have a family and sacrifice the career or to have a career, and in a masculine world they decide to be said 'you are only a woman'. This is a very serious dilemma.” (Lilla, instructor)*

During the interview research we experience that the traditional mother role has a priority in the lives of women. Every woman agreed that finding and maintaining the harmony between career as a researcher in the scientific life and family is very hard, it is not only the role of one person. The doctorate students still use conditional in making their decisions:

*„... I really would like to have children. I could do all my job and have children at the same time. I would sacrifice everything for a child or a family, even my PhD. I also know that if I will ever have to choose between my career and my husband's career, I would say that he should have the career, not me. So I would like to be a mother.”(Orsolya, doctoranda)*

The specific nature of female workforce should not be neglected: at a specific time of her life family is the priority and certain functions cannot be given to anyone else, and this has an important impact on their work. For instance, a woman who has a child is temporarily „unstable” at work, when the children are still small and if they get sick, she cannot work because she stays at home with them, and those women cannot even do extra work, participate in trainings or be part of public events. The solution of these problems is a serious issue at workplaces employing mostly women (Koncz 1985, Zimmer 2003). This presents a problem to women, too.

The Juggler – according to Koncz (2005) would like to reach a double role – the coordination of family and work, or they consider their best achievement if they try to do this. *„A good employee and a good mother”* - says one of the women, or as an other teacher claims

*„I wouldn't feel successful either without my children and husband or without my job.”*

Regarding family and career we distinguish two groups: those who delay their career and those who delay starting a family. Today the latter is typical: before starting a family – without giving up their studies – they are stepping up the ladder, and only after reaching a goal (here it is the PhD) do they start thinking about a family.

*„I still find the most challenging in my life to coordinate family with work without neglecting them, and to provide both of them the as much as I can. ... I always measure my career in the presence of my family life. (Anna, instructor)*

Most of the women would like to share the burden of the „second shift” with their partner, and they have personal positive examples connected to this share of responsibilities.

*„It is compatible but this has the consequence that my husband is mostly at home. ... It is a bit opposite to the traditional, but I think if this works for both sides we can do it. It's our problem, not others'. My children feel also well in this situation, I am a full-time mother when I am at home.” (Blanka, instructor)*

In addition – according to Estók Éva (2005, 150) –, achieving the role of the „good intellectual mother” can be questioned: in the answers we can see the work-centric, career-oriented views of intellectual mothers.

*„I cannot imagine to give up my career for the role of a traditional mother at home doing all the housework. My whole life would go off the rails. So I don't think I could do it. I can only imagine these two together. I don't want to sacrifice either of them.” (Mariann, doctoranda)*

The third group of success – explanations is the Altruists. They teach, that is their profession, they mostly define themselves as instructors: *„I would like to do my job to the contentment of my students, ... the love, trust and knowledge of my students”,* and they consider their most important success if they or one of their students publish books.

*„My principle is to teach everybody everything. We shouldn't keep our knowledge for ourselves, but we should give it to our students. If*

*we teach a lot to them won't mean that we are less clever or professional. The good thing is if I can give my knowledge to someone else, and it is not a problem if my student becomes more professional than me.” (Júlia, instructor)*

The Explorers considered their scientific titles and their success in science the most important success in their lives: they often mentioned the PhD stage, habilitation, the academic title, the „creating of professional workshops”, „a significant scientific discovery,” „the contribution to the college's development.”

*„. . . I can't imagine my life without learning, without borrowing books from the library. People always need to learn, and of course, I would like to learn more. I really can't imagine my life without learning.” (Mariann, doctoranda)*

### **Career**

It is also important to note that the career-explanation of the respondents is different: life career, work career, family career, labour market career mostly oppose. As the careers explained by the society and by the individuals are not always the same (Koncz 2005). In connection with the creation of balance the respondents are usually optimistic. According to Éva Kissné Novák (2002, 2005) there are four hindrances to the scientific life of women. She claims that the time spent at home with the family is a disadvantage.

*„During the maternity leave I was really frustrated to be locked up and mostly I had to do housework at home. . . . I really missed the intellectual challenges. I really love my children and spend time with them but not in 24 hours a day. I need to have something else in my life as well. My husband is a very good partner in that.” (Blanka, instructor)*

Women who also have families can be part of the scientific life only when their children become more independent, and this may mean an unbeatable disadvantage, as from the aspect of science this means a long period of time. As a second aspect – which by no means has a prioritization – draws attention to the lack of self confidence of women (Kendall 2003). As a result of this women are usually only helpers of their colleagues, so the success of her work goes to her male colleague. The following insight refers to the masculine aspect

of workplaces – which is shown - according to some examples – in the publications published by more people, by the order of the names of women. Finally, the sensitivity of women and their different ways of dealing with conflicts are also disadvantages, because there are only a few women who can leave their family conflicts behind and reach professional goals instead. Besides the „glass ceiling” phenomenon, insecurity, failures and the treatment of these failures are also important to mention. Although there are opinions which claim that women who would like to reach a scientific success deny the role of being a mother as this hinders them in their career prospects, these ideas have still not been confirmed (Kissné 2002, 2005).

The idea of the successful woman is still not an accepted notion in scientific life. If she becomes successful it is instantly suspicious, and not only in the eyes of men. Thus they usually claim more from women in science not to become suspicious. Lots of women who reached really impressive results in science claimed that they had to work harder than their male colleagues (Fox 2003, Kissné 2002). Anett Schenk's (2003, 3) study also shows that the reason of having little number of female professors is the tension between having a family and a career (habilitation). Furthermore, the habilitation is not a guarantee to have a job at the university before getting more than enough professors in that given field (Schenk 2003). When defining the role of public education and higher education in Europe one of the most important issues was the equality of men and women: to research what opportunities, what social and cultural patterns, skills, professional life the educational system provides for male and female students. The increasing number of women in higher education, as well as their role and place in higher education is a current topic which requires an extensive research.

### ***Summary***

This paper was written by using a new kind of approach: we did not compare the female instructors with their male counterparts, we compared them with their female counterparts. During the research we answered several questions, and found new research fields. We got to know the female instructors of the University of Debrecen who as doctorandas – mainly more conscious than their predecessors

– are preparing to the significant roles and challenges of women and as instructors and scientists they juggle with the gender, social, and their own expectations. A group which was examined is not homogenous: according to the differences in the fields of science, and age. They also represent differences in their success-explanations and career-explanations. Our main question was about those women who reached impressive careers: What did they do differently than they other female colleagues? We have not reached a definite answer to this question yet.

On the basis of the research we can claim that we can distinguish between the female instructors and researchers according to fields of science, their place in the hierarchy of education, and different age groups. They also differ in the motivation of starting a scientific life, in facing problems, in viewing family and career. We mostly focused on the female instructors and researchers and their success-and career-explanations. According to this we can distinguish four groups: the mothers who are afraid of being unscientific, the jugglers who want to reach a „double” career, the altruists who teach because of the success of their students, and the explorers who are really proud of their scientific achievements.

Although it is obvious but we always have to clarify that it is important to deal with female instructors and researchers. Women with degrees being satisfied with their career and leading a harmonic family life are the keys to the future. The research of the female instructors and researchers is not only important for women but for the whole society. As the emergence of women in higher education and science resulted social changes, along with changes in the labour market and gender-roles.

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## **ADULT EDUCATION AND CULTURE**



**ERIKA JUHÁSZ**

**MAIN ASPECTS OF AUTONOMOUS ADULT LEARNING IN HUNGARY**

In the research no. K63555 entitled “*Adult autonomous learning and the process of commitment to improving mastery of a subject*” supported by OTKA we were exploring how the measuring of the autonomous learning efficiency of adults can be achieved, by what methods and means and also we wanted to test this on a sample of 1200 people, thus surveying the characteristic features, means and areas of adult autonomous learning. In the present study besides the theoretical basis and the methodology of the research we intend to cover to what extent self-directed, autonomous learning makes a contribution to motivation and fields of autonomous adult learning.

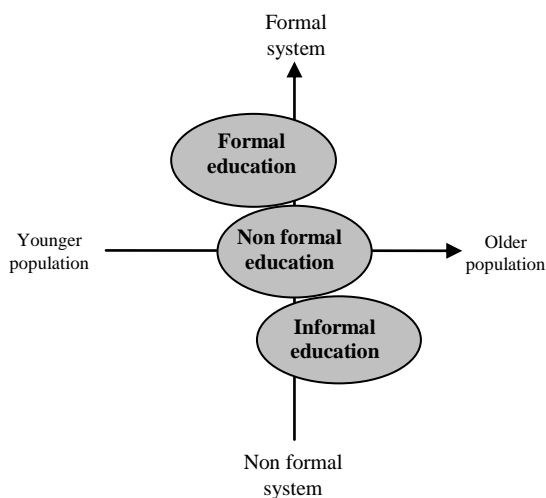
***The system of adult learning***

When examining adult learning we use the term based on the third point of the Hamburg Declaration (1997): “*Adult education denotes the aggregate of all the learning processes, let them be formal or others, with which people’s – whom society they belong to considers adults – abilities develop, knowledge grows and professional qualification reaches a higher level or is led towards another direction, so that they could satisfy their own needs and that of society. Learning in adulthood includes formal education and continuous training, non-formal learning and the wide sphere of informal and occurrent education which are available in a multicultural learning society, where theory and practice based approaches are acknowledged*” (cited by Harangi – Hinzen – Sz. Tóth 1998:9-10).

In this way in our interpretation adult learning is mastering any kind of knowledge, skill or even attitude as an adult either within an institutional/school system or through extracurricular activity. It can be done within formal, non formal or informal frames through direct or accidental learning process.

Besides recognising the broadly defined learning frames it is also an important point that with aging the opportunities for non formal and informal education gain an increasing dominance instead of the knowledge attainable within a formal educational system as the research examining the Hungarian learning characteristics also shows. (Radó et. al. 2009).

*Figure 1: The schema of complex learning activity*  
(Source: Radó et. al. 2009)



Adulthood is a life period following growing up, a physical and intellectual maturity which is reached by a person at a certain age due to an inner progress and external influences. Adulthood is defined in the professional literature in different ways taking numerous determining factors into consideration (e.g. sex, culture, social time, financial status) thus deepening the concept. (More details among others in Tátrai 2004.) In our research we reckon a person to be an *adult* who has reached 18 years of age as per his or her chronological, calendar age. Besides this in the definition taking the legal points into consideration we put the emphasis on the able adults having an independent decision-making possibility.

As at given ages of life, formal, non formal and informal training contents appear on the given levels of training as well in different proportion. (We use the term of ‘level of training’ as defined by

ISCED. More details: Forray – Juhász 2008.) The interpretations regarding the concepts of these training contents are dealt by Sarolta Pordány in her paper as well in detail (Pordány 2006), therefore presently we do not want to deal with the differences of interpretations and terminology.

The document of the European Union entitled *Memorandum on Lifelong Learning* was chosen as a crucial notional basis from the point of view of the research. In this the definitions of the forms of the learning contents are as follows (based on European Committee 2000 with our own complementation):

*Formal learning:* it is realized in institutions of education and training (in a school system) with quite stiff, formal rules (laws and orders, regulations) and its learning achievements are acknowledged by certificates, qualifications.

*Non formal learning:* It occurs besides education and training of the school system, and it is usually not rewarded with an official qualification, although it may give a certificate. A possible scene of the non formal learning is the workplace, but it can be realized within the scope of the activities of civil social organizations and groups (e.g. youth organizations, trade unions, political parties). It can also be done through organizations or services complementing the formal system (such as art, music courses, sports education or exam preparation in the form of private tuition). Its aim is to obtain new knowledge, thus retaining or renewing the position on the labour market, which is usually achieved on shorter, course-like trainings.

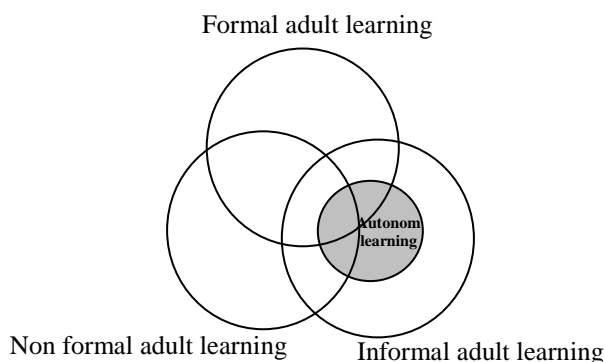
*Informal learning:* It naturally goes together with everyday life. In contrast to the formal and non formal learning forms, informal learning is not necessarily conscious learning and it is possible that even the individuals are not aware of the expanding of their knowledge and skills either.

Our research can be fitted in the topic of informal learning, so we created a more detailed definition for this. On the basis of this we regard *adult informal learning* to be any kind of voluntary learning process attached to any life activity beyond the school and institutional system, on any location. In the classification of these we differentiate usually random *spontaneous* learning processes realized in unconscious, unintentional, unorganized forms and on the other hand conscious and organized learning processes realized by the individual's free will – these are called *autonomous learning*.

This kind of autonomous learning may be a process with aims planned on our own but in many cases it may also be an effective compliment of formal and/or non formal learning.

The following figure illustrates the relations of the different forms of learning to each other according to our interpretation

*Figure 2: The place of autonomous learning in the system of learning  
(own design)*



Autonomous learning constitutes clearly a part of informal learning and as we tried to demonstrate it is a smaller part (the bigger part is a spontaneous, random learning process). However we wish to emphasize that any of the learning forms can be imagined without independent autonomous learning done and organized by the individual's free will, thus autonomous learning also appears as part of formal and non formal adult learning – in different scales per training.

### **Autonomous learning**

The name of autonomous learning often occurs with less or greater content related differences in the professional literature. A few characteristic terms in the works of some well-known researcher or their translations without the claim of completeness appear as follows:

- Autodidact learning (Loránd 1985, Chaix et al. 1992)
- Independent learning (Moore 1983, Cserné 2000)

- Self-development (Telkes 1998)
- Self-directed learning (Knowles 1975, Garisson 1992, Cserné 2000)
- Unintentional learning (mainly during translations)
- Self-education (Durkó 1999, Chaix et al. 1992)
- Self-education, self-training (Durkó 1998, Bernáth 1982, Richter 1989, Vidovszky 1993, 1999)

In Hungarian terminology the notions with the prefix “ön-” (self-) are very widespread. However autonomous learning differs from this interpretation as for its content, but the central principle is identical here too: the claim of an adult personality for self-education is indispensable for any educational content (Durkó 1998).

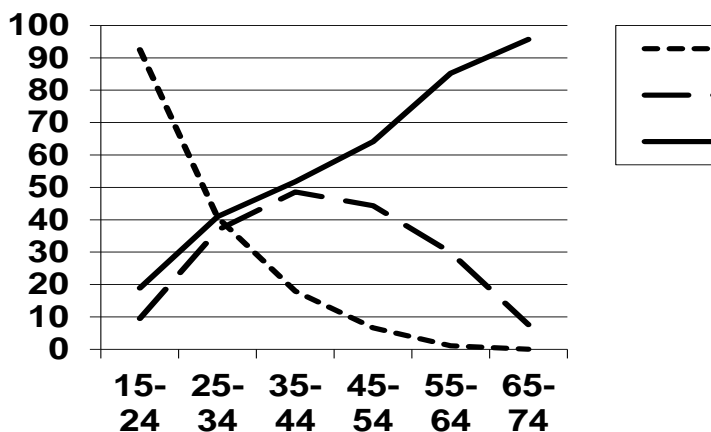
The importance of the topic shows that both international and Hungarian researchers of pedagogy, andragogy and sometimes those of psychology deal with the research and researchability of the topic to a continually growing extent (see Horváth, 2004 review). If we type the notion in Google, we will basically find two kinds of relation. We talk about autonomous learning in robotics, that is developing artificial intelligence on a level where the robot not only returns the contents that have been put in but it is also capable of learning on its own. The other common occurrence is language learning, and to a lesser extent the area of acquiring certain professional competences – in this context it is often mentioned in connection with distance learning and the cooperative methods. As a matter of fact among the researches, the research of autonomous learning is represented in high numbers in learning and acquiring foreign languages, although this is somewhat narrowing the topic to a special field, since according to our hypothesis during autonomous learning the percentage of autonomous learning related to learning foreign languages is quite low. However it could be important to mention some researches of this kind, as we built on their conclusions during the preparation and conducting of our empiric research. The research of Paul Chaix és Charmian’s O’Neil’s research groups belongs to this kind, in the focus of which there stands the study of the importance of self-education in the area of mastering foreign languages (Chaix et al. 1992), or we can draw interesting conclusions from the research of Henri Holey done in the topic of autonomy in learning foreign languages (Holey 1981), and from the autonomous language learning studies of David Little

(Little 1996), as well as from the study of the autonomous learning of the interpreter students of ELTE carried out by Ildikó Horváth in Hungary (Horváth 2004).

Among the autonomous learning researches concerning not only language learning we can highlight the researches of Allen Tough, who carried out nearly 60 studies related to the process of autonomous learning in Australia, United Kingdom, Canada, Ghana, Israel, Jamaica, New Zealand, USA, and Zaire (Tough 1989), or the New Approaches to Lifelong Learning (NALL) research led by David Livingstone at the University of Toronto (Livingstone 1997).

In our country Central Statistical Office has been gathering data on the learning and further training activity of the population between the ages of 15 and 74 since 1997, which was expanded along the specification of the European Union in 2003, participation in lifelong learning was examined in details, in which participation in informal learning also received some role. (KSH 2004).

*Figure 3: The ratio of the participants in formal – non formal – informal training according to age  
(Source: own design based on KSH 2004:9)*



Our earlier statement is verified by the fact that with aging the role of formal training firmly decreases, the forms of non formal trainings come into prominence within the adult population, and this is in parallel with the proportion of the informal learning of young adults



or sometimes it is even surpassed to some extent (compare Juhász 1998), which become dominant as for the middle-aged and elderly adult population through their age characteristics as well.

The fact that the category of the concept is relatively unknown and not always well interpreted justifies that only low learning participation (autonomous leaning can be perceived in 7% of the population between the ages of 15 and 74 altogether) could be detected on this field (KSH 2004:19). From the point of view of our research there is an important conclusion: according to our hypothesis the low figures of the Hungarian statistics on the area of informal learning can mainly be accounted for the fact that the notion of informal and autonomous learning is not known properly by those who filled in the questionnaires, these concepts are not widespread in the society. That is why during our research it was also an important task that we had to make the people taking part in the research understand these basic notions so that we could get relevant and proper data.

In the system of education and adult education, based on all of this, in our research we consider learning all the activities from which the adult expects to contribute to acquiring everything that she or he wants to learn for any reason (whether it is external pressure or learning at home related to formal learning or their own inner motivation). Autonomous learning is when learners initiate learning on their own and they realize an independent, self-directed learning program, they investigate things that they cannot remember well, check their existing knowledge, refresh their earlier acquired knowledge of their own free will. This autonomous learning can be connected to work or learning activities of adults or their hobbies and directly to daily issues whether it is about searching for ways of environmentally conscious energy intakes, renewing our dressing according to the fashion or trying out a new recipe.

### ***The role of autonomous learning***

The role of educational system has a strong character nowadays: it creates its own regulation and inner system on every level and it constantly means to adjust them to the challenges of the modern age. The educational system wants to compete with the expectations of

the state, the demands of the learners, the labour market, financing partners etc. and in this struggle in the constant race it sometimes forgets about some of its crucial tasks. One of the essential tasks of the school is to prepare for life and thus adjusting itself to the challenge of the 21<sup>st</sup> century to prepare the student, learner for lifelong learning (in Hungarian this is Tét (“stake”) coming from the initials of the Hungarian equivalent of the phrase ‘lifelong learning’ – ed. by translator), (see Benedek ed. 2008).

Maybe the most important task of the educational system is to teach how to learn. To learn the abilities and skills which make us capable of learning in the rest of our life and we can cope in the information maze even alone in a self-educating, self-directed way as an autodidact. These skills, or with a more fashionable term: competencies will help us to discover the questions and answers important for us more easily and faster and even in a subconscious way to find the information that is relevant for us. For this there is a wide of tools available, with the help of which we can freely enrich our knowledge: besides libraries and museums that have more traditional values but are often indispensable it is enough to mention the world of media and Internet.

We believe that these pieces of knowledge, skills, competences, which are acquired in an informal, autonomous way, complement the learning, knowledge gaining and expanding competences occurring in the school system and in systems outside the school. Obviously they do not replace each other and it is also in question to what extent the informally acquired knowledge can be and should be channelled into the formal training licences, certificates. In spite of this we think it important that one should be aware of the fact that his or her learning lasts throughout life even if gaining knowledge is not done in an official-formal way, but in an independently organized manner. Making people understand this makes the forms of autonomous learning an undertaking and contributes to improving the life quality of the individual and the whole society. Consequently the fundamental task of the whole educational system is to prepare for the approach and methodology of informal, autonomous learning and this way those of lifelong learning. This claim can also be found in the definition of the key competences of European Union, where learn to learn is one of the highlighted eight key competences, that is by our interpretation “*all the competences that are necessary for*

*organising and regulating, gaining, processing, assessing and absorbing of new knowledge either individually or in groups; the application of these competences in the most varied contexts including problem-solving and learning at home, in educational/training and social environment (Cited by Sz. Tóth 2003).*

If formal and non formal educational system manages the assigned responsibility well, if it teaches us how learn efficiently, how to get informed with the help of different tools, how to make decisions about right or wrong, then we will be efficient autonomous learners. It is an important aspect element that autonomous, self-directed learning is not an “opponent” for the school, but complements it, since we gather information in all of our life, that is we learn informally. We do this when at the weekend on our family we try out the recipe seen during the evening TV program – we learn household skills, if we sing the lyrics of English songs – we developed our English vocabulary and pronunciation, if we plan our trip on the net – we get enriched with touristic information and so on, we could recite more and more examples. The way as the school, the formal educational system undertakes to create the skills of autonomous learning, it can train such active lifelong learners for whom knowledge and the path leading to it is an experience.

### ***The methods and results of the research***

Our research took upon establishing the theoretical foundation and performing empiric testing with working out a questionnaire and an outlined interview, with having at least 1200 questionnaires filled in and also with analysing them and doing interviews as case examples. Our present final report assembled from the research contains the presentation of the main results, for the systematic interpretation of which we present our main research methods by introducing certain researchers whose papers can be read hereinafter.

Our main theoretical research methods consisted of historical studies, theoretical essays and reviews of other researches. Among historical studies we examined the roots and antecedents of informal learning and primarily those of autonomous learning as far as the beginnings by exploring the related tools and methods and the works and

achievements of outstanding masters (from the research group mainly Erika Juhász, Adrienn Tengely). As for Hungarian researchers and professionals, remarkable masters we mainly studied the works of Árpád Petrikás (researched by Anikó Nagy Vargáné) and Mátyás Durkó (researched by Erika Juhász, Edina Márkus, Irma Szabó).

The theoretical essays are mostly notional principles: they got started with the references of formal – non formal – informal learning, adulthood, maturity, adult education – adult training and autonomous learning (researched among others by Katalin R. Forray, Erika Juhász, Sarolta Pordány), then we placed the topic in wider educational systems (primarily Katalin R. Forray, Erika Juhász), and to this we adjusted the searching for legal references and connections by examining the legal basis and the international and national trends detectable in the accountability of non formal and informal learning inviting lawyer colleagues to participate (Márta Takács-Miklósi and Tímea Oszlanczi in the first place).

We considered the research analyses important to look over: what researches were and are being done on similar topics. The most distinguished ones as examples for the international researches are the following: project NALL (studied by Erika Juhász, Adél Kiss) and the researches of David Livingstone (studied by Erika Szirmai). As for the national researches we have taken upon the presentation and review of some presently ongoing researches, such as the research led by Hungarian Folk High School Society on the motives of adult learning (Sz. Tóth ed. 2009), and outlining the OTKA research of the University of Pécs in connection with higher education and informal learning presented by Mónika Balázsovcics). There are some special areas that can be linked with our project, such as the body culture of grandparents-parents-children and autonomous learning Judit Lakó, Herpainé), autonomous learning occurring in tourism (researched by Szilvia Simándi) and the overview of joy training as a method of autonomous learning (to be published by Ildikó Nyilas, Erdeiné).

Our main empiric research methods were questionnaires and interviews, and we collected case examples too – partly during interviews, partly in the course of conversations with focus groups.

The questionnaire was a standard, self-filling questionnaire developed by the research group based on the theoretical researches, discussing the part areas thoroughly. The questionnaire is available

on the website of the research ([www.autonomtanulas.hu](http://www.autonomtanulas.hu)) and we attach it to our paper as appendix, thus here only its main elements are presented. Besides the basic variables, exploring the success and failure of autonomous learning was an important circle of questions, as well as the group of questions referring to the methods, tools, motivation of autonomous learning and to the persistence in learning. The most significant part of the questionnaire was made up from the group of questions assessing the activity of 15 areas of autonomous learning (and there is a 16. “miscellaneous“ area for those which do not belong to any of the previous 15 ones) as a whole and in its detailed contents as well. When assembling the highlighted 15 autonomous learning areas, the research group made the scenes of learning related to any life situation, starting from the definition of autonomous learning. These scenes are as follows:

- Professional knowledge related to paid work
- IT, computer and internet skills
- Foreign language
- Household skills
- Knowledge related to health-preserving and illnesses
- Skills needed to change jobs, find employment
- Knowledge related to financial matters, taxation, legal issues
- Topics concerning politics, history, social issues
- Religious, spiritual and esoteric topics
- Knowledge related to hobbies, free time activities
- Issues of natural science
- Cultural, art studies, artistic activities
- Learning related to doing sports
- Knowledge related to dressing, cosmetics, body care
- Knowledge related to agriculture, livestock breeding, gardening

In the course of the questionnaire survey we could have the questionnaire filled in by 1244 people, where we used both online methods and questionnaires passed on by interviewers. We had three target groups, and in the sample they were represented in three equal parts in a layered way. The three target groups: college and university students from different institutions of higher education, registered job seekers with the cooperation of public employment services, and people attending trainings in institutions of adult

education with the cooperation of the training institutions. (The main results were analysed among others by Katalin R. Forray, Erika Juhász, Judit Herczegh, Zsuzsa Tornyi, Orsolya Tátrai.)

We carried out *deep interviews* too in order to acquire information with deeper content in Budapest, Debrecen, Eger, Pécs. Our aim with this was to present case examples, special situations, that is why we selected heterogeneous target group and possibly special persons for the interviews. Thus we talked to interviewees with more degrees and a doctorate as well job seekers having only 4 grades about their autonomous learning habits and we met several disadvantageous people too: blind, people with movement impairment, Roma, young mothers were all among our respondents. Our method is half-structured interviews made by: Györgyi Forray, Mária Ignác, Edina Márkus, Szilvia Simándi, who also made analyses too. Summarizing reviews were made from these by Erika Juhász, Orsolya Tátrai, Dóra Ilona Fekete.

The publicity of the results of the research mainly means conference presentations and publications. We presented our results e.g. at the VII. Congress of Education in August 2009, at Agria Media Conference in October 2008, at the VIII. National Conference of Education besides our own symposium consisting of five presentations we made poster presentation as well in November 2008, at the II. Taní-tani Conference we had a section of five presentations and two more independent presentations in this topic in Miskolc in February 2009. The summary of the results was presented at a closing conference in Eger, on 20 March 2009. The result appeared in the form of publications in *New Pedagogical Journal* and *Educatio* journals, in a closing volume and on our continually updated website.

### ***Autonomous learning fields and motivation***

One of the hypotheses of our research is that the knowledge, skills, competences gained during autonomous learning complement the learning, knowledge acquisition and expanding competences occurring in the school system and in the systems outside it. Obviously they do not replace each other and it is also in question to what extent the informally acquired knowledge can be and should be channelled into the formal training licences, certificates. In spite of this we think it important that one should be aware of the fact his or her learning lasts throughout life even if gaining knowledge is not done in an official-formal way, but in an independently organized manner. Making people understand this makes the forms of autonomous learning an undertaking and contributes to improving the life quality of the individual and the whole society.

To prove this we would mention some of the elements of our questionnaire survey. Among the respondents as for gender proportions women were overrepresented, since in the sample of 1244 questionnaires there were 809 women and 345 men. As for age classification, the most typical were people born between 1970 and 1990. As far as marital status goes almost half of the respondents are single (43%), 24% are married, 15 % live in partnership, and 8% are divorced. This must be due to the fact that the respondents belonged to the category of young adults. Concerning school qualification we could observe that people with secondary qualification represented the biggest part (47% of the sample belongs here) (Further data: Herczegh – Tornyai 2009.)

The respondents could choose from the 15 (and other) areas what areas they had dealt with autonomously 4 weeks before the filling in on a daily basis or relatively often: 3-4 times per week.

*Table 1: Areas of activity of autonomous learning (n= 1244)  
(total of the results of our research group %)*

<b>Self-directed learning (4 weeks before the fillingin)</b>	<b>Daily %</b>	<b>3-4 times a week %</b>	<b>Total</b>
IT, computer and internet skills	20,0	16,2	36,2
Foreign language	11,6	15,5	27,1
Household skills	10,8	10,6	21,4
Knowledge related to health-preserving and illnesses	6,9	8,9	15,8
Skills needed to change jobs, find employment	7,1	10,2	17,3
Knowledge related to financial matters, taxation, legal issues	5,1	5,7	10,8
Religious, spiritual and esoteric topics	4,7	5,5	10,2
Topics concerning politics, history, social issues	8,3	12,5	20,8
Knowledge related to hobbies, free time activities	12,9	16,7	29,6
Issues of natural science	3,3	4,3	7,6
Culture, art	8,0	12,2	20,2
Sport	5,1	7,7	12,8
Dressing, fashion	7,2	10,1	17,3
Agriculture, botanics, livestock breeding	2,7	4,3	7,0
Professional knowledge related to paid work	18,2	14,5	32,7

An outstandingly high value was given to the autonomous learning related to IT, internet, but during the later detailed questioning it turned out that mainly it is not related to internet itself, but to the autonomous learning done on the net, so computers and the internet came to the fore as a determining tool and one of the popular ways of information gathering. This is followed by the autonomous acquisition of the professional knowledge related to paid work, which is in close connection with the growing demands of the labour



market. In relation to the presently ongoing and planned trainings to be uncovered later it can be felt that those who regularly expand their knowledge connected to their profession (too) in the course of formal and non formal trainings are rather characterised by the autonomous learning linked with paid work, so they can use it to expand the knowledge of their formal and non formal training. These areas are followed by the autonomous learning related to hobby, free time and foreign languages, which shows outstanding values as far as the younger age group is concerned. The data represent well that the demand for social activity, good orientation in social issues and problems is significant in the age group. This is especially perceptible if we add: each and every person of the sample is a continuous autonomous learner, it is done on min. 5 areas from the above mentioned 15 areas.

The awareness for social activity is obvious if we examine the reason why adults start self-directed autonomous learning.

*Table 2: Reasons for starting self-directed learning (n= 1244)*  
*(total of the results of our research group)*

<b>Reasons for starting self-directed learning</b>	<b>Average</b>
1. Expanding and developing already existing knowledge, skill.	4,24
2. Curiosity, intention for clarification.	4,05
3. Immediate utility of the acquired new knowledge, information.	3,97
4. Intention to obtain a certificate, degree.	3,38
5. Intention to earn money.	3,03

Being researchers, we were really happy to see when we were adding up the data that the often audible commonplaces of learning motives did not prove true in the target group: the reason why the respondents learn is not that they want to earn more money and not even to obtain another “paper” (see Polónyi – Tímár 2001). Though these factors received an average value higher than the medium value, much more people considered it important that they should expand their already

existing knowledge, the utility of the new knowledge and what is one of the most important features of the active, adult lifelong learning: satisfying their curiosity

Of course these results do not want to imply for the professionals of education, adult education and the society that we can calmly sit back and enjoy the achievements of the developments. There is a lot to do on the field of preparation for autonomous learning, especially in helping the people with low-level education disadvantaged in other ways too (unemployed, people living on the periphery etc.) to catch up and in creating their real, comprehensive “second” chance.

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**JUDIT HERCZEGH – ORSOLYA TÁTRAI – ZSUZSA ZSÓFIA TORNAY**

***THE CHARACTERISTICS OF AUTONOMOUS LEARNING.  
SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE AUTONOMOUS  
LEARNING OF ADULTS AND YOUNG ADULTS***

Nowadays adult learners face many crossroads – among other things it is also in question whether they should acquire the knowledge necessary and sometimes indispensable for their way of living in a formal or an informal way. The process of independent learning, autonomous learning and informal learning were gradually moved to the centre of interest by the highly developed infocommunication tools of our century, the variety of school equipment and the constantly changing scenes of learning. This area is a renewable source of research both from the aspects of methodology, social science and sociology of education thanks to the spreading of internet, other computer technologies and media besides the traditional paper-based education.

‘In the recent decades the researches of robotechnics and artificial intelligence have confirmed the revival of researches focusing on autonomous learning. Also, issues related to independent learning are more and more frequent in the Hungarian publications of andragogy’ (Pordány 2007).

Usually learning is considered to mean studies in courses or within school education, however people learn many things independently, on their own free will. In this case they make plans of their own, come up with a short- or a long-term, a simple or a complicated program, then they start reading, making notes, practising – that is doing something to realize their self-development program. So we talk about autonomous learning when learners start to learn by themselves and carry out an autonomous and self-directed program (Juhász 2008).

### ***The background of the empiric research***

The so called Adult autonomous learning and the process of commitment to improving mastery of a subject (OTKA K63555) research – implemented between 2006-2008, in the collaboration of the University of Debrecen, Eszterházy Károly College and University of Pécs, with the management of Katalin Forray R. as the leader of the research and Erika Juhász as fellow researcher – examined the above outlined process of autonomous learning.

The aim of the research was to measure the success of autonomous learning and to work out the methods that are needed to analyse this area – in this essay we would like to present the empirical background of this research. The research is aimed at the exploration of the causes and relations of the start of learning, firm learning, and the drop-out of students using qualitative and quantitative methods. To reveal the motivation and the commitment of to improving master of a subject, interviews were made with a group of students. The goal of the research was to measure the autonomous learning and to test the methods that are needed for the analysis (Forray-Juhász 2008).

The survey form of the research was based on a wider sense of learning – according to this we reckon every activity that is thought to be helpful to get to know something we want to attain for some reason, as learning.

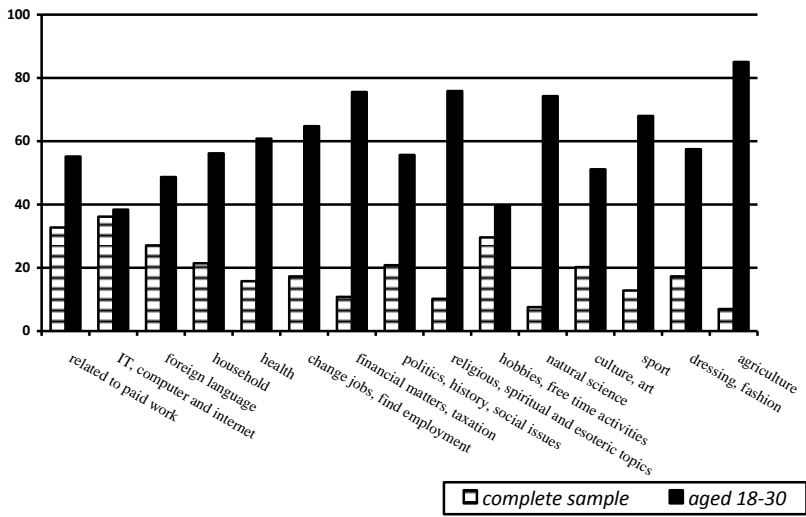
With the survey (based on internet and paper too) we researched the experiences related to autonomous learning of 1244 persons aged 18-64.

We divided the characteristics of adult learners into 10 social-cultural researching areas: Gender, Age, Residence, Marital status, Qualification, Occupation, Position, Motivations of learning, Further aims of learning, Characteristics of autonomous learning, Determinants of learning.

As far as the gender ratio is concerned women are overrepresented in the empiric research, since there are 809 women and 345 men in the questionnaire sample. As for the age classification of the interviewees, the adults between the ages of 18 and 30 (those who were born between 1978 and 1990) constitute the biggest part (53,9%, 670 persons). Regarding marital status nearly half of the interviewees are single (43%), 24% are married, 15% of them live in partnership and 8% are divorced. The proportional figures of the

school qualification show that secondary qualifications are in majority<sup>1</sup>  
During the research we chose 15 essential fields of learning, along which we could assess the frequency of the independent learning process of the interviewees.

Figure 1: The ratio of the participants of regular (at least 3-4 times a week) autonomous learning in the complete sample and in the sample of aged 18-30 (%)



The time span of the learning activity pursued on the examined areas was maximized in four weeks preceding the survey, therefore we could eliminate the time differences and the tracking difficulties of possible learning processes of the past. In the table above we can see the highlighted areas which form an integral part of our everyday life and which in most cases make people acquire knowledge informally. Looking at the complete sample we can state that the frequency of autonomous learning activities can be ranked as follows starting with the activity done the most frequently: (1) IT, (2) professional knowledge related to paid work, (3) hobbies, (4) foreign languages. It is important for us to mention that concerning the age group of 18-



30 these areas seem less emphatic, whilst they mostly develop skills in a self-directed way on fields which are the least popular as far as the complete sample is concerned, such as: (1) gardening, livestock breeding, (2) religion, (3) finance and law, (4) sport. Not only are the autonomous learning areas distinctive, but also the differences between the proportion of people participating in regular autonomous learning, which among other things can be due to the fact that most adults under the age of 30 are still students, so they have a rather flexible time schedule and basically more free time (Livingstone 2001).

The tools used for the realization of the learning program perfectly reflect the technical ambiguity of our days; computers and internet have a leading role besides books. It seems that the entertaining function of media is more dominant in improving the individual learning processes than their educating character and nature to pass on knowledge.

### ***Success and failure in the process of autonomous learning***

We can say that in independent learning, if possible, the individual motivation gets an even more accented role and failure and success are crucial concerning the later learning processes. The success gained in an autonomous way can generate attempts to use the mastered knowledge professionally, in many cases we start informal learning complementing and promoting formal education, while in other cases enthusiasm and curiosity join the learning process as driving forces (Márkus-Juhász 2008).

When examining the learning areas we can meet the experience of success and failure in the process of independent learning; many times the same areas can be found at both the negative and positive pole as in the case of learning a foreign language and the autonomous learning aiming at extending one's computer or IT skills.

The interviewees reached success in learning such areas as sport, stress management, gastronomy, car driving, household management and design and areas related to music.

We will go into further explanation concerning two areas: knowledge related to expanding IT and language skills.

*Table 1: The learning process connected to electronic information carriers were analysed as follows*

<b>Independent learning areas related to IT and computers</b>	<b>Complete sample</b>	<b>Aged 18-30</b>
hardware related issues	31,1%	37,4%
using new softwares	49,4%	60,5%
more efficient use of already known softwares	48,8%	62,2%
searching for information or making it more efficient	45,7%	56,7%
e-mailing or new ways of keeping contact	46,3%	54,8%
learning downloading or making it more efficient	44,6%	54,8%
usage related to work/studies or making it more efficient	58,3%	69,1%
online cultural games	34,6%	46,6%
electronic administration	38,7%	49,1%

As we can see both in the complete sample and the sample of aged 18-30 the areas marked by most people are related to acquiring and deepening the knowledge of the usage of new and already known softwares. The most accentuated is extending the efficiency of the knowledge related to work and studies, which is not accidental, since computers and internet form an essential part of individual work in almost all sectors just like in learning (Tapscott 2008; Webster 2002).

The importance of knowing foreign languages can be connected to this. Among the selectable languages the world language, English is represented in an outstanding proportion (60.6% of the interviewees and 73.4% of young adults learn this language). It is followed by German with 28.8% and in the case of young adults 42%, and French with 7.2% and 10.3%, then other languages together with 24.7% and 33.3%, such as Spanish, Italian, Russian, Dutch and any other possibly emerging languages.

*Table 2: During the independent language learning the following areas appear*

<b>Independent learning areas related to foreign languages</b>	<b>Complete sample</b>	<b>Aged 18-30</b>
Vocabulary building	63,4 %	77,7%
Improving writing skills	33,6 %	46,1%
Developing speech comprehension	53,9 %	68,5%
Conversation practice	47,8 %	61,1%
Facts and figures of countries	29,2 %	36,1%
Preparing for language exams, filling in tests	27,2 %	39,6%
Listening to music in a foreign language	55,9 %	72,4%
Watching films in a foreign language	49,0 %	64,9%
Reading in a foreign language	42,7 %	56,6%
Developing reading skills	38,2 %	51,1%
Developing pronunciation	42,1 %	55,4%
Developing grammar	39,5 %	53,2%

Owing to the preference of the electronic and paper-based learning forms vocabulary building gets a definitely leading role, which is followed by listening to music in a foreign language, developing speech comprehension, then watching films in a foreign language. Whilst the process of vocabulary building can be accomplished both electronically and in a paper-based form, the later mentioned areas certainly support learning with IT-electronic background. Looking at it from another side, the leading role of English also appears in the usage of electronic equipment, since the language of computer is English (Little 1996).

So we can see that although we examine these two areas separately and emphasized, still there are considerable interwinings and overlaps in them.

### ***Why do we learn independently and how?***

In the following section on the basis of the received answers we will present and rank the individual forces that made people start autonomous learning. In contrast with the above described things these results are the same both in the complete sample and in the sample of the age group of 18-30.

<b>Reasons for starting independent learning</b>	<b>Average</b>	
	<b>Complete sample</b>	<b>Aged 18-30</b>
1. Extending, improving already existing knowledge.	4,24	4,18
2. Curiosity, intention of clarification.	4,05	4,08
3. Instant utility of the newly gained knowledge and information.	3,97	3,95
4. Intention of receiving a certificate, degree.	3,38	3,63
5. Intention of making money.	3,03	3,24

It is obvious that the economic interests are the least motivating as for independent learning, and the transformation of the knowledge gained informally into a formal value is not dominant either. What really drives us is on one hand the necessity of acquiring up-to-date knowledge with instant usability, on the other hand craving for knowledge, discovering the unknown and a deeper understanding of our already existing skills (Simándi-Juhász 2008). It seems that these motivational factors may become inner values in people wishing to learn and generate a real desire for knowledge.

<b>Motivations, attitudes related to learning</b>	<b>Average</b>	
	<b>Complete sample</b>	<b>Aged 18-30</b>
1. I want to expand my knowledge by my own learning style and methods	3,72	3,73
2. I like to plan the details of my learning	3,61	3,68
3. I can learn more comfortably if don't have to watch others.	3,51	3,54
4. I like learning, that's why I always learn something.	3,49	3,33
5. The missing skills I learnt independently don't require organized training.	3,15	3,14
6. I don't have enough money to take part in paid trainings.	3,04	3,12
7. I don't have time to take part in organized group trainings.	2,77	2,78
8. I wanted to start learning right away, I didn't want to wait until I can join an organized form of education.	2,67	2,67
9. I don't like the formal classroom atmosphere controlled by the teacher.	2,34	2,35
10. I don't know any courses where I'd be interested in something they teach.	2,20	2,22
11. I would have difficulties with the traffic, communication.	2,15	2,20

The choice of the form of autonomous learning is strengthened by the independence, the freedom of the choice of the tools and venues and the possibility of individual creative learning. Furthermore the scene of the informal learning is also important, which is not subordinated to the scheduling and transparency of formal trainings.

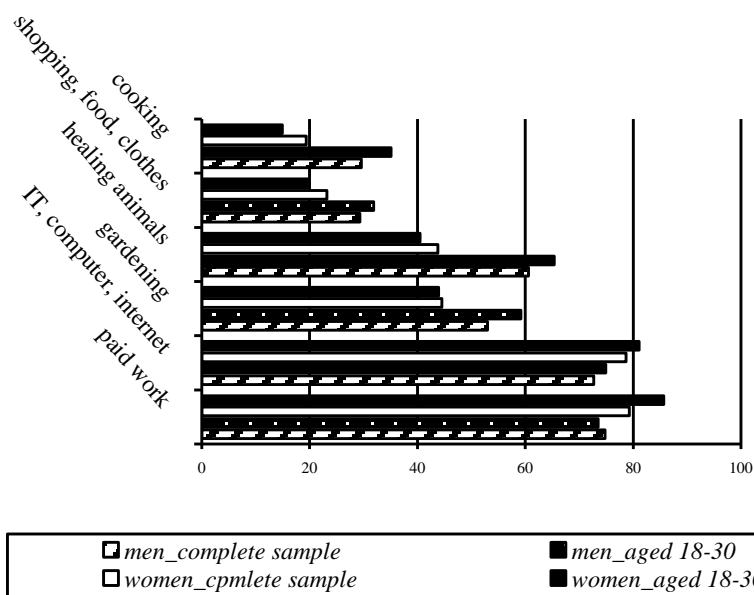
### ***Gender differences in autonomous learning***

The differences between men and women can be found in their relation with autonomous learning too. However there are two opposing theories to explain this: one with biological-genetical background and another one with psychological-sociological roots.

According to the first theoretical conception the biological difference and hence the social distinction are predetermined, whilst the second explanation states that the differences are not inevitable: they can be taken back to the socialization in childhood and the impact of social environment (Andorka 2001, Kendall 2003). Yet the interpretation and the evaluation of this difference and the conclusions derived from it have been in the centre of discussion for a long time. Nevertheless it is evident that men and women are in different social situations. Apart from a few exceptions it was the duty of women to be a homemaker, to look after the children and the task of men was to support, protect the family, work in the society and fulfill the work received during the communal division of labour (Csaba 1985; Czeizel 1985).

In our research we also encountered the following result: the two genders have a different approach to autonomous, independent learning. Not only is their relation to the areas of learning different, but also the process of learning: the explanation of the given results can be originated in the differences coming from attaining the traditional gender roles, namely both genders strive to reach a deeper understanding of the areas which are “further” from them; or the value of learning is different: it seems probable that they do not consider skills that were built in the everyday life of the two genders during socialization as learning.

Figure 2: The ratio of the participants of autonomous learning per gender in the complete sample and in the sample of aged 18-30 (%)



As our table also reveals both in the complete sample and in the case of young adults (aged 18-30) the ratio of answers of men and women is different in the different areas of learning. The proportion of women is higher in relation to autonomous learning connected to paid work and concerning IT and computer related informal learning as well. The change of the labour market is also represented in the results: since technology made physical work secondary nowadays, the intellectual potentials became crucial, which is not characteristic of a gender, but that of an individual (Livingstone 2002).

On the other hand the ratio of men is higher in autonomous learning forms related to health preserving, gardening, looking after animals and shopping. And another remarkable example: all in all men learn more in an autonomous way as for cooking, cleaning, nursing and upbringing children.

The latter needs further explanation: on the basis of earlier studies we approached the division of labour within the family and the issue of having and upbringing children from the aspects of the

expectations and roles of society. As Endre Czeizel (1985) states in his essay: the fundamentally different roles of men and women in reproduction are beyond question: pregnancy is a monopoly of women. The role of motherhood is not only biological; it is a socially determined, learned function. Baby boys and girls are treated differently from their birth: girls are more often pampered when they are little, they get different toys, and are treated differently in the family, school and in most situations of life. This is the reason why these roles are mostly not conscious, but come across as inner urges. As a result of the socialization process the grown-up children will acquire the valid norms as stereotypes from their family, school and environment (Stockard 2003). Due to this boys and men in European cultures are more aggressive, while girls and women are more sensitive, emphatic and gentle. As Kendall (2003:341) says: "According to gender stereotypes men and women are different as for their personal qualities, behaviour and aspirations. Stereotypes define men as strong, rational, dominant, independent and less interested in their appearance while women are weak, emotional, caring, who are subordinated and worry about their look." However it is undeniable that the biological and psychological differences between men and women serve the sustaining of human life after all (Andorka 2001; Csaba 1985; Czeizel 1985). For that very reason it is surprising that our results show men learn activities classically associated with women such as housekeeping, cooking, cleaning, upbringing children in a more significant proportion, but it is conceivable that men only adapted themselves to the altered conditions and changing gender roles.

### ***Concluding remarks***

In our nationwide research we analysed a form of adult learning in which adults initiated learning themselves and carry out a directed, independent learning program. We considered each answer of the interviewees concerning independent learning and it has been found that though there are some differences as far as the ways and forms of autonomous learning are concerned, we discovered normalities, such as uniformity in case of success and failure and we came upon interesting results when examining the two genders, which would deserve further contemplation, like the autonomous learning related to household and computers, which differ from the usual pattern.



To sum up, it can be stated that one of the most significant establishments of our research is that in the process of autonomous learning the individual can draw away from the strict rules of formal framework and can realize their freedom of acquiring knowledge to the greatest extent. Since it is us that chose the tool, aim, content thus contributing to our individual self-fulfilment.

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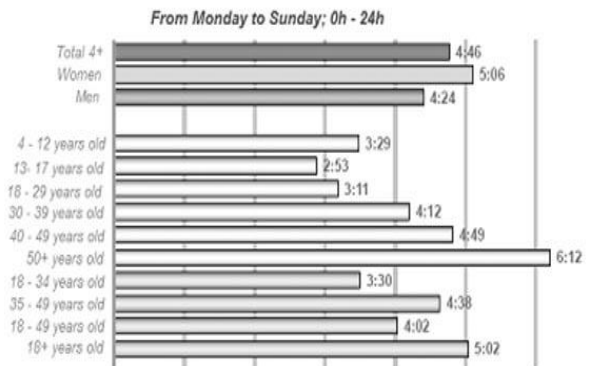
**ATTILA ZOLTÁN KENYERES**

**THE APPEARANCE OF THE INFORMATIVE FUNCTION IN THE  
HUNGARIAN, THE GERMAN AND IN THE AUSTRIAN NEWSREEL**

***Introduction***

It is usual in industrially advanced societies that the devices of mass communication are present everywhere and that they have a serious effect on people's everyday lives; on their free time and on their time spent on working as well. In nowadays' mediated world, people are surrounded with gadgets in connection with electric communication: the radio, the television and of course the computers and the Internet. These devices –principally the TV which is present in every household- play a particularly important role in the flow of information. The events not presented in the television are almost as they don't even exist (Kozma, 2006). There are a couple of possible explanations of the increasingly significant role of the mass communication establishments and the mass media, the literature on the topic stays that it is caused by changes in technology and society. On the one hand, the advancing technology made it possible for the messages of the media to reach more and more people. A similar type of technological advance in the industrial sector caused mechanization in production, and this phenomenon supported the increase in the amount of free time of advanced countries' habitants. By the usage of more and more advanced machinery the time spent on working became less and less (Vitányi, 2006). And people are spending the obtained free time with the reception of the contents of mass communication devices (watching TV, listening to radio, Internet, reading newspapers) in an extending ratio. This process was catalysed by the changes in society, people becoming more and more individual, living isolated from each other trying to socialize by the contents of the media. (Wessely, 2003). The television nowadays is one of most popular communication devices. If we only look at the example of Hungary, based on researches made by AGB Nielsen we can say that over the age of 4 the population spends 4 hours and 46 minutes a day sitting in front of the screens. (1<sup>st</sup> illustration)

Whole year of 2011 - The daily average of the time spent on watching television



As the population watches TV in most of its free time, it is advisable to examine that how useful is this for them, how much do they learn, what knowledge do they acquire from the information seen and heard on the TV.

### ***The informative functions of television newsreels***

The devices of mass communication are able to take a serious effect on the receivers' consciousness and on their mental ideas. To prove this statement, we only have to start up from that a major part of the things we know we never experienced personally but we got our information on them because we seen, heard, or read stories about them. This is pointed by Gerbner, who thinks that things we cannot perceive directly are decoded in arts, science, stories etc. By these stories the members of society interiorize their sexual, age, social, occupational and lifestyle roles. Nowadays the role of the „story-teller” belongs to mass communication devices, particularly the television (Gerbner, 1996). Császi says almost the same, he thinks that the media is the “electronic folklore” of nowadays' society and that people are as oriented, informed, entertained, ruled, criticised and motivated by the media as they are by the oral folklore (Császi 2002). In connection with this there is the phenomenon of the orientation which, according to Ahmed occurs when someone receives information from the television. People consider contents of television points of orientation which guide and orientate them in their everyday life. (Ahmed, 2006). The media's role in socialization,

learning, and in informing was also highlighted by the so called MacBride report, which was created back in 1980 by experts assigned by the UN. According to the document the five important functions of mass communication are information-orientation, representation of debate and discussion, socialization, culture and education (developing and forming our understanding of culture and art, the taste and knowledge of an individual and conserving the cultural heritage). The fifth function is entertainment (UNESCO, 1980). The socializing function of the media is also emphasized by Agrawal, who states that this function primarily applies on the youth for example when learning languages and on the acquisition of the various cultural symbols. At the same time he sees the television as a form of education which can help to fill the huge gap between the study rates of elite and non-elite schools' students (Agrawal, 2000). In Buckingham's opinion the media is educational and this nature of it applies on newsreel, the shows on Discovery Channel and even on Jerry Springer Show or Pokémon. He sees the media as an informal school system (Buckingham, 2003). Thumim also conceives similar, he writes that even back in the 1950's the perception of program production was to make the TV teach, inform, and advertise. He lists a couple of TV series which gives useful information while entertaining its audience. He sees the "Dixon" as one of these, written by two policemen giving useful pieces of advice for the population about home security for example. This way the perception that the television is teaching and entertaining at the same time was realized. This can be connected to the paternalist hypothesis which states that popular entertainment is able to teach and can be used for a greater good (Thumim, 2006). Crisell emphasizes this paternalist principle in connection with the BBC mentioning that one of the main purposes of the radio station was to tutor the listeners (Crisell, 2006).

Zrinszky reckons the media among the educational domains. He defines educational domain as a narrowed education, when we take out the school education from the subject of upbringing and in which the amount of fully new content is lower than in school education (Zrinszky, 2006) Benedek has a similar opinion, he thinks that the development info-communicational devices formed a social practice which is spontaneous still it can have a significant effect on informal and non-formal learning thereby on everyday knowledge (Benedek, 2006). In Hungary the examination of the role of TV programmes in

learning was led by Katalin R. Forray and Erika Juhász in 2006. During this research 1200 adult (25-64 years old) were asked about their own experience about learning via an Internet questionnaire. The research was called *“The autonomous learning of adulthood and the knowledge- correctional commitment”* and it was financed by the OTKA. They defined autonomous learning as *“The process of learning is initiated by the learners, who achieve a self-sufficient and controlled learning program; investigate things which they cannot recall, check their extant knowledge on a personal decision. This autonomous learning can be connected to the adults’ working or learning activities as well as to their hobby and everyday life, be it about renewing their clothing style or trying a new recipe (Forray – Juhász, 2008:16).* During the research they also examined the television’s role in autonomous learning comparing it to other media like DVD, Internet and the radio. The questioned had to grade that how many times they use these devices for the purpose of autonomous learning on a scale 1 to 5. Seventeen per cent of the participants used mostly the TV, 54 per cent used the television more or less (they given the answers 2-3-4) to gather information, the remaining 29 per cent however completely declined the TV as a device for learning purposes (Kenyeres, 2009). In our current analysis we picked the newsreel from TV programmes to examine its informative function. The newsreel’s main purpose is to inform the population. According to Szabó they publish news in order to help the receivers understand the environment (personal, national, international) surrounding them. At the same, the socialization effect creates a sort of common knowledge possessed by the receivers who can use this to become useful members of the society and get involved in public life. School education on the other hand means the transmission of knowledge needed to intellectual advance, to form personality, to acquire expertise and skills in every stage of life (Széles – Szabó – Rozgonyi – Ballai, 2011). Although the main purpose of TV news is to inform people about the most important internal and external events, they also got the other functions of mass communication devices, such as socializing and informative functions. The examination of these is relevant because according to surveys by Szonda Ipsos, 96 per cent of Hungarian population older than 14 watches some kind of newsreel at least occasionally. By the ratio of daily viewers in Hungary the most popular TV newsreel is broadcasted by RTL Klub (28%) on the second place there is “Tények” (Facts), the newsreel of TV2 (20%) and the third place

belongs to m1 (11%). Among the viewers of the RTL Klub newsreel women, people between ages 50 and 59, people who live in chief towns of counties, skilled workers and workers with blue colour jobs are overrepresented. At the same time the news of TV2 is watched by mostly village people and people over the age of 60. Newsreel of m1 is monitored by men and women over 50 and people under 40 are underrepresented. By the survey we can say that newsreels on m1, ATV and Duna TV are watched mostly by elderly people and who do intellectual work. The most of Hungarian youth however do not pay attention to any of the big channels' news. (Szonda Ipsos, 2012). The reason for this is not clear right now, so we don't exactly know whether they ignore these TV programmes because they are not interested in the news of the world or simply because they got their intelligence from other sources (for example from the Internet). TV newsreel usually broadcast news by its original meaning: they are about an event and they are topicalities. According to the simplest classic definition, the news have to answer 5 questions: who, when, what, where, why did somebody something. There is a possibility for an additional question to occur, this question is "how?" but this is mostly asked at reports, when the journalist on the scene explains the event more detailed. According to Zsolt's definition all information which is actual, seemingly detached, containing something new and in which lots of people are interested and/or is able to make changes on people's life are called news. He emphasizes that the most important function of news is to inform society, to integrate members of society and to prioritize the matters of society (Zsolt, 2005). So the essence of news is that it always tells about an event. In Campenau's opinion, from the aspect of journalism every action is an event which takes place in the society or is in connection with it and informing is the action which is sued to inform society or individuals about events (Campenau, 1972). According to Gripsrud, news are facts, simple descriptions of information and they can appear in a narrative form. (Gripsrud, 2002). During our research we examined that how emphasized is the informative function above simply telling facts in a TV newsreel. The news unit is always about an event. Applied specifically on newsreels, events are *"Those events of the world what the media notices and finds them worthy of telling based on their value as news."* (ORTT, 2007:5). During the analysis then we examine news units which always tell about an event, always representing it. News units *"All the parts of the*

*newsreels which make coherent units based on the identity (continuity, connection, cohesion) of the topic (besides: the event, the scene, the time, the participants, the public affairs concerned)” (ORTT, 2007:5)* By this we considered reports (no matter if the interviewee had a role or not), short news only read by the presenter or the editor (No matter if there was visual support or not), live broadcastings and short studio talks with invited experts as news units. It was not a purpose of our research to examine “classic” news; -news by their original meaning- so we ignored political, economic, tabloid news and those which are in connection with police, ambulance and other authorities. Instead of them we concentrated on news units which we call “analytic”. The analytic news unit’s purpose is a detailed analysis of any topic revealing reasons, connections and it is based on a scientific research, any other survey, or on the own research of the editors. Usually it reviews trends, processions, social phenomena, customs of the population or scientific discoveries. Analytic news unit is always self-sufficient so it does not connect to a previous news unit (we categorized this type of news unit in the category of background). Another feature of the analysing news unit that it is not always about a particular event, so from this point of view we cannot even call it news, because it does not always answer the five question in the definition (who, when, where, what, why). An analysing news unit concentrates on questions “why” and “how” so it does more than simply telling the facts because it gives additional information, reveals connections, gives benchmarks and also knowledge. Consequently if a news unit is only about that gasoline is more expensive from tomorrow, even if it adds information about why is it but only in one sentence – it is only an informative piece of news. On the other hand, if it details that how great is this rise in prices compared to the same season of the previous year and how expensive is the gasoline in Hungary compared to the countries surrounding us; then we categorized it as an analysing unit of news. News of general interest which give some practical pieces of advice for the audience so their informative function is emphasized are also categorized as analysing units. This type of news can give advice about Internet security, how can people defend their personal data from data thieves or about expenditure management e.g. how can people decrease the amount of money they spend on heating their houses. While doing the research we also touched on the source of a unit of news. These sources can based on



statistics, when the editors ask experts about the results of some statistics (about unemployment, economic data, prices, salaries, inflation). They can be based on researches and surveys when the editors present the topic based on information gained from a research or monograph made by an establishment. These monographs not only give statistical numbers but they reveal connections too. At last it can be results of the searching of the editors, when they go after some actual topic and ask experts, then make an analysis themselves. In TV newsreels, analysing units of news are not the only ones with significant informative function. We also looked at units of news that told about topics in connection with consumer protection (most importantly when they analysed dangerous food) since they also contain useful information. We consider news about cultural life or those that mention historical background analysing units of news too. News about scientific discoveries were also treated as analysing units of news and we looked on the frequency of news about school education. Moreover, news about environmental problems also have informative purposes. Of course this categorisation cannot be univocal since occasionally any other type of news can give useful information. For example news about a car accident can tell about the dangers of slippery roads, or the recent accident of the luxury liner when everybody learned that a ship mustn't go that close to the shore, because it can easily wreck, and so on and so forth. In this research we did not examine the informative function of news like these, but if the news were about the necessary actions people have to do in order to stay safe in the case of such accident were considered as informative pieces of news.

### ***Information in Hungarian, German and Austrian TV newsreels***

The research was based on content analysis. The research samples were the most popular commercial and public service TV newsreels broadcasted in prime time throughout a full month, 31 days (January, 2012). These were the following: The Hungarian public service channel 1's (M1) "Híradó", the Austrian public service channel's (ORF) "Zeit im Bild", the German public service channel 1's (ARD) "Die Tagesschau" the Hungarian RTL Klub's "Híradó", the German RTL's "Aktuell", and the Austrian ATV's "ATV Aktuell". We chose these programmes for analysis because Austria is Hungary's

neighbour and the two countries have got a very serious historical connection caused by the time spent together in the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Still our western neighbour is economically much more advanced than us so we assume that there is a difference regarding the topics that are considered important. Another reason for this choice is that Austria's public service channel is accessible in Hungary via satellite so we could record the newsreel. This is not true about the commercial ATV; we were only able to track the newsreel of this channel using the Internet. About Germany, they are the most important foreign trade partner of Hungary and the relationship between the two countries is traditionally good. In this case both channels (public service channel, and commercial RTL too) are accessible in Hungary so we had not got any problem with the recording. Because of this there is a possibility of comparison regarding both the German and Austrian channels. A minor reason for the choice is the interest in Austrian and German culture and society from the researcher himself. Throughout the 31 days we examined a sum of 186 newsreels with 2461 units of news in them. We construed them with quantitative content analysis concentrating only on the topics concerned by the units of news. This was refined – wherever it was needed- with qualitative observations. It is because it is not always sure that the unit is about what its title suggests thus it cannot be categorized correctly. One unit can belong to more than one category. For example the topic of a unit analysing the status of a country can be put in economic category (if it is about the effects of monetary crisis) but it can be considered political too (if it tells about the balance of political forces). Moreover one particular topic can be discussed in various types of news. School education may be mentioned in analysing news, but it also can have a place within the news in connection with the police (e.g. school shootings) or amongst the political news. In the first chart we survey the ratio of analysing news in all units of news of each TV channel, and the ratio of topics with informative function. These topics are the following: cultural news, appearance of school and education, units of news with historical information, news about science and new discoveries of science, news about environment/environmental problems and units of news that discuss weather phenomena.

*Table 1: The ratio and appearance of various  
topics amongst all the news (%)  
(Source: own calculations)*

Country	Germany		Austria		Hungary	
Channel	RTL	ARD	ATV	ORF	RTL Klub	M1
Type of channel	commercial	public service	commercial	public service	commercial	public service
Newsreel	RTL Aktuell	Die Tagesschau	ATV Aktuell	Zeit im Bild	Híradó	Híradó
Ratio of analysing units of news	18,21 %	9,06%	9,03 %	15,27 %	7,69 %	6,84 %
Frequency of the appearance of culture	0,27 %	0,97 %	0,69 %	7,16 %	3,11 %	1,34 %
Frequency of the appearance of school and education	2,11 %	0,32%	3,47 %	1,43 %	2,13 %	2,00 %
Frequency of the appearance of history	1,32 %	1,62 %	0 %	0,47 %	0,33 %	1,67 %
Frequency of the appearance of science/scientific life	2,37 %	0 %	0 %	0,24 %	0,16 %	0,67 %
Frequency of the appearance of environment/weather	2,37 %	1,29 %	3,47 %	1,90 %	0,65 %	1,67 %

The data in the first chart shows that the German RTL was the channel which broadcasted *analysing news* in the greatest ratio; it bested even the public service channels. The smallest ratio of analysing news belongs to the Hungarian public service channel, the frequency of these types of news on M1 is only slightly more than a third of the German RTL and only a half of the Austrian public service channel. It is interesting that the commercial RTL broadcasted analysing news twice as much as the public service channel in Germany. That was the biggest difference between a given country's two channels. Among the public service channels, the Austrian ORF is the strongest on the field of analysing news, and as it was mentioned above, the M1 was the weakest. To sum up we can say that both in the category of commercial and public service, Hungarian channels broadcasted the least analysing news. The

biggest amount of news connected to culture was broadcasted by the Austrian public service channel's newsreel; almost seven per cent of all news was about culture. The German RTL Aktuell was the "least-cultural" newsreel in the month, the ratio of cultural news on the programme was only a tenth of the amount broadcasted by Hungarian RTL. Both in commercial and public service category, German newsreels were the least concerned about culture in the month examined. Austrian Aktuell was the newsreel which broadcasted news about education and school most frequently and the German public service channel did it most rarely. Most of these units of news were about school and connected topics (parking around the school, difficulties with approach) a small part of them told about crimes (e.g. school shooting). We can say that news about school or education were more frequent in the newsreels of commercial channels than in the newsreels of public service channels. About history the Hungarian and German public service channels said the most, while the Austrian ATV said the least; they completely ignored history throughout the sample month. In connection with history, the most frequent topics were about anniversaries, commemorations and trials of events in the past. RTL Aktuell seemed the most interested in science, since they were the ones who broadcasted the most about new scientific discoveries and science in general. It is followed by the Hungarian M1, but with a much smaller ratio. In German ARD's and Austrian ATV's newsreels there is a complete lack of this type of news. In general, this topic was very rare in the examined newsreels in January 2012. News in connection with weather and environment were present in all newsreels. The first place belongs to Austrian ATV Aktuell, the last to Hungarian RTL. It is interesting that the German RTL broadcasted about this topic three times more than the Hungarian. However it is worth examining which topics were highlighted in analysing news at each newsreel during the research. (Table 2)

*Table 2: The ratio of appearance of each topic amongst the analysing units of news(It is possible that more than one topic appears in a single unit)(%)*  
*(Source: own calculations)*

Country	Germany		Austria		Hungary	
Channel	RTL	ARD	ATV	ORF	RTL Klub	M1
Type of channel	commercial	public service	commercial	public service	commercial	public service
Newsreel	RTL Aktuell	Die Tagesschau	ATV Aktuell	Zeit im Bild	Híradó	Híradó
The appearance of analyzingof social phenomenas, problems and constums of the population	60,86 %	28,57 %	53,85 %	29,68 %	27,08 %	29,27 %
The appearance of analyzing of the actual situation in foreign countries	10,14 %	28,57 %	7,69 %	21,88 %	0,00 %	4,87 %
The appearance of consumer protection	1,44 %	10,71 %	15,38 %	1,56 %	0 %	2,44 %
The appearance of school and education	7,25 %	3,57 %	23,08 %	4,68 %	8,33 %	2,44 %
The appearance of environment and weather	2,9 %	0 %	7,69 %	3,13 %	6,25 %	4,87 %
The appearance of public health	15,94%	3,57 %	23,08 %	12,5 %	16,67 %	2,44 %
The appearance of animals	2,9 %	0 %	0 %	0 %	0 %	0 %

From the data in chart 2 we can read that analysing news in the newsreels of examined channels were mostly about social phenomena and problems, about the customs of the population. On the field of social phenomena, German RTL excels, while the Hungarian RTL were which broadcasted the least about this topic. Analysis of the actual situation in different foreign countries appeared most in German and Austrian news programs. After these matters comes the topic of economy which was broadcasted most frequently in Hungarian newsreels. Topics of health and education was mentioned in all newsreels, Austrian ATV has the gold medal in both category, while Hungarian public service channel seems the least interested in the topic. It is interesting that animals were only mentioned in the newsreel of German RTL. The topic of consumer protection was discussed on the German public service channel and on the Austrian ATV. The ARD told about criticised medicine, chicken meat with antibiotics and an analysis of the food's quality while ATV made reports about goods ordered from Asia via the Internet and about the dangers of "party trips" offered for students doing their A levels. Hungarian RTL did not mention this topic in the month examined, the German RTL, the ORF and the Hungarian public service channel broadcasted about this topic in almost the same – very little – amount. News about school and education got bigger role in newsreels of the commercial channels particularly on Austrian ATV. Among the public service channels, the Austrian ORF were the most eager to inform the audience about this topic. On ATV the following news were presented: the so called "party trips" offered for students doing their A levels are dangerous, the food offered in Austrian school buffets are unhealthy many children have to wake up too early to get to their school in time in Steiermark province and they analysed the possible countermeasures for mobile phones used for cheating on A level exams in connection with a school director who wanted to plant interference devices in the school which block mobile phones, for the time of the A levels. RTL Aktuell is interested in students free time activities, parking around the schools, the school built on Haiti and the problems concerning the education of illegal immigrants. Hungarian RTL broadcasts about the decreasing number of students that can possibly added to universities, possibilities to higher education in Austria, the withdrawal of educational benefits and about analysis of the increase of expenditure concerning university students. ORF analysed the number of women between teachers and possible countermeasures for

mobile phones used for cheating on A level exams in connection with a school director who wanted to plant interference devices in the school which block mobile phones, for the time of the A levels plus they analysed the unhealthy food offered in school buffets. ARD made a comparison between the labour market values of BA and MA degrees. M1 told about the decrease in the possible maximum number of students that can be added to Hungarian universities. About the protection of the environment and the weather the most units of news were broadcasted by two commercial channels, the Austrian ATV and Hungarian RTL. Then comes Hungarian M1 and the Austrian public service channel. German RTL Aktuell broadcasted this type of news on half as much as Austrian ATV, and the German public service channel did not broadcasted a single report on this topic. To sum up, it was most common in Hungarian newsreels and most rare in the German ones. About the status of public health the three commercial channels gave the most information. In both categories (commercial and public service) Austrian channels broadcasted the news connected to this topic in the greatest ratio. Hungarian and German RTL has almost the same results (around sixteen per cent) and Hungarian and German public service channels are also equal in the field of news about health concern though in a significantly smaller ratio compared to the commercial channels. We can say that Austrian newsreels told the most about this topic. Analyses about animals were only present on German RTL. They reported about research monitoring the status of mountain gorillas and that the population of wolves is increasing again in Germany. Besides of the analysis of the topics it can be interesting to look at the sources of these analyses. (Table 3.)

*Table 3: The sources of the topics amongst the analysing units of news (%)*  
*(Source: own calculations)*

Country	Germany		Austria		Hungary	
Channel	RTL	ARD	ATV	ORF	RTL Klub	M1
Type of Channel	commercial	public service	commercial	public service	commercial	public service
Newsreel	RTL Aktuell	Die Tagesschau	ATV Aktuell	Zeit im Bild	Híradó	Híradó
editorial research	47,83 %	60,71 %	69,23 %	50 %	87,50 %	53,66 %
Statistics	27,54 %	21,43 %	15,38 %	42,19 %	6,25 %	46,34 %
Researches, surveys	24,64 %	17,86 %	15,38 %	9,3 %	6,25 %	0 %

It is worth looking at the types of the sources that these analysing news were based on. The most prestigious type of sources, scientific researches were used by German RTL in the biggest ratio while Hungarian public service channel did not use this type of sources at all. To sum up, the two Hungarian newsreels were the ones using the least scientific material. M1 used a lot of statistic results however more than any other channel and Hungarian RTL was the one which used these the least. Analysis based only upon editorial research was the most frequent at the same channel, the Hungarian RTL though. Anyway this was the most frequent source used by all channels. In these cases the editors find an expert on the topic in order to get data, order a poll themselves or dig up the information themselves (e.g. finding the cheapest gas station in the country).

### ***Summary***

Based on analysed data we can say that TV newsreels got informative and teaching functions given the fact that there were units of news in every examined newsreel that matched the definition of this function. News units with this function had a total ratio above ten per cent among all the news at all the channels, usually their proportion was between twelve and fifteen per cent. Only in the case of two newsreels were the values much higher. Chart 4 contains the ratio of analysing units of news among all of the news in the following row we summarized the frequency of five miscellaneous informative topics (culture, school and education, history, science, environment protection/environmental problems) besides analysing news. Then we summarized the ratio of analysing news compared to the ones not analysing but still having informative function. So this row shows that exactly how informative is each newsreel. The bottom row shows an average of the country's newsreels so that it is revealed that how informative the newsreels were in the given country. (Table 4).



*Table 4: The appearance of each topic amongst all the news (%)*  
*(Source: own calculations)*

Country	Germany		Austria		Hungary	
Channel	RTL	ARD	ATV	ORF	RTL Klub	M1
Type of channel	Commercial	Public service	Commercial	Public service	Commercial	Public service
Newsreel	RTL Aktuell	Die Tagesschau	ATV Aktuell	Zeit im Bild	Híradó	Híradó
Topic of the unit of news	RTL Aktuell	ARD	ATV Aktuell	ORF	RTL Klub	M1 Híradó
Analysing	18,21 %	9,06%	9,03 %	15,27 %	7,69 %	6,84 %
Other informative topic	3,95 %	4,2 %	4,86 %	11,46 %	4,91 %	7,51 %
Summarized	22,16 %	13,26 %	13,89 %	26,73 %	12,6 %	14,35 %
National Average	17,71 %		20,31 %		13,475 %	

Based on these calculations it can be said that in the examined month the most informative newsreel was Austrian ORF's. It is interesting enough that the second place belongs to a commercial channel namely the German RTL. This way we can say that in Germany the commercial channel is more informative. Broadly speaking all other newsreels are at the same level, still far behind the two mentioned above. News about school and education were more common in the commercial newsreels particularly at Austrian ATV. At the same time we can say that regarding the informative function it is not relevant if a channel is a public service one or commercial. So it seems probable that the editing perception is that determines how strong this function will be. Two newsreels are the best proof for this because: German RTL's Aktuell concentrated the most on analysing units of news and a great amount of these were based on scientific or other researches (the ratio of these units were much higher than in other newsreels) and Austrian ORF's newsreel was the one broadcasting the most about culture. The least informative newsreel belongs to Hungarian RTL Klub. By the ratio of analysing units of news both in commercial and public service category, Hungarian channels were on the last places. Regarding country wide data, Austrian newsreels seem to be the most informative (20,31%) while Hungarian ones seem to be the least (13,475%).

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**EDINA MÁRKUS**

**NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS SERVING CULTURAL PURPOSES  
IN EAST CENTRAL EUROPEAN CITIES**

The rediscovery of civil society can be seen in research into social sciences in the 1970s. Some researchers explain its emergence by the East and Central European transformation and by its role played in the democratic transition in East and Central European countries, whereas others consider civil society to be a response and a possible solution to the crisis of the welfare state. Many researchers draw the attention to the significance of civil society, from different points of view, emphasizing its various roles. Arató (1999) underlines the operation of civil society as a control of state dysfunctions. Civil organizations have an important role in communication in society and in promoting participation in activities, which basically determines the quality of the democratic operation of a society. In certain areas the market and in other ones the welfare state have failed to work and they cannot satisfy the needs of the society in an appropriate way. Consequently, it is the informal economy which becomes dominant, on the one hand by families and households, and by small informal groups on the other (Zapf, 1984). Putnam (1993b, 2000) refers to the role of civil society in relation to his research into societal capital. According to him the relationship between the individuals and the networks, which is primarily based upon mutuality and trust, and the participation of the members of the society in formal organizations of civil society, provides a basis for societal capital.

After the political and economic changes in the regime, there have been structural changes in the field of culture as well: in addition to the state organizations the players of the market and the nonprofit sectors have also appeared, moreover the market and nonprofit organizations have become dominant in some areas, for example, music and media, with the significant decrease of the state in taking roles at the same time.

The East Central European countries were looking forward to the multi-sector model. They had nothing more to hope from the myth (Kuti, 1998; Lantos 1999), which was shaped at the beginning of the '90s by Hungarian researchers and players of the nonprofit sector in

connection with the efficiency of nonprofit organizations. Research findings in the international literature do not underline the Hungarian belief, according to which the service provided in a nonprofit form is automatically more efficient than the one in a state form. The national empirical investigations carried out so far have produced quite varied results. They can be summed up mainly with the statement that the efficiency obtained by well-operating nonprofit organizations is higher than that of the over-bureaucratic state institutions, whereas the badly organized nonprofit services fall behind the well-operating state services considering efficiency and other things (Kuti, 1998; 154). The researchers could demonstrate even less advantage in efficiency of nonprofit organizations in comparison to the service providers of the market.

In spite of this, new expectations of nonprofit organizations have emerged, for example, to have a greater part in service providing, to take an employment-promoting role and to develop alternative forms of employment. Are these organizations capable of meeting these expectations, or if not, what problems do they face and what obstacles are there which hinder them from coming up to the expected roles. Are there any differences between the organizations in East Central European cities? In our research we intend to find answers to these questions, based on sociology, economics, history and politics sciences. Our objective is to study the Czech, Polish, Latvian, German and Hungarian nonprofit sector; to analyze the situation of nonprofit organizations serving cultural purposes in East Central European cities<sup>1</sup>; to understand the factors which promote or

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<sup>1</sup> The research implemented with the support of the European Commission (Third System and Employment) was aimed at the exploration of the existing and further possible roles of the civil sector in employment in European countries in three fields: culture, environment protection and social services. The research project 'ARCIWEB Art and Cultural Cities: New Employment Laboratories', supported by the Volkswagen Foundation in addition to the European Commission was part of the research. In the first stage of the research, led by IMED-Instituto per il Mediterraneo, West European cities (Italian, German and Spanish) were studied. In the second stage, under the leadership of the Institute of Sociology of the University of Dresden and the Institute of Cultural Infrastructure of Saxony in Görlitz and with the support of the Volkswagen Foundation other European cities such as the Czech Republic, Poland, Latvia, Germany and Hungary were included in the research. Countries participating in the second stage of the research are mentioned as East Central European countries, and even the title of the comprehensive study is 'Cultural Transition Processes in cities of East and Central European countries with special regard to the third sector.' The political and geographic interpretation, nevertheless, puts forward some dilemmas because in reality, East Germany has been part of the EU since 1990 and not of East Europe. Latvia is not always listed among the East European countries, but is included in East Europe (or the Baltic states.)

The members of the research team in Debrecen were Judit Csoba, Erika Juhász, Edina Márkus, Kálmán Rubovszky, and János Zoltán Szabó in collaboration between the Department of

delay the development of the sector in the investigated areas; to study the employment potential of nonprofit organizations serving cultural purposes.

### ***Background***

The international and national research themes and basic problems related to the nonprofit sector are similar. Examples of themes concerning the research into the nonprofit sector in international relations are as follows: the study of the socio-economic environment, collaboration between the sectors, and the study of societal and economic roles. The reason for the appearance of these themes is, on the one hand, the fact that researchers from several fields of science have become intrigued with the examination of civil society all over the world and they have collaborated within the frame of international comparative research. The other reason for this is that Hungarian researchers have also been involved in discussions with international researchers and they have joined the comparative studies among the first ones from the East Central European countries<sup>2</sup>. Moreover, nonprofit theories studying the origin, role and changes of the sector and investigations with a comparative view are also common in the international scientific literature.

The nonprofit theories, rivaling with one another and complementing one another have tried to explore the reasons for the emergence of nonprofit organizations, their economic, societal role and their development in the past decades. The nonprofit research, which was primarily empirical and had an economic approach in the beginning has become interdisciplinary in character, and accordingly the societal and political embedding of the organizations have come into focus in the analysis. In current research, in addition to the study of the service providing role of nonprofit organizations in a welfare state, the exploration of the functions of organizations in civil society is getting more and more emphasis (Zimmer, 2002). When summarizing the theories, Kramer (2000) distinguishes three groups:

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Sociology and the Department of Adult Education and Cultural Sciences of the University of Debrecen.

<sup>2</sup> John Hopkins Comparative Project since 1999, later the CISONET Civil Society Network, FOCS Future of Civil Society - all these three studies are mentioned in the international technical literature.

theories in the first group can be connected with the strengthening of the nonprofit sector in the 1960s – the spread of the organizations of the 'global association revolution' (Salamon – Anheier, 1995). They are mainly 'supply and demand' theories, which study the economic role of the sector. Theories in the second group are related to the failures of the nonprofit sector in the 1980s and its relationship with the state (e.g. theory of the failure of self-organized activity). In the third group there are the welfare mix, welfare triangle and welfare pluralism conceptions having emerged due to the development of welfare states, and according to which emphasis is put on the collaboration between the sectors.

### ***Methods and process of the empirical research***

The interpretation of the civil, nonprofit character is not uniform either in international or in historical comparison; therefore in the beginning a lot of research was done to define the concepts and the names, their history and interpretation. We have shaped the definition of the concepts and their usage considering the approaches in the national and international research in the past decades.

There have been changes in the thinking about the structure of society and its economy due to the reinterpretation of role-taking of the state. According to the classical institutional paradigm of thinking about economics, which is based on the principles of the operation of the institutions and their purposes, the organizations of the economy are divided into two sectors: the market (private) and the state (public). A third type of the institutions, belonging to the private sector considering their legal form, but serving public purposes (with names like third, civil, nonprofit, voluntary, non-governmental sector) has been brought into focus. This type has already contributed to the solution of social problems considerably for a long time all over the world.

The various names of the sector and the organizations such as 'civil, voluntary, organizations serving public purposes, non-governmental, nonprofit' emphasize one feature each, which can always be traced back to the scale of values of its user. Various names<sup>3</sup> can be seen in

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<sup>3</sup> In Great Britain: voluntary sector, charities; in France: économie sociale; in Germany gemeinnützige Organisationen, Gemeinwirtschaft, Nicht-Erwerbssektor; in the United States: third sector, nonprofit sector, independent sector, tax-exempt

the different countries and language regions as well, emphasizing different attributes, in the background of which no historical chance events are reflected but the differences between countries concerning the socio-economic role and embeddedness of organizations (Kuti – Marschall, 1991: 62).

The name of 'third, non-profit sector and organizations' is generally used in the literature of statistics, economics and sociology, whereas the 'non-governmental organizations' or 'civil society' term are mainly used in the literature of political science. In our research we have analyzed the data of the Central Statistical Office (henceforth abbreviated KSH) from between 1989 and 2004 and the data of the Comparative Non-profit Sector Project of John Hopkins University (1990, 1995). This statistics provides a methodologically coherent and detailed summary of the data related to nonprofit organizations (foundations, joint nonprofit organizations) at national and international level alike. In addition to this, we have analyzed the findings in the questionnaire study (N=421) carried out in the East Central European cities.

From the standard fundamental conceptions, we have used the definition of the non-profit sector - nonprofit organizations created in accordance with the criteria of ICNPO, the International Classification of Non-Profit Organizations. According to this definition, those organizations belong to the nonprofit sector which are legally existent; which are institutionalized organizations<sup>4</sup>; which are based on self-organization and action, which is revealed in the way of doing voluntary work, in the nature of activities and donations; which have a self-reliant leadership independent of the government; which have been established not primarily with an economic purpose and do not divide the income from their economic activities and serve public purposes. In our study we use a narrow concept of culture, which focuses only on a defined area. Its central focus is the arts, the general knowledge and the everyday behavior and lifestyle of various groups of society. We considered the organizations to be nonprofit organizations serving cultural purposes which have any reference to cultural activities in their statutes, range of activities or name.

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sector, voluntary sector, philanthropic sector; in Italy: volontariato, associazionismo, terzo settore.

<sup>4</sup> The Latvian organizations mean the organizations registered at the Department of Culture of the city. A significant part of them is not institutionalized and not registered at the court.



In the first stage of the research the project partners conducted non-structured interviews with specialists (local cultural specialists- from municipalities, cultural organizations), and they prepared a part of the study on the cultural policy and nonprofit sector of the cities as well.

In the second stage of the research, the aims and objectives of the research and their implementation were agreed upon at personal meetings with project partners. The questionnaires were altered according to the conditions of the individual countries. It was the researchers of the given settlements who dealt with the analysis of the questionnaires on their settlements and they were engaged in the first interpretation of the data as well. On the basis of the experience of the first discussion, which was about the structure and characteristics of the nonprofit sectors of the cities, the project partners decided on preparing a partly standardized questionnaire. The main content points of the questionnaire are the circumstances of foundation, the characteristics of operation; the structure of activity, the target group; financing; the characteristics of the employment policy of the organizations; the financial background and the evaluation of the cultural and economic situation in the given region. In the third and at the same time the last stage of the research, the organizations selected from the types set up in the second stage were studied even more thoroughly with the method of partly structured interviewing.

Samples were taken on the basis of all the organizations serving cultural purposes available in the databanks reflecting the conditions in 1999. Organizations registered by courts in their association and company registries and organizations in the foundation records of provinces provided basis for the East German research. The Czech project partner took as samples the organizations in the court register, in the register of the ministry of the interior, in the register of the Czech state authorities and in the register of the methodological centre established by organizations serving public purposes. The Hungarian partner was given the addresses of organizations relevant to the research by the Directorate of Hajdú-Bihar Country of the Central Statistical Office and the local country court. We could rely on the data made available by the cultural management of the city council of Riga, which according to Lakis (2000) provides a representative picture of the studied organizations. The background of the data bank for the research in Cracovia is not known. The number of the questionnaires which can be evaluated is

421 (the number of the organizations in the individual cities: Dresden - 97, Görlitz – 41, Weimar -30, Prague- 98, Debrecen -65, Riga -90). In the analysis of the findings in the questionnaire survey, we considered it important to get an answer by the analysis of the situation of the nonprofit organizations operating in the cultural sector of East Central European cities if the organizations can meet the expectations – to undertake public tasks from the local governments, to take a service providing and employment- activating role. Our aim was to understand the factors which promote or delay the development of the sector in the investigated areas. We endeavored to demonstrate the information explored in the questionnaire survey and to find the correlations which can explain the explored factors.

### ***Major Statements***

The studied Czech, East-German, Latvian, Polish and Hungarian cities all serve as examples of transforming societies after the change of regime. They have similar institutional and mental patterns and traditions in spite of the differences between them (in relation to their national and regional roles, the proportion of their population); therefore we have assumed that we can experience similarities in the situation and development of the nonprofit organizations serving cultural purposes. In spite of the historical, structural similarities, the nonprofit sector in the studied cities demonstrates significant differences, which are characteristic of the given countries (regarding the scope of operation, the activities, the size of income, and the types of employment). The German research leaders assumed that the situation of East German cities would be more favorable after the unification due to the economic support and the rapid developing of legal frames and the creating of councils necessary for operation. However, this expectation did not prove true since we had not experienced significant differences to the advantage of East German cities. Our own assumption has been verified, according to which 10 years is a short time considering changes and consequently we cannot expect great differences.

Seifert (1996) assumed that the organizational patterns, voluntary traditions prevailing before World War Two would not appear significantly any more among the cultural organizations in the East Central European countries. After the unification, researchers

studying the East German third sector shaped two contrasting viewpoints. According to one of these, the third sector is the expression of the civil society in East Germany and it is rooted in the democratic processes and based on the more and more active societal participation. According to the other opinion, the third sector is the extension of the West German nonprofit sector in the Eastern part of Germany. In this process of the so-called peaceful colonization new organizations have emerged by West German patterns without embedding into the local society (Anheier – Priller – Zimmer, 2000). The second part of the assumptions of both Seifert and Anheier has proved false. We studied this question by exploring the legal predecessors of the organizations. The number of the re-established organizations was not high indeed in Debrecen (the organizations in Debrecen, with the exception of two of them, were established newly, even if they were established in the 1980s.) However, just the organizations of the East German cities and also the organizations in Prague have been re-established organizations handing down the traditions of previous organizations and it reflects right the societal embeddedness since even the prohibition for several decades could not wipe out the organizational patterns.

The legal frames are already established in Germany, the Czech Republic and Hungary. In Poland and Latvia the detailed legal regulation and/or its practical implementation are still partly missing. It affects the development of the sector and so the number of the organizations in Poland is fewer than the half of the organizations registered in Hungary. In Riga the organizations did not get institutionalized in many cases in spite of the fact that informal groups had worked as communities under the auspices of cultural institutions for years. We could experience the influence of the change in the legal conditions in the case of the organizations in Debrecen. Due to the influence of legal regulations supporting foundations, the establishing of foundations was significant. As soon as the regulation had changed, leveling was seen in regard to the organizational forms.

In the field of the nonprofit sector, the proportion of culture and leisure organizations is dominant regarding the East Central European countries. As we can see in the comparison of international studies between the countries, the researchers believe that continuity lies in its background. This presupposition was partly proved by the survey according to which we could see a higher proportion of

organizations established before 1989 among organizations in Prague and to some extent in Debrecen. However, it can be said about the studied towns that about the three-quarters of the organizations were established before 1995, so establishing organizations at the beginning of the 1990s was quite dynamic with regard to their proportion.

Both in international (Schuster, 1985; DiMaggio, 1986) and in national studies (Kuti, 1999; Harsányi-Kovács, 2002) the proportion of nonprofit organizations among the cultural fields (arts, telecommunication, mass communication, preservation of cultural heritage, public culture, and cultural activities serving various purposes) is considered to be the most significant within art. This presupposition was proved by our research. More than 60% of the studied organizations denoted the art field as their main field of operating. There are differences between the cities. We can mention the activity in Görlitz in relation to public culture and preservation of cultural heritage and the proportion of the almost exclusive art organizations among the organizations in Riga.

Association is the dominant legal form in our samples. Apart from that, it is exclusively the foundations that have a role worth mentioning. The number of the complicated founding forms and the founding forms with only sufficient capital stock as companies serving public purposes is insignificant in the sample. Thus it seems to knock holes into that presupposition of ours that a process has started in the examined towns where the local governments transfer tasks to the private sector (market or nonprofit) and they establish public foundations, companies serving public purposes by which the state withdraws from the area of culture.

In a socio-economic concept, the nonprofit sector is important as a sector which provides new employment solutions. The nonprofit organizations are considered to be capable of the increase of employment mainly in household-related, personal, social and environmental services and in the cultural fields, sport and media. It was studied in Germany what potential the nonprofit organizations represent in the second half of the 1990s. It was concluded on the basis of a questionnaire study including 2400 nonprofit organizations, carried out by Priller – Zimmer – Anheier (1999) that contractual employment and voluntary work are the most characteristic in the field of culture. Sometimes it is possible to create places of employment at least for the medium run. In Germany nonprofit organizations are encouraged to open up new employment

opportunities by various programs of support. After the unification, the economic support from the West and the rapid alteration of the legal system according to the already existing and well operating patterns, produced a more favorable situation for the East German processes of transition - compared to other countries once being under Soviet control. Consequently, we assumed that the German cities are in a more favorable situation considering employment.

The expectations of the European employment policy were not proved, whereas the findings of Priller et al. (Priller-Zimmer-Anheier, 1999) according to which the contractual employment and voluntary work are characteristic of the studied organizations were verified. We can conclude on the basis of the research findings that the nonprofit organizations have created new places of employment only sporadically. There are differences between the organizations concerning the circumstances of employment and the maintenance of workplaces. Whereas the permanent employment in the nonprofit sector in Debrecen and Cracovia indicates rather an exception, it is common practice in Riga (88% of all the institutions). In Prague (51%), in Dresden (32%), in Görlitz (23%) and in Weimar (20%) the permanent employment is more or less characteristic. The supported programs of employment do not play a decisive role in the sector, in spite of our starting presuppositions. They are characteristic in the East German cities only to a limited extent (in Debrecen and Prague), whereas in other East Central European countries only minimally or they are not characteristic at all (in Cracovia and Riga).

In the studied towns we have found a diversified system of organizations with significant achievements but not with solid capital, therefore their role in undertaking services, the increase of the employment potential and the mass appearance of undertaking state tasks cannot be expected if the financing policy (providing support in addition to or instead of project financing) related to the organizations does not change.

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**MÁRTA MIKLÓSI**

***QUALITY CONTROL AND ACCREDITATION IN ADULT EDUCATION.  
THE CASE OF INSTITUTIONS IN THE NORTH GREAT PLAIN REGION***

This study focuses on the problem of the quality of adult education, which became the center of attention in the years following the political transformation. This period was characterized by the emergence of several different actors on the adult education market (Koltai 1996, 57; Bélanger, Paul - Valdivielso, Sofia 1997). The institutional system of andragogy grew rather heterogeneous, and simultaneously to this, the standard of adult education showed an ever increasing irregularity (Korsgaard 1997, 17; Thorpe 2000, 1). The introduction of quality control systems and the appearance of institution and program accreditation in adult education changed this situation, which helped institutions differentiate themselves from those not holding accreditations a necessary and significant area on a market controlled by regulations.

The study of this field is a justified and essential ambition, as the training of adults has become a central issue, in close connection with the fact that the economy and the labor market redefine their demands: trades learned for a lifetime do not really exist any longer, the concepts of higher education and vocational training are being radically altered, and, in return, life-long, flexible learning becomes necessary, which makes the problem of quality control in adult education all the more inexorable (McMahon 2004).

This study aims at finding answers to the following fundamental questions: how well can these quality control systems operate in the framework of adult education and to what extent can such tools guarantee the quality of trainings? The operation of such systems is far from being clear and obvious, because the quality control systems and accreditation types utilized in adult education are process control systems examining primarily whether adult education processes and documentation meet prescribed requirements (Teacher Education Accreditation Council 2012). Real content or the quality of the conveyance of knowledge appear less significant, although education (basic activity) and its ancillary background activities (for example, administration and human resource management) are similarly important from the perspective of quality control. The operation of



an adult-education institution and its state of organization affect the training activity and have an impact on the quality of the training as well, thus it would be useful to take into account this holistic aspect when defining the requirements of an accreditation-based quality control system (Bierma 1994). Satisfying customer demands is also pushed to the background, even though an institution is considered to meet quality requirements only when it constantly monitors the demands of the social consumer, mainly the demands of students, whose satisfaction is one of the determinant factors of efficient teaching/learning. To be able to rise above the perspective of compliance with formal and bureaucratic quality requirements it is indispensable to analyze the quality-control system at a scientific level and to further develop quality control in a unified and differentiated way by involving and directly enquiring (students evaluation and feedback systems) the market actors and the participating adults (Kerékyártó 2008, 51).

Through clarifying the set of questions examined theoretically and empirically, this paper intends to provide answers to the questions of to what extent real quality appears in the market of adult education, what factors justify the existence or lack of these, and what internal correspondences may be disclosed in connection to the issue at hand.

### ***The method and process of research***

The research included accredited adult education institutions operating in the Norther Great Plan region and listed in the National Institute of Vocational and Adult Education database, that is profit oriented economic organizations, public service institutions maintained by the state or local governments (schools, higher education institutions, Regional Training Centers, Integrated Vocational Training Centers), and also non-profit organizations. Since the research concentrated mainly on a relatively small region, the North Great Plain Region, I managed to examine the accreditation and quality-control specifics of adult education institutions from a holistic point of view. The adult education institutes were assessed between September and December 2008, the institutions were visited by taking into account data as of 1 September 2008 in the public database relating to accredited adult education organizations of the National Institute of Vocational and Adult Education, and altogether 140 institutions completed the

questionnaire out of the 173 accredited adult education institutions operating in the region.

During the research accumulation of data was based on the evaluation of surveys managed by an interviewer and containing the responses of employees of the actual institutions; the aim was to have a quantitative view of the adult-education situation in the region. The questionnaire used in the research is divided into three main parts: the general operation of adult-education institutions and enterprises, the operation of the quality-control system, as well as accreditation. The processing of data accumulated during the survey was performed with the help of the SPSS program: correspondences within the data recorded were queried via frequency analysis, linear regression analysis, variance analysis, correlation analysis, and cross-table analysis. The data were in addition correlated with the findings of other surveys and analyses in the professional literature, continually taking into account the importance of a comparative aspect.

### ***Major findings***

I present the findings of the research below, by organizing them around the four major assumptions formulated while planning the study.

The first assumption was that institutions that operate accredited, standard quality-control systems have a larger knowledge of quality control than institutions that operate self-developed systems compliant with the requirements of the Adult Education Accreditation Body (hereinafter FAT) (Bertalan 2007; Madarász 2007; Bálint 2007). The findings, however, did not justify this assumption: organizations adopting a certified quality-control system do not produce better results upon the analysis of quality indicators, that is, they do not have a greater amount of documentation necessary for the planning of the trainings (training plan, training program, human resource management plan), do not meet less difficulty during the establishment of the system, do not determine more quality goals or indices. The findings were such in spite of the fact that the study demonstrated that institutions establishing standardized quality-control systems utilize counseling services to a greater extent than institutions with FAT systems. This, therefore, shows that an organization can operate in a quality-conscious way

even if it does not dedicate greater sums to accept the services of counselors but establishes its own quality-control system (Csoma 2003b, 26).

The second assumption concentrated on the counseling assistance utilized while establishing and operating the control system. I assumed that the employment of counselors is not only dependent upon the organization's size but is defined by other factors as well (Deliné 2007). I assumed, too, that mostly bigger, profit-oriented organizations would utilize the help of counselors. The findings of the research showed, however, that non-profit organizations have a greater demand for such assistance than profit-oriented ones. In my opinion, this is due to the circumstances where the employees have less market and quality-control knowledge, which profit-oriented organizations probably have a greater demand for, as their main goal is the accumulation of profit (S. Arapovics 2007, 34). I assumed that bigger organizations can allow to establish their systems with the help of counselors, and this assumption was proven. Organizations with a bigger headcount indeed utilize such help more frequently as they have the financial means to do so. In addition, associations offering trainings for target groups of more students also make use of counseling more frequently. The findings also showed that, as it was proven with respect to my first hypothesis, institutions tend to use help when developing standardized systems, which, in my opinion, is closely related to the capital adequacy of the given business association: organizations with several different sources can more easily disburse funds to establish standard quality-control systems or use counseling (Gutassy 2004, 128). It was established, therefore, that basically three factors define whether a given institution utilizes counseling help: size, profit-orientedness, and the type of the quality-control system.

The third assumption hypothesized that organizations established prior to the change of regime are less able to adapt to the changes, encounter more problems during the introduction of the quality-control system, and accordingly do not prefer systemized control (Bertalan 2007). The hypothesis was proved: they met more difficulties and supported regular control to a lower degree, in all likelihood because these organizations were created a product of a former regime and the encounter with new challenges required a higher degree of adaptation (Benedek 1996, 311; Durkó – Szabó 1999; Benedek 2005, 13). Apart from the difference in shareholding structures, this might be explained by the fact that the conversion to a

market economy view fundamentally shook the system of adult education institutions; the year of the change of regime brought about a substantial rearrangement of adult education.

The fourth assumption was that accredited adult education institutions regard basically important the operation of quality-control systems and accreditation (Bertalan 2007). Nearly 90% of the institutions held that the quality of their training activity was improved by the operation of a quality-control system. Thus, less than one tenth of these institutions experienced a neutral or negative impact of the quality-control system on the quality of the given training. Since, if during the development of processes no real operational processes can be mapped, the quality-control system will indeed not influence actual operation, which is a possibility where the operation of the quality-control system is not integrated into day-to-day practice but is bogged down in documentation and does not bring about substantial changes in the life of the institution. Therefore, institutions should make an effort to integrate their systems in their actual practice, which, according to the findings, was successful. The motivation to be granted accreditation is also highly important: a great percentage of the institutions deemed accreditation a necessary stage, and it was mainly the smaller institutions that thought so (Deliné 2007). The operation of accreditation and the operation of quality-control systems were deemed of differing importance by the actors of adult education: it is most important to financiers and least significant to the adult learner, which findings may serve as a warning for several reasons. On the one hand, it indicates, as was found in relation to the question focusing on the advantages of accreditation, that accreditation is today still primarily a factor that ensures the availability of funds; on the other hand, it does not present any advantages or concrete performance to adult learners which could represent immediate value during the training process and does therefore not guarantee better-quality training (Bálint 2007, 382; Mátyus et al. 2006, 11).

My research pointed out two prominent regularities: we may establish that the current control system favors the bigger organizations, with respect to both the prescriptions and their feasibility. They have more means to employ counselor assistance, encounter fewer problems during the development of the quality-control system, and can disburse greater sums to finance the quality trainings of tutors and employees.

According to my second major findings, the availability of accreditation does not necessarily coexist with quality (Csoma 2003a, 4). The professional and methodological preparedness of tutors, the quality of classes and curricula are not controlled by the accreditation order of procedure, even though the process of adult education goes on in the classroom, in the relation between student and tutor. This is why the requirements should include possibilities to evaluate the quality of knowledge transfer as well. Greater emphasis should be placed on the improvement of actual training quality, which requirement does not necessarily met today, as accreditation is primarily documentation based. In the case if an indeed conscious process control is present, the control of documents contributes to the regulation of processes. Conversely, however, if the quality-control activity only involves paperwork, it cannot have an impact on the quality of the training, and the system is unnecessarily overregulated. Greater stress should be laid upon the study of what actual results the given institute produces. The aim is to ensure that the existence and operation of the quality-control system is important for the adult learner as well. A less documentation-based accreditation system more bent on ensuring the quality and standard of the training would probably have a substantial impact on adult education trainings in the long run.

### ***Further corroboration and enlargement***

The results of the study are available for further corroboration and enlargement. Another possible direction of further research is to study whether the changes in the training of andragogy professionals brought about any shift of perspective and if it did, what kind of shift it was; whether professionals that graduated from the Bologna system have a greater amount of quality-control and accreditation know-how; whether they are able to better utilize such knowledge in practice; whether any material changes may result from this in the operation of the institutions. The survey can be expanded with further questions, perhaps more questions that concentrate on the quality of trainings could be integrated in another questionnaire. By modifying the regional dimension, the research may be expanded to include several regions or perhaps the whole of Hungary, in order to learn the differences between the adult-education institutional systems of the regions. It would prove useful to apply a diachronic

rather than a synchronic view and repeat the survey a couple of years later, taking into consideration the changes brought about by the continuous establishment and refinement of the control system and the changes that may be experienced on this ever renewing market which reacts most agilely to social changes.

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**SZILVIA SIMÁNDI – TÍMEA OSZLÁNCZI**

**THE ROLE OF PREVIOUS KNOWLEDGE IN ADULT LEARNING  
A CASE STUDY IN AN EVENING HIGH SCHOOL  
ESZTERHÁZY KÁROLY COLLEGE  
DEPARTMENT OF ANDRAGOGY AND GENERAL EDUCATION**

As a consequence of the change of regime, the coming up social and economical changes affected the primary and also the secondary institutions of adult education in a great way. (cp. Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency (2011). The changes, of course, caused that the role of adult education in society went through a significant transformation as well. While it used to be for decreasing social and economical differences and increasing the chances of those who had got out of the educational system, today it is more typical that groups of better educated people continue studying in adult education (Polónyi 2008). Kozma (2001) shares this opinion, who claims that the compensational and jurisdictional roles of adult education have relapsed a lot. Eszik (2001) has the same conception in connection with the role of adult education saying that before the change of regime the role of adult education was that of remobilisation and compensation, which were complemented with new functional contents after the years of the change of regime. In his opinion, one of these new roles is using it as a tool for solving social conflicts, another one is the manifestation of the employee. Hamar (2005) gives a definition of adult education in the school system in relation to the world of work, when stating its main goal to be the following: *'(...) its goal is the integration of people who belong to the deprived and underprivileged social groups to the world of work by means of education'* (Hamar 2005, 233).

In other words, these changed and significantly complicated functions were needed to be taken into consideration after the years of the change of regime. Today we know that these necessities had been ignored when the prepared educational reform did not affect this area since politics took only the full time school education forms on its agenda (Mayer 2006, 288). Consequently, in the 90's adult education in the school system worked with obsolete institutional structure and insufficient subject programs for the given era. The



changing expectations of the labour market, the new skills and competences demanded from the employers set a whole different requirement from the educational system, too. In the organization of the teaching material the starting point was not based on what was the most optimal and needed for the participants, but the main organising force was the time frame. It meant that the learning material appointed for the participants studying in full time education was given for the set time frame, which helped in completing the given school degree as a short-time success for crowds of people (Mayer 2006, 290).

Considering the participative ratio, participation in adult education is different from that of the primary or secondary educational institutions.

Participation numbers of adult education in the field of public education have notably decreased compared to previous decades from the 1990's of those taking part in primary adult education. One of the reasons for this is the attempt of the educational institutions to keep students in the educational system as long as possible, within the orderly frames.

There was a similar fall in numbers in the term of 2001-2002 that unfortunately can not be explained by the better ratio of the graduated students but by the age limit of enrolling to the so-called 'youth department' being raised from 14 to 16, which also strengthened the tendency of keeping students in a non-adult education framed primary school for two more years (Hamar, 2005). Another explanation for this phenomena is harder to judge and can only be presumed that is from Csoma (2000). Namely, that those who leave the primary educational institutions do not enroll to any other school (Csoma, 2000). (cp. Education, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency 2011. Adults in Formal Education: Policies and Practice in Europe).

While in the nineties the demand for adult primary education in school system decreased gradually, in the secondary education, in case of trainings for the completion of matura exam this time meant years of expansion (Sáska, 2002). At the turning of the century, Gyula Csoma thought that 'all signs show that numbers of secondary education will be steady or maybe even rise' (Csoma 2000, 24). In the chart his assumption seem to be verified as after the turn of the century the number of people taking part in secondary adult education indeed has risen.

The special characteristics of adult learning have been examined by numerous authors, such as Andresen–Boud–Cohen (2000), Hansen (2000), Peeters et. al. (2011), Pourchot – Smith (2004), Maróti (2006), Mayer (2006) etc. We put special emphasis on the work of Gyula Csoma (2006) in Hungary, who has written a lot about adult education in the school system.

The evening high school examined is a member of a national adult educational secondary school network, which works in the building of the local primary school. Training is on Monday and Wednesday afternoons, between 3 – 8 pm. The school opened in September 2007 with two parallel 9<sup>th</sup> grade classes and was working in this manner for 3 years. In September 2011, dropouts caused the fusion of the previous 11<sup>th</sup> grade, although later there was a new 11<sup>th</sup> grade class started because of repeaters and new students.

*Figure 1: Ratio of sex*



In the school there are eight teachers, all with university degrees. We included students from both of the classes and also the teachers in our research.

The goal of our research is to analyze the experiences of adult students in the formal, educational training, mostly from the aspects of their previous knowledge and life experience. We consider the analysis of the previous knowledge so important because it is the disposable knowledge that gives the basis for the gaining of the new knowledge, in other words, the importance and significance of previous knowledge is enhanced by the existence or non-existence of

the knowledge; whether students have the preconditions for the learning of the new material or not. Exploring previous knowledge is also important because it highly affects the percent of dropouts, meaning that the student cannot take the pace of studying, the missing basics make learning even more difficult, let alone all the other factors that hinder adult learning (lack of time, work, studying besides family etc.).

Furthermore, we find it essential to compare the outcome with the opinions and impressions of teachers in adult education as the two suppositions are closely related to each other.

In our work, the main questions tackled the role of life experience and previous knowledge of adult learners in school system learning and how much and what way it affects learning. In connection with this we were also curious about how adult learners experienced sitting in the classes and taking part in a formal training once again.

Firstly, when analysing the role of previous knowledge, we wanted to know how and to what extent students can make use of their knowledge from their previous studies. The result is unfavorable, because more than half of the respondents claimed that they have forgotten a lot and they cannot make use of previously learnt things. Even if they partly remember they are not sure of their knowledge. That is why they do not build on it, they are just happy to be presented with everything as new material. On the other hand, the rest of the people do not take it with such pleasure that 'it is just revision again'. That is when the trainer meets the challenge of fulfilling both demands.

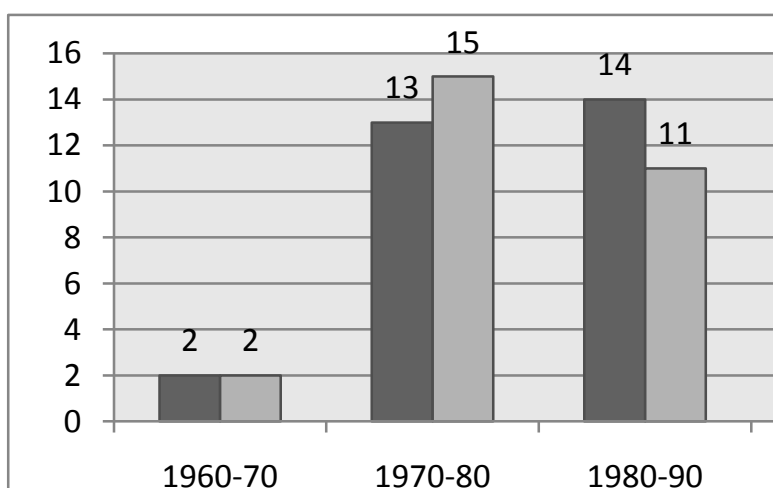
We may not forget, however, that the wrongly acquired or not adequate knowledge can make learning and teaching more difficult at times. Overcoming this means a great task for the teacher. The more complete world view the students has (see theory of a mature personality by Allport) the harder it is to have other viewpoints and opinions accepted.

Life experience is the so-called everyday knowledge that helps getting around in life in general. Ferge (1976) differentiated the kinds of knowledge as everyday knowledge, festive knowledge and professional knowledge. Festive knowledge includes knowledge about art and science, professional knowledge is connected with work and everyday knowledge is everything that is related to everyday life and mean practical knowledge. The question may rise how rigid the boundaries are among the different forms of knowledge, because they are all made up by different parts and

skills. That is why it is important that the formal education would prepare the students for the acquisition of learning, so that later they would be able to acquire new pieces of knowledge in non-formal or informal ways (cp. Juhász -Ludányi 2008).

Life experience in contrast with previous knowledge plays more important role according to the respondents. Answering the question of how life experience help present learning, three-fourth of the respondents said that they can build on that. In this case, age seemed to be the determining factor since the older the respondent was the more he agreed with this notion.

Figure 2: Ages



We can find the same opinion on the side of the trainers. Knowledge acquired in everyday life can be more used during teaching and is a greater motivator. This is crucial as in adult learning motivation has a determining role; the student takes part with more enthusiasm in lessons where he can clearly see a reasonable goal. Experiences during everyday life affect the processing of the material to a great extent, such as actual historical and geographical events etc.

We were also eager to see how adult learners experienced sitting in a class again. *'It was really strange to get used to preparing regularly again after so many years'. 'I was full of doubts and was very afraid'. 'It was not special for me, because I had been in school continuously'. 'Yeah, the first day at school was strange, but I got used to it pretty fast'.*

On the basis of the answers, we can differentiate how much time passed between the last learning experience and the present training. If there was only a short time period and learning was continuous, then they felt it less problematic than those who had more time skipped. As the respondents are not homogenous in either their age or their time of skipping the trainer also has to be prepared for this fact as well.

In conclusion, we can say that after the change of regime the functions of adult education have expanded, but the compensating function still plays an important role, which is to ensure opportunities for compensation for those who could not get appropriate graduation in their 'orderly age'.

In adult learning there is a determining role of previous knowledge and life experience as they give the basis and also affect motivation for learning. In summary, the responses in our research show that the teachers cannot really build on the lexical, theoretical knowledge; they meet much deficiency and in the teaching material they cannot refer to previously (in the primary school) learnt data. In many cases they have to revise and restudy the previously – supposedly learnt – materials, however, learning is greatly affected by the experiences collected during the students' lives. (cp. Andresen – Boud – Cohen 2000).

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ÁGNES SZABÓ

### ***THE STATE OF PLAY OF THE DANISH FOLK HIGH SCHOOLS***

An exemplary institution of the educational system of Denmark is the folk high school. The expression, which is not to be confused with the high schools in certain English-speaking countries or with the German Volkshochschule, refers to a boarding school offering non-formal, typically general education courses of varying length to adult learners.

In this study we make an attempt to discover the evolution of the Grundtvig-style folk high schools and to have a look at its adaptation in other countries, especially in Hungary. This theme could be very useful and important mainly for the young post-communist counties of Europe and could show an example on democratic and social education.

#### ***The emergence of Danish folk high schools***

The basic idea of the underlying educational culture, “folkepolysing” (folk-enlightenment), originated in the Age of Reason. It means a commitment to the problems of culture and the age; in other words, enlightenment means the knowledge of and control over the external world (Jacobsen 2002:88). Participation in folk enlightenment, however, is the individual’s decision, rather than forced upon the him or her by an external, perhaps superior, power.

The emergence of folk high schools can be fundamentally traced back to three factors: Grundtvig’s visits to England, the constitutional reforms of Frederick VI of Denmark, and the situation arising in Schleswig-Holstein (Harangi 1995:12-13).

Nikolaj Frederik Severin Grundtvig was a real polymath of his age, as shown in the fact, for example, that he also contributed to the development of Danish literature by way of some 1500 songs and hymns, as well as numerous translations. It was in connection with the translation of the Epic of Beowulf, as well as for studying other Anglo-Nordic texts that he visited England on several occasions. Once there, on the one hand, he encountered the groups of English society transforming as a result of the industrial revolution, and on

the other hand, during his visit to Oxford, he experienced the intellectually free world of the university, where he was fascinated by the familial relationship between professors and students. He recognised the fact that the industrial revolution would also soon appear in his still predominantly agricultural Denmark, when society would undergo fundamental changes and thousands of Danish peasants would be forced to take up industrial work. He saw the solution in preparing society for the changes and in liberal education in a spirit similar to that of Oxford (Reich 2010:76-78).

The constitutional reforms of Frederick VI (1808-1839) posed new challenges to Danish society as well. In the newly established municipal and communal governments the townsmen and the peasants also had to represent themselves. The peasantry, however, was not yet ready for this, and therefore, in addition to getting for the industrial revolution, the demand for preparation in participation in the social unity also appeared (Harangi 1995:13).

The situation of Schleswig-Holstein became strained under the rein of Christian VIII (1839-1848). The rulers of Denmark have, since the Middle Ages, also been the princes of Schleswig-Holstein; however, from the 1830s, this area was increasingly orienting toward the German unity, so much so that slowly the German language became generally widespread. The opposition between the two nations eventually lead to a break: in accordance with the "*Eider policy*," Holstein became German, while Schleswig became Danish territory, separated by the Eider River. By contrast, Grundtvig considered language as the factor essentially differentiating the two nations, and this gave him the last motivation in the direction of folk high schools (Reich 2010:128-129).

Grundtvig's aim was, therefore, the creation of the folkelighed (Reich 2010:73), i.e. the unity of the population, which he thought could be achieved through liberal education. The introduction of liberal education was justified due to the inadequacies of the Danish school system at the time. While children of more affluent families were prepared for university education in private schools or by family tutors, those belonging to poor layers of society had to be content with the knowledge that could be acquired in the primary school (almueskolen). The gap between the elite schools and the almueskolen, therefore, also meant a social gap (Reich 2010:109-110).

The first "*school for life*" was eventually opened in Rødding, on 7 November 1844. Christen Kold, a disciple of Grundtvig, provided for



the education of the first generation of folk high school teachers (Harangi 1995:13), as a result of which this form of education was able to take roots first in Denmark, then in other Scandinavian countries, and even in some more distant countries of Europe and the world.

### ***The current system of folk high schools***

The basic elements of folk high school education are “*teamwork, community education, activation, independent activity, participant-centered adult education, student self-government, personality development, the method of debate, and dialogue*” (Harangi 2002:398). Participation is voluntary, there are no entrance examinations, and generally no final examinations or other forms of evaluation, either; therefore, folk high schools typically do not provide certificates of qualification.

The institutions can be classified according to the following criteria:

- 1) general or vocational training?
- 2) incitement or direction?
- 3) is the main source of learning verbal information or written materials?
- 4) residential or non-residential? (Arvidson - Gustavsson 1996:647)

The wide range of course offerings at folk high schools consists of short and long courses. Long courses last from 1 to 10 months, while short ones are between 1 and 3 weeks. The basic idea was that students would take a succession of 3-4-month courses in the winter period (Harangi 1995:15). Folk high schools are typically established in the countryside, in relatively isolated locations, so that students can concentrate on building themselves and the community by way of excluding the external world outside of the institution. “*At a typical Danish folk high school 10 teachers work with 80 students for a period ranging from 2 weeks to 8 months in such a way that each teacher has a group, for which he or she acts as a helper, adviser, mental and professional supporter, but in addition they also teach classes in their own field to other groups*” (Harangi 1995:18).

Since Grundtvig placed much emphasis on national identity, the courses primarily deal with the Danish language, culture and history. “*Language was a key concern of Grundtvig’s, and he had a deep love of, and concern for, the Danish modersmaal, the mother*

tongue.”(Dyce 2010:457) In addition, an important role is given to the teaching of arts and philosophy, and in recent years, foreign languages and sports, as tools of building the community, have also come to the foreground, which means that the institution is fundamentally characterized by a humanized atmosphere.

The emphasis of folk high school on liberal education has remained even today, since institutions are free to choose the topics, the course materials and the methods of their courses, as well as their teachers (Karlsson 2008:263). It is not a requirement for the latter to be certified teachers: although there is in Denmark an institution called “*Free Teacher Training College*,” the majority of the teachers do not have such a certification, since personality is the most important factor in their selection. (Arvidson - Gustavsson 1996:648). “*The teachers should teach with emotion, tone, and body language that reflect that there is a personal interest and love for what they are saying. Grundtvig would not allow a dead teacher to teach a dead topic; rather it should be joyful, happy, inspirational and emotional.*” (Roberson Jr. 2002:7)

Despite these freedoms, folk high schools are not independent institutions, as their activities are supported by the state. For this reason, there has been increasing pressure recently from the government for folk high schools to be integrated into the system of education and to shift their activities toward the direction of formal education (Karlsson 2008:263). It may arise as a question, however, whether the democratizing, community-building effect, which was at the core of Grundtvig’s idea, would be lost as a result. We think that in more formal frameworks, the education and training aimed at the development of competences and the formation of attitudes, which is a characteristic feature of folk high schools, may be less possible to realize. The century-old history and the unbroken trust placed in them by participants have proved that folk high schools offer something different or more than institutions working in more formal frameworks, which justifies that they should be kept in their present form.

After all, the operation of folk high schools according to Grundtvig’s ideals is not a system carved in stone; the changes caused it to adapt to the arising demands. In accordance with the expectations of modern times, non-residential folk high schools gradually appeared and came to the foreground. Courses at these institutions are offered in an urban setting and require participation for just a few hours per day; this way, students do not have to break away from their normal

environment, which makes these schools more popular. Another argument for this type of institutions is their price: even though residential schools receive state subsidies, students still have to pay a fee of 1,000-2,000 DKK (135-270 Euro) per week, while the non-residential schools are paid for by the administrative communes, the municipalities (Mártonfi 2008:130-131). With the emergence of the new type of institutions, therefore, more people were able to afford attending folk high schools, since even adults with families and children can devote this time to their education, any young people are not asked to give up the urban environment and the company of their friends either.

Folk high schools mean much more for the Danish than a form of education: their national identity was enhanced as a result of the courses offered by them. Grundtvig thus created a tool of national education and cohesion as well. The principal task of folk high schools is to provide students with a perspective onto life, as well as to help them find their place in society as more mature adults able and willing to take responsibility for themselves and their environment.

### ***Adaptation of folk high schools***

As a result of its socialising effect, several other countries tried to adapt the Danish model, which means many “*sister institutions*” around the world operating under different names but with similar content. In Norway, Sweden, Finland, the Baltic States and in Hungary they are referred to as folk high schools. The system emerging as a result of Grundtvig’s efforts is known as “folk schools” in the United States, “*Volkshochschule*” in Germany, “*popular universities*” in Poland, and “*folk development colleges*” in Tanzania.

As we are Hungarian the main question is how folk high schools work in our country. The history of the Hungarian residential folk high schools starts in 1917, when the first one was established in Bajszentiván. (Magyar Népfőiskolai Társaság 2012a) After it several new one came to existence mainly by the Catholic and Lutheran church. The Hungarian folk high school movement was at its height 1936-1948. A ministerial survey showed over 100 religious and secular folk high schools, mainly residential, in operation.” (Sz. Tóth 1999:177)

Like other Eastern European institutes, Hungarian folk high schools were closed by the Communist government in the 1950s. Still students and teachers have come together regularly and made discussion on different themes. These meetings helped to renew the folk high schools after the political liberalization in the mid 1980s. Today folk high schools work as NGOs and make strong effort to surmount to the poverty and under education in the underprivileged region of Hungary. More than hundred local or regional organization exist under the Hungarian Folk High School Association, and offer mainly free, non-residential courses for unemployed or under educated people, advocated by the European Union. We think that it would be beneficial if more folk high school came back to the long-term, residential courses, because in our opinion it is a more efficient way of improving the personality and the skills and this is what this people need.

In addition the main aim of the folk high schools is to prepare the people for the living in the European Union and the democratic citizenship, which is based on the following key elements:

- 1) *“knowledge of citizenship, democracy, politics and human rights;*
- 2) *experience and awareness in relation to citizenship activities in a variety of context: civil society, the state and the market;*
- 3) *culture and identity-work through the negotiation of meaning n democratic interaction;*
- 4) *practical training of civic competences.”* (Milana – Bernt Sørensen 2009:350)

In this context the EU programme named after Grundtvig is a great possibility both for adult learners and folk highs schools. E.g. Grundtvig workshops *„bring together individuals or small groups of learners (10-20 people) from several countries for their personal development and learning needs. Learners are also encouraged to share their competences and insights with others.”* (European Commission 2012) This way folk high schools can broaden their activity and gain a fair name not only in Hungary, but in whole Europe.

We can see that the chief task of folk high schools around the world is to satisfy the local demands, and therefore, the curriculum, the teaching methods and the chief target group are also adjusted to the characteristics of the given country or area. Whatever the case may be, a shared characteristic of folk high schools around the world

remains the fact that they appear in the local community as an alternative of formal education. Since in Europe there are several underprivileged region that need improvement, and as we see folk high schools are “*best practices*” in developing people and local communities, the advocacy by the European Union of the existing and the future folk high schools would be necessary.

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**JÁNOS ZOLTÁN SZABÓ**

***FESTIVALS AND NON-CONFORMISM IN HUNGARY***

Festivals, as known today, are not just rooted in traditional celebrations, but also have an example that is taken as the first arts festival in the History. This was Richard Wagner's Bayreuther Festspiele in 1876. Classic arts festivals, compared to traditional celebrations, were not feasts of seasons or saints but much rather celebrations of artists and artworks. Nevertheless arts festivals, opened until the World War II, were social occasion for the political, economic and noble elite and therefore were conformist cultural events. From the beginning, festivals played important role in identity such as Wagner was the symbol of the German unity, while the second generation of arts festivals, the international film festivals (Venice and Cannes) became part of the political fight before the World War II. After war welfare society and cultural democracy gave more and more freedom to citizens, generated more free time and leisure time, thus festivals started to become events for the wide public. And soon the conform festival programmes turned to something else – and came Woodstock in 1969.

In Hungary, the first festivals were also originated in the tradition, the Busójárás for example was a living tradition from the 1700's, but became a modern festival with an artistic programme from 1928. Technically the first Hungarian arts festival, the Szeged Open Air Festival (Szegedi Szabadtéri Játékok) was established in 1931. In the 1950's, however, well known festivals were not established because of political reasons. Years of 1960's raised the questions of conformity and nonconformity which were in strong relation with beat and rock music, the youth's behavior and dress code. Festivals were strongly controlled by communist state's cultural policy tools such as counter festivals organized by the state. Therefore the first rock festival was established only in the mid 1970's and was called the First Hungarian Pop Festival, 1973 (I. Magyar Popfesztivál, Miskolc). It could not become a regular event and nonconformist cultural behavior could become case of free decision only after 1989. As the latest milestone of festival culture the first commercial festival called Sziget Festival started in 1993. Sziget Festival and its

venue, the Óbuda Island, was a symbolic place of nonconformist concerts and festivals, such as black sheep concert (Fekete Bárányok koncert, 1981), Bye Bye Ivan, festival (Viszlát Iván Fesztivál, 1991). By that time nonconformist culture developed as alternative culture represented by alternative rock music and alternative music clubs.

As seen in this short introduction counterculture and nonconformist cultural movements were embedded into youth culture, music and festivals and developed constantly. Non-conformism was not a static state but a dynamic developing process; therefore it should be analyzed in longer period of time. Therefore my research questions would sound like

- How festivals, music and counterculture were connected to each other in Hungary?
- How can one understand today's conformist culture and nonconformist counterculture mechanisms via festivals?

I would like to answer these questions by theoretical, historical and empirical tools.

### **What is festival and how does it function?**

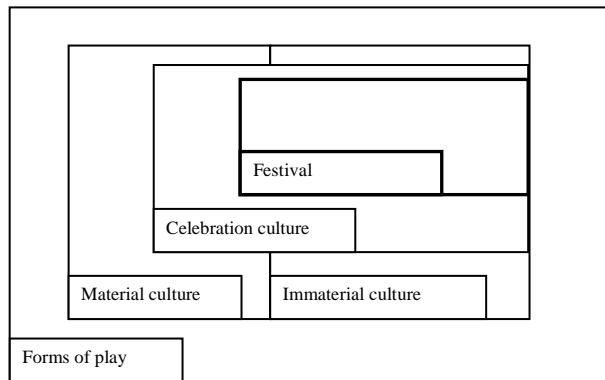
By notion, festival is referred in social sciences as “*periodically recurrent, social occasion in which, through a multiplicity of forms and a series of coordinated events, participate directly or indirectly and to various degrees, all members of the whole community, united by ethnic, linguistic, religious, historical bonds, and sharing a worldview.*” (Falassi 1987, 2). In order to focus on the social functions I want to emphasize from this scientific notion that festivals are recurrent, thematized celebrations set up by ritual events, which expose the identity, value and world view of the community. In 1997, a less scientific, but more practical notion was developed by the working group made of festival associations and the Hungarian Ministry of Education and Culture showing the emerging importance of festivals. This notion refers to festivals as “*periodically organised special or solemnized events with clearly defined opening and closing dates, targeting an audience with at least three programmes, which primary goal is exchange of values and community experience.*” (Wagner 1997,1). I consider this latest notion as applied notion of festivals.



Regarding the cultural context, festivals are widely understood as part of celebration culture. Huizinga strongly underline that celebrations are one of the most essential forms of play (Huizinga 1940, 31). Thinking further Huizinga's idea, I want to refer to festivals as one of the most pure form of play that requires:

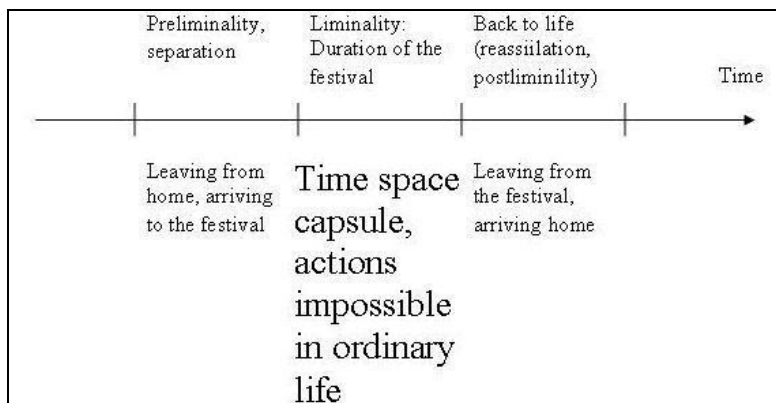
- free act and occupation,
- voluntary determined space and time (space-time capsule)
- freely chosen, but obligatory rules
- its goal is in itself: tension, pleasure, happiness
- special, different from ordinary life

*Figure 1: Festival as form of play (own drawing)*



The table above shows how I place festivals into culture, being part of celebration culture, being part of both immaterial and material culture and being form of play. To answer the question how festivals function we might also refer to the theory of liminality that was developed by Van Gennep and Turner and widely used in tourism sociology and culture theory.

Figure 2: Liminality of festivals  
(Own drawing based on Van Gennep (2007),  
Turner (2002) ideas on liminality)



I put the elements of the notion of play, celebration and festival into this timeline in order to show that liminality is understood as the state where actions can happen that are impossible in everyday life. This is how people can regenerate, rethink their life, feel the “flow” and happiness (Csíkszentmihályi 2010) and can enjoy the illusion of being part of primary community (Tönnies 1972). As second meaning, liminality is also understood as unstable social status, but I do not use this approach now.

The way festivals function in socialisation process is mainly based on the general function of agenda setting:

- „Causes via the festival programs “pre-cooking” topical issues in their different sections, specials and retrospectives.
- Hot topics can also emerge bottom up, via participants using the unique combination of place, occasion and physical presence to generate momentum.
- A third form of agenda setting is the one embedded in the temporal structure of the festival itself and generated by the journalists covering the festival for a broad public. Each year a festival acquires its characteristic themes from the press (or rather, from the competing information flows issuing from the festival press office, the film industry PR personnel and the professional journalists).” (Elsaesser 2000, 102).

According to my approach, liminality and agenda setting are the most essential elements of how festivals function efficiently in society. Using this theoretical approach, its time to turn to the questions put in the introduction about festivals, music and counterculture.

### **Historical interferences among festivals, music and counter culture in Hungary**

In the 1960's and 1970's the main arts forms of counterculture were beat and rock music in Hungary, while the main cultural field of the mainstream socialist realism was sculpture (T. Kiss 2002, 40). Different periods of times were represented by different music groups. The Great Generation – called the first youth culture movement in Hungary – started by beat music groups Bergendy, Metro, Illés and Omega. They appeared mostly on the dance song festivals organised by national TV and radio. Communist state propaganda used this festival form to influence the youth but in the meantime the youth has created its own culture. The symbols of this era were “The Jeans” trousers. State propaganda controlled these kinds of festivals by preliminary selection and the festival as form of play was not free neither for the presenters neither for the audience, because of the live TV and radio broadcasting.

In the late 1960's and early 1970's segmentation of subcultures turned out when Generál, Color, Express, LGT and Skorpió appeared. The Great Generation identified youth by sharing the same adorers groups (regardless ones favourites) while new subcultures rarely visited each others' concerts and clubs. Rock music appeared in the mid 1970's when Omega started to play rock and in the late 1970's punk rock and hard rock groups Beatrice, P. Mobil has become enemies of the Hungarian People's Republic. By that time the “3 T” (tűr, tilt, támogat= tolerate, forbid, support) system was on power in culture policy and Beatrice, P. Mobil and its adorers groups were part of the forbidden side of the system. Their symbols were not just the cut jeans, long hair and “neck kerchief” called babos kendő (red kerchief with white circles). They started to organize the first festivals at Miskolc (1973) and later they organized the first festival on Óbuda Island (Fekete Bárányok, black sheep concert). They and their adorers considered themselves as

groups who want to live free life but hated by the system. Besides dress code, song lyrics were focusing on social problems - this was the way they expressed their nonconformist counterculture. Even a film was shot with the title “Felt like living free” – “Úgy érezte szabadon él” directed by László Vitézy in 1979, but it was not possible to broadcast it until the next decade.

In the Kádár-era, Chanson Committee was controlling the lyrics of songs before recording and publishing. Some rockgroups not fulfilled the requirements of this committee like Beatrice and P. Mobil, but some others (Edda, Hobo Blues Band) were refined enough to change the words on records – on concerts they sang the song with different lyrics. While rock punk and hard rock bands were fighting against censorship, alternative rock bands came up and they were not keen to fight for official records – samizdat-like home made records were enough for them. When transition started in 1989 the new generation did not know too much about P. Mobil and Beatrice, they have got out of the star system again – but this time by the market. Well, communist star system disappeared but the new market developed slowly. These years electronic pop music were the mainstream in pop music and alternative rock bands (PUF, Tankcsapda, Kispál és a Borz) acted as nonconformist music. Only after a number of years they have become part of the star system, and festivals like Sziget and Sítkei Rock Festival helped them a lot in this process. By today alternative music has become a conformist direction and festivals are already reasonable programme for youth to go out.

*Table 1: Interferences among festivals, music and counter culture in Hungarian history from 1950 (time table starting from the top)  
(own drawing)*

Non-conform music scene	Festival scene
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Main cultural field of nonconformist cultural movements: music</li> <li>• Main cultural field of mainstream socialist realism: sculpture</li> </ul> <p><b>Great Generation (1960's):</b> Jeans and beat music, music groups: Bergendy, Metro, Illés, Omega</p> <p><b>End of 1960's-early 1970's:</b> segmentation of subcultures, Generál, Color, Express, LGT, Skorpió</p> <p><b>Mid 1970's:</b> emergence of rock Omega starts playing rock</p> <p><b>Late 1970's:</b> Punk rock and hard rock Beatrice, P. Mobil</p> <p><b>Early and mid 1980's:</b> emergence of new hard rock (Edda) and metal music (Pokolgép), blues by Hobo Blues Band</p> <p><b>Late 1980's, early 1990's:</b> alternative music (FUF, Kispál és a Borz, Tankcsapda)</p>	<p>No festivals established 1938-1957) survived Kádár system according to <a href="http://www.fesztivalregisztracio.hu">www.fesztivalregisztracio.hu</a> data base</p> <p>Song contests, Dance Song Festival on TV and radio, beat music clubs e.g.: Metro Club, Budai Ifjúsági Park</p> <p>Separated adorer's groups, less transit among them</p> <p><b>First rock festival:</b> 1973 Diósgyőr Stadium Miskolc, EFOTT 1975</p> <p>Hidden (not advertised) concerts and festivals. Fekete Bárányok (black sheep) festival at Óbuda Island</p> <p>Conflicts with Sanzon Bizottság, István a Király (Stephen the King, 1983) first bottom up private festival Sitkei Rockfesztivál (1986)</p> <p>Viszlát Iván! (Good Bye Iván!) Festival 1991 (at Óbuda Island) Sziget Festival from 1993 at Óbuda Island</p>

There were some major movements and actions done by the state against festivals organised by the civil or market sphere. One of them was the socialist internationalism and its major event the World Youth Festival (Világifjúsági Találkozó, VIT) from 1949. State controlled Song festivals (TV, radio) were already mentioned – they played also significant role in the 1960's and 1970's. The Hungarian star system was controlled by pre-selection of singers on local/county level at local competitions, Chanson Committee

controlled the lyrics, ORI Office (Országos Rendező Iroda) and Interkoncert Office controlled the concerts in the country and abroad.

In the 1970's and 1980's the state started to be more active in controlling festivals by organising counter festivals. In 1976, the Hungarian Solidarity Committee (Magyar Szolidaritási Bizottság) and Budapest Committee of Young Communist' Organisation, (KISZ Budapesti Bizottsága) organized a Solidarity rock festival at Budapesti Nemzetközi Vásár against nonconformist rock festival movement. Some of the groups playing at this festival were organized by the secret service, and the audience was recorded on video by the service.

In 1982, an other example for counter festivals was the concerts organized by Musicians' Union (zenész szakszervezet) at Óbuda island a year after Fekete bárányok festival in 1981. In the 1980's the secret service started to pay music groups, organised group members, on basis of the decisions made by Home Office.

The habit of counter festivals stayed a practice after 1989, as non-governmental anti-festival actions. One of the examples is Budapest Autumn Festival (Budapesti Őszi Fesztivál, BÖF, 1992) organized by the City of Budapest, which hidden goal was to act as an action against national nostalgia of Antall government (1990-1993). An other example of the Hungarian Sziget (Magyar Sziget, 2001) organized by Hatvannégy Vármegye Ifjúsági Mozgalom. Its goal was to act as an action against Sziget Festival, and give more opportunity for Hungarian (mostly radical Hungarian) groups. Probably, as a reaction to Hungarian Island Festival, Sziget Festival started day Zero (for legendary Hungarian groups, from 2005), and day minus one for The Day of Hungarian Song from 2008.

To sum up I might say that festivals were used in the conformist and nonconformist battle from both side: from the communist state and the communities of youth as well. As a result, habits of counter culture survived Kádár system, but by today, media has accepted the counter culture of the 1980's as part of mainstream music.

### **Current state of conformism and non-conformism at festivals**

In my empirical survey I asked 57 festival organisers by a questionnaire (kérdőívfelvétel kérdezőbiztosokkal, Babbie 2000, 286) and asked visiting experts to take observation notes on the festival using a visitor's questionnaire as guide (terepkutatás, megfigyelési napló Babbie 2000: 317-319). Asked festivals were supported by the National Cultural Fund as being outstanding events in 2007. When analysing these festivals I considered seven major variables: name, symbols, arts forms, autonomy, concept, values and functions and tried to identify the status of the festival by conformity.

By name, festivals could be segmented in two groups. Mainstream cultural festivals used the name of the place, season, week/days, historical age, person or the arts in general to identify themselves in the official name of the festival. Non-mainstream cultural festivals referred to geographical symbols inter/multicultural or alternative/contemporary in their labels.

By logos and symbols festivals were rather diverse: festivals could be separated into three groups. Festivals with old conform names usually missed to identify themselves by interesting logo or symbol, while non-conformist festivals were the most innovative. For example Snow White poisoned by the apple refers to the non-conformist culture as heavy issue at the poster of the non-conform Budapest Autumn Festival. While conform Szeged Open Air Festival has a rather conservative symbol of the basilica in its logo. Valley of Arts (Művészetek Völgye) and Happy Art Festival (Vidor Fesztivál) have innovative but easy read logos, both with natural symbols. These two festivals could not be classified being non-conform or being conform on the basis of the logos and symbols.

*Picture 1: Non-conform, mixed and conform festival symbols  
(Own montage based on festival logos and symbols)*



Finally I could identify four groups of conformity by arts forms and this stands for the four main category of conformity for the whole survey. Old-conform category stands for the arts forms classified as mainstream before counter culture appeared. New-conform row stands for the music used by counter culture, mostly rock and all its forms. Non-conform row stands for the contemporary, avant-garde culture. The mixed category refers to the fact that there are festivals mixing different conformist and new-conformist art forms, and aiming to revive the heritage and understanding of culture.



*Table 2: Festivals and conformity by multi-variables*

	Mainstream/old conform	Tradition revival /mixed	New conform	Non-conform
Name	Place, season, time (week/days), historical age, person arts in general	Reflections of the place (valley, hill), multi/intercultural, alternative/contemporary		
Logos and symbols	Not frequent, not innovative	Innovative logos, natural elements	Innovative calligraphies, logos	Avant-garde, Visual messages
Arts forms	Theatre, classical music, opera	Folk, classic and rock music, theatre	Rock music	Dance/alternative theatre, audiovisual,
Autonomy	Low (state/city owned institutions, arts unions)	Average (nonprofit, state/city owned)	High (independent nonprofit or for-profit)	High (independent nonprofit or for-profit)
Concept	Culture and cultural mediation in general, less articulated	Worked out, thought through renewing, reviving of culture	Worked out, thought through focus on youth	Worked out, thought through renewing, focus on contemporary arts
Values	Rather instrumental and other (political-economic)	Rather expressive	Rather expressive	Other: individualist
Functions	Memorial: local identity, heritage, entertainment, contest	Renewing: local identity, heritage, community experience, "sandwich"	Strengthening: experience of youth, diversity, tolerance, entertainment	Reforming: put contemporary (avant-garde) arts on stage
Typical examples:	Szeged Open Air Festival	Valley of Arts	Hegyalja Festival	Theater International

By autonomy I analyzed the independency of the organisers from state and market. I find that the more independent is an organization the less conform its festival can be classified.

By concept conform festivals are aiming to serve culture and cultural mediation in general, but their concepts were less

articulated. Non-conform festivals are focusing on contemporary arts, while new-conform festivals are targeting the youth. Mixed festivals wanted to renew, revive cultural heritage by using non/new-conform culture mixed with old-conform art forms.

By values we used the categories developed by Spates (1976): instrumental, expressive and other. Expressive values of counterculture could be observed at new-conform and tradition revival festivals.

By functions the most exciting was the sandwich function of revival festivals: they could pack hardly-consumed arts form in a series of more entertaining arts forms.

## **Summary**

Counterculture totally reformed music life, dress code, fashion and cultural conformity of the last sixty years and festivals took important part in this process. Expressive values of counterculture are still present at festivals using the tool of liminality and agenda setting. Today, however, conformity is not a simple bipolar relation, but rather a complex phenomenon – at least at festivals. There are groups of festivals that take part in the process of conformisation whether by renewing the heritage, or by effecting the youth community. In this paper I analysed four category of conformity that could be classified on the basis of the survey of festivals organised in 2007. The cultural socialisation process has become more complex in society and from the viewpoint of cultural conformity I identified a festival typology as follows: memorial (conform festivals), renewing (mixed festivals), strengthening (new-conform festivals) and reforming (non-conform festivals) festivals.

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## STATUS AND E-MAIL ADDRESS OF AUTHORS

Name	Status	E-mail address
Bacsikai, Katinka	University of Debrecen, candidate of Ph.D.	<a href="mailto:bacsikai.katinka@gmail.com">bacsikai.katinka@gmail.com</a>
Buda, András	University of Debrecen, lecturer, Ph.D.	<a href="mailto:buda.andras@arts.unideb.hu">buda.andras@arts.unideb.hu</a>
Engler, Ágnes	University of Debrecen, lecturer, Ph.D.	<a href="mailto:engler.agnes@arts.unideb.hu">engler.agnes@arts.unideb.hu</a>
Fekete, Ilona Dóra	College of Eszterházy Károly, assistant lecturer	<a href="mailto:feketeid@gmail.com">feketeid@gmail.com</a>
Herczegh, Judit	University of Debrecen, assistant lecturer	<a href="mailto:herczegh.judit@arts.unideb.hu">herczegh.judit@arts.unideb.hu</a>
Juhász, Erika	University of Debrecen, head of department, associate professor, Ph.D.	<a href="mailto:juhasz.erika@arts.unideb.hu">juhasz.erika@arts.unideb.hu</a>
Kenyeres, Attila	University of Debrecen, candidate of Ph.D.	<a href="mailto:attila.kenyeres@gmail.com">attila.kenyeres@gmail.com</a>
Kozma, Tamás	University of Debrecen, professor, D.Sc. habil.	<a href="mailto:kozmat3@gmail.com">kozmat3@gmail.com</a>
Laki, Ildikó	Hungarian Academy of Sciences, Centre for Social Sciences, researcher	<a href="mailto:laki@socio.mta.hu">laki@socio.mta.hu</a>
Márkus, Edina	University of Debrecen, lecturer, Ph.D.	<a href="mailto:markus.edina@arts.unideb.hu">markus.edina@arts.unideb.hu</a>
Miklósi, Márta	University of Debrecen, assistant lecturer, Ph.D.	<a href="mailto:takacs-miklosi.marta@arts.unideb.hu">takacs-miklosi.marta@arts.unideb.hu</a>
Oszlanczi, Tímea	College of Eszterházy Károly, assistant lecturer	<a href="mailto:timeaoszlanczi@gmail.com">timeaoszlanczi@gmail.com</a>
Pataki, Gyöngyvér	University of Debrecen, Ph.D. student	<a href="mailto:pataki.gyongyver@gmail.com">pataki.gyongyver@gmail.com</a>
Revákné Markóczi, Ibolya	University of Debrecen, lecturer, Ph.D.	<a href="mailto:markoczi.ibolya@science.unideb.hu">markoczi.ibolya@science.unideb.hu</a>
Simándi, Szilvia	College of Eszterházy Károly, lecturer, Ph.D.	<a href="mailto:simandiszilvia@ektf.hu">simandiszilvia@ektf.hu</a>

Szabó, Ágnes	University of Debrecen, MA student	<a href="mailto:agnes.szabo.89@gmail.com"><u>agnes.szabo.89@gmail.com</u></a>
Szabó, Ildikó	University of Debrecen, professor, D.Sc. habil.	<a href="mailto:szabil46@gmail.com"><u>szabil46@gmail.com</u></a>
Szabó, János Zoltán	Ministry of Human Resources, consultant, Ph.D.	<a href="mailto:szabojz1@gmail.com"><u>szabojz1@gmail.com</u></a>
Szirmai, Erika	Kölcsey Ferenc Teacher Training College, assistant lecturer	<a href="mailto:szirmai@kfrtkf.hu"><u>szirmai@kfrtkf.hu</u></a>
Tátrai, Orsolya	University of Debrecen, candidate of Ph.D.	<a href="mailto:tatrai.orsolya@gmail.com"><u>tatrai.orsolya@gmail.com</u></a>
Tornyai, Zsuzsa Zsófia	University of Debrecen, assistant lecturer	<a href="mailto:tornyizs@ped.unideb.hu"><u>tornyizs@ped.unideb.hu</u></a>
Tóthné Kosztin, Beáta	University of Debrecen, assistant lecturer	<a href="mailto:kosztin.beata@sciences.unideb.hu"><u>kosztin.beata@sciences.unideb.hu</u></a>