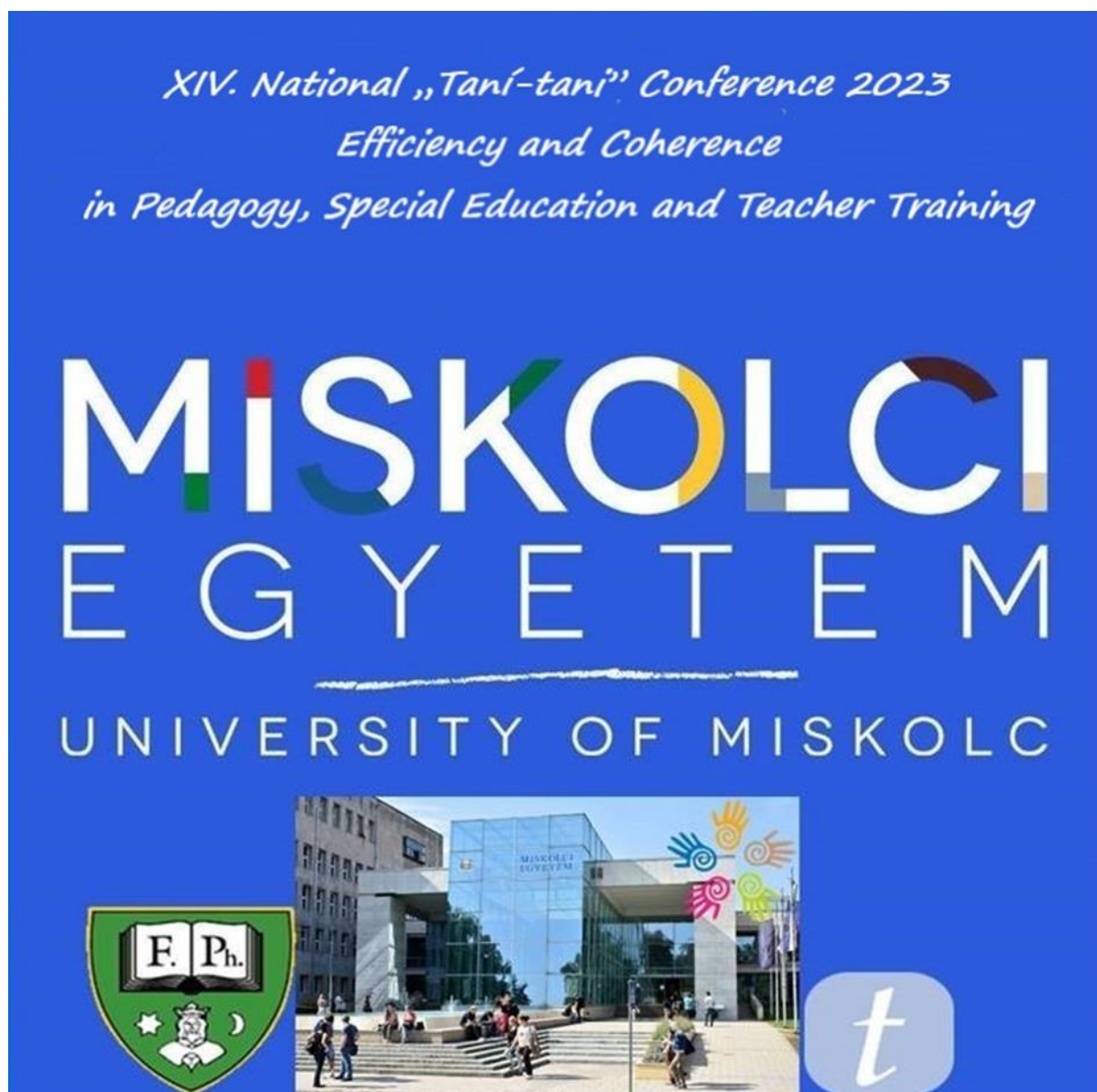


**FACULTY OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES  
DEPARTMENT OF TEACHER EDUCATION**



**COLLECTION OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE STUDIES  
ABOUT  
XIV. NATIONAL „TANÍ-TANI” CONFERENCE**

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in Pedagogy, Special Education and Teacher Training**

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## Preface

Dear reader,

Every year since 2008, the University of Miskolc has organized one of the most significant domestic "Teaching-Scientific" conferences. This year, the title of the conference was "Efficiency and harmony in pedagogy, special pedagogy and teacher training".

The main patron of the event was prof. dr. Rector Zita Horváth, rector. The plenary speaker was Professor Gábor Halász, who presented the third part of his novel trilogy, "The Magyar Pendulum". His interlocutor was Emese K. Nagy.

The languages of the international conference were Hungarian and English. Nearly two hundred people took part in the thematic sessions, including teachers, university students and doctoral students from Ghana, Vietnam, Romania and Slovakia. In this volume, we have collected the most successful English lectures.

The writings are extremely colorful, giving space to the latest research results. Each of the studies meets the expectations of science and the scientific method, and each demonstrates the author's commitment to the topic presented. The professional success was ensured by the community of the Teacher Training Institute, with great emphasis on the practical content of the lectures, the discussion of issues related to teacher training, and the involvement of practicing teachers.

Now it's your turn to read and interpret the writings!

K. Nagy E  
director general  
Teacher Training Institute  
University of Miskolc

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Aaron Ankomah Adjei  
Ghana  
Eötvös Loránd University, Department of Education

[Aaron Ankomah Adjei: The pull and push factors that influence Hungarian teachers' response to managing disruptive student behaviour](#)

## **1. Introduction and background**

Student discipline is a wide-reaching concern. Classroom disruption is a worldwide problem in schools both in its scope and scale and has been identified in many regions of the world including Hungary. According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2014), discipline is still one of the puzzling and provoking problems confronting teachers today, more so than ever before. Similarly, Sagalo and Rambuda (2018) claim that classroom discipline internationally is an aspect of classroom culture which determines efficacy and efficiency of education in schools. Internationally, a long lasting problem in the teacher workforce is the substantial number of qualified teachers resigning from the profession due to the challenge of disruptive student behaviour (DSB) (Allen, Burgess & Mayo, 2017; House of Commons Education Committee, 2017; Lightfoot, 2016; Lynch, Worth, Bamford & Wespieser, 2016; Sims and Allen, 2018).

For the sake of simplicity, it can currently be said that there are a number of deficiencies in this area of Hungarian higher educational practice that can be attributed to a lack of money (Nagy, 2020). In addition to the theoretical information that students acquire on their first day of enrolment in the higher education system, universities are unable to support their students' daily and weekly practical teaching experiences. We see the ability of students to use theoretical knowledge right away in practice as a crucial component of developing teaching competencies. This has led to poor classroom management by teachers. Nagy, further stated that, the dilemma is also made worse by the scarcity of training facilities that employ a variety of approaches to successfully handle the diverse disruptive student behaviour. Furthermore, in Hungary, there is a lack of mentoring program that may aid students in their preparation to become teachers, both at the university level and the level of the training institution (Nagy, 2020). We must look for ways to improve teaching abilities using the resources presently at the disposal of educational institutions in order to fill the aforementioned, ostensibly inescapable deficiencies. In the context of this study, more resources should be provided in order to support teachers to be well equipped to effectively manage disruptive student behaviour.

Teachers teaching in South Africa are gradually becoming upset about problems of discipline in schools, since corporal punishment was banned by legislation, such as the South African Schools Act (Republic of South Africa, 1996b) and the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996a). The Act states that the culprit is liable to a sentence. The above mentioned Acts protect children's rights to humane treatment and prevents the use of corporal punishment (Conley & Mestry, 2010; De Waal, 2011; Masitsa, 2011; Motseke, 2010). According to Section 10 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act No. 108 of 1996a, everyone has the dignity and the right to be respected and be protected. Teachers are obliged to encourage respect, patience and responsibility in schools (Department of Basic Education, RSA, 2010). The interactions between teachers and students must be based on mutual respect, dignity and responsibility. The Department of Basic Education, Republic of South Africa (2010) maintains that although students can be disciplined by teachers, the discipline should be done with the motive of correcting and educating students, instead of being punitive. To this end, teachers are

viewed as control mechanisms and are expected to establish and maintain a positive classroom environment for effective teaching and learning (Kaufman and Moss, 2010). Although researchers assert that classroom management is a combination of the teachers' ways of teaching, setting out class rules and teachers actions implemented to foster conducive learning environment (Evertson & Weinstein, 2013), most studies have concentrated on the behaviour of the entire class (Aldrup et al., 2018) and have provided more insights in teachers' opinions of disruptive student behaviour (DSB) (Aldrup et al., 2018; Becker, Keller, Goetz, Frenzel & Taxer, 2015). However, there are limited inquiries regarding the teachers experience in responding to DSB (pull and push factors). Due to the lack of experiences of most teachers to manage DSB, the objective of this study is to explore the factors that encourages positive response (pull factors) that shows caring for the learners as well as the factors (push factors) that results in negative response towards the disruptive learners in Complex Instruction Program (KIP) schools in Hungary.

According to teachers, responding to disruptive behaviour of students causes a great increase in classroom work-related issues and also reduces wellbeing (Aldrup, Klusmann, Lüdtke, Göllner & Trautwein, 2018; Aloe, Shisler, Norris, Nickerson & Rinker, 2014). Work-related well-being and workplace happiness have been acknowledged as important factors in performance, job satisfaction (Crede et al. 2007; Fisher 2010), and susceptibility to burnout (Iverson et al. 1998). Disruptive behaviour needs to be familiarized by teachers. This enables them to establish an arsenal of techniques to implement when encountering different challenges in the classroom (Gottlieb, 2015). The techniques used by the teacher should be evidence-based to help student's behaviours from negative to positive, create supportive and caring learning environments for learners (McIntosh, et al., 2010). These techniques may improve teaching and maximize instruction time as well as foster learner engagement and learning and also provide opportunities for students to succeed. In this regard, McDonald (2013) asserts that a Positive Learning Framework (PLF), that uses a three-phased model of prevention through self-awareness and management, lesson design and corrective action plans is an instruction approach to escalate the engagement of students by mitigating disruptive behaviours. With the PLF, teachers are liable for creating an environment favorable for classroom instruction.

Bagley (1908), one of the educators in the early modern Western asserts that before the twentieth century, educators incorporated the machine-like and military organization style of managing the classroom, whereas majority of the experienced and progressive educators were advocates of the self-government theory of classroom management in the later part of the twentieth century. The self-government theory emphasized on the development of self-discipline within students. On the other hand, the machine-like style of classroom management highlighted on rules and punitive consequences to manage disruptive student behaviour. This means that punitive consequences are used for correcting and preventing disruptive student behaviour to maintain an orderly and conducive environment for teaching and learning. On the contrary form the rationalist viewpoint, it is not always possible to apply procedures (rules) and principles when encountered with disruptive behaviour (Duesund and Magnar, 2018). According to McDonald (2013), several low-level responses such as eye-contact, proximity and non-verbal communication are effective in mitigating disruption in the classroom but also enable the teacher with the room to increase responses according to the severity of the misbehaviours if required.

Understanding the needs of learners also help teachers to effectively manage disruptive learner behaviour (DSB). The teacher needs to decide on "who owns the problem", before taking action in responding to a problem (Muhammad and Rahid, 2019). If the teacher owns the problem, the teacher must assist the learner to resolve the problem and if the learner owns the problem, it is the role of the teacher to understand and assist the learner to find his or her own solutions. To add on, Gordon expressed that in as much as the teacher ultimately takes

control of the classroom, the learner actually “owns” more of the problems. This means that learners, and not the teacher, should accept the responsibilities of their actions for change. In the context of this study, understanding the needs and caring for learners regardless of their behaviour may help teachers to manage disruptive learners in the classroom.

Responding to disruptive student behaviour is a challenging issue to many teachers. Researchers argued that responding to disruptive behaviour of students is an imperative driver of teachers’ professional wellbeing (Aldrup et al., 2018; Aloe et al., 2014). However, these behaviours causes stress and work loss amongst teachers (Boyce and McGowan, 2019; Ervasti, Kivimaki, Puusniekka, Luopa, Pentti, Suominen, Ahola, Vahtera and Virtanen, 2012). Disruptive student behaviour is the main source that cause teacher burnout and teachers to display negative emotions such as anger and frustration in the classroom (Tainio, 2012; Chang, 2013). A lot of researchers are in agreement that disruptive behaviour is one of the key concerns and causes of stress for both teachers and students (Nash, Schlösser, and Scarr 2016; Greene 2014; Duesund 2014; Levin and Nolan 2010; Colvin 2010). Teachers display negative emotions such as anger and resentment as a way of expressing their disapprovals to disruptive behaviour of learners (Margutti, 2011; Tainio, 2012). Students may respond to the similar emotions (reproaches) displayed by teachers and students will be at risk for being disruptive and also not controlling his/her emotions in class (Tainio, 2012). In this respect, the current study intends to explore the factors (push factors) that results in negative response towards the disruptive learners.

Disruptive behaviour can be defined in many ways. Disruptive behaviour is defined as a behaviour that controverts classroom instruction, and a major concern of teachers (Álvarez Hernández et al., 2016; Álvarez et al., 2016; Duesund & Ødegård, 2018; Jurado & Justiniano, 2017; Maddeh, Bennour & Souissi, 2015; Nash et al., 2016; Vega & González, 2016). This undesirable behaviours are associated to academic failure, academic performance and learning (Granero-Gallegos et al., 2020), which can also result in violent either within or outside the school context (Taylor & Smith, 2017). Thus, the absence or presence of disruptive behaviour will determine the success or failure in student’s academic performance (Granero-Gallegos et al., 2019). According to Befring and Duesund (2012), disruptive behaviour is mostly attributed to individual or environmental features. These behaviours arise when students own perceptions of a situation goes contrary to the demands of teachers (Woltering and Qinxin, 2016) which perturb the other students and can be shown in many forms such as disrupting the entire environment of the classroom and loud noise. In a similar vein, Jurado and Tejada (2019) define disruptive as an inappropriate behaviour that contradicts learning and distorts the relationship of individuals as well as the progress of the class, affecting not only the student but also the other students and the teachers who have to experience the consequences (Gutiérrez-Cobo, Cabello-Gonzalez & Fernando-Berrocal, 2017). These negative behaviours can be aggressive and therefore expressed through physical aggressions and verbal abuse such as irritating messages or threats (Santana, 2018). In this study, combining all the above mentioned definitions, disruptive behaviour will be acknowledged as a kind of student behaviour that deviates the instructions of the teacher, hence making it difficult for teachers to control and also affects the academic performance of students.

**Keywords:** classroom culture, classroom discipline, student behaviour

## **2. Research problem / problem statement**

In my ten years of experience as a teacher, I had opportunities to communicate and assess student teachers and in-service teachers during their teaching practices. From my observations and through the discussions I had with them, it was revealed that because they lack experience,

responding to disruptive learner behaviour was a serious challenge most teachers encountered. Due to the new legislation and regulations (SASA, RSA, 1996b) many teachers find it a major challenge to maintain discipline in their classrooms. Teaching as a profession is labelled as tedious and complex art and science. Disruptive behaviour of learners is a serious challenge which has a significant impact on the impairment of education for teachers, learners and the school community (Álvarez-Hernández, Castro-Paneda, Gonzalez-Gonzalez-de-Mesa, Alvarez-Martino & Campo-Mon, 2016; Granero-Gallegos & Baena Extremera, 2016; Jurado & Tejada, 2019; OECD, 2014; Vega & González, 2016). There are a lot of challenges raised by teachers pertaining to disruption of learners in the classroom and how they respond to such behaviours (Bushaw & Lopez, 2010; Harrison, Vannest, Davis, & Reynolds, 2012). Therefore, gaining enough experience and effective behaviour management strategies are imperative for both teacher well-being and academic achievement as well as conducive environment for learning (Jurado, Lafuente & Justiniano, 2020).

Ideally, experienced teachers who are well versed in disruptive learner behaviour using relevant strategies such as caring, motivating and understanding the need of learners may help in responding appropriately to disruptive learner behaviour in the classroom (Muhammad and Rahid, 2019; Sabol and Pianta, 2012). Lack of experience and teacher-learner relationship are some challenges teachers encounter (Flynn et al. 2016; Price and Crowley, 2015; Cooper and Jacobs, 2011). According to Milatz, Lüftenegger, & Schober (2015), teacher-learner relationship may prevent burnout. Regarding relationship and trust, Sabol and Pianta (2012) maintain that teacher and learner interaction is very important in learners' management and academic performance and social improvement. Kerdikoshvili (2012) claims that creating a favorable and smooth environment for instruction by engaging learners with relevant tasks is believed as a major tool of classroom management, but teachers should highlight on healthy rapport and interaction in the classroom. He further added that relationships such as being empathetic, communication, warmth and supporting learners regardless of their disruptive behaviours can lead to a positive classroom climate, hence mitigating disruptive behaviour in the classroom. Yuan and Che (2012) state that the family play a vital role in the behaviour of learners. However, Roberts (2014) asserts that, some teachers were in agreement that lack of parental involvement and discipline at home influences the behaviour of learners, hence very difficult for teachers to handle. Thus, the present study will focus on the experience of teachers' in responding to disruptive learner behaviour.

### **3. Rationale and significance**

With the few years I have been in the teaching profession, I observed that teachers with no or little experience in teaching finds it a huge challenge in managing disruptive learner behaviour. Understanding the behaviour of learners enable teachers to know more about the needs of learners and what causes the consistent behaviour. Having said this, I sometimes try to draw closer to learners to know the cause of the problem behind the consistent disruptive behaviours. This enables me to understand and address the problem with the relevant solution. This confirms a research conducted by Cross & Hong (2012), Jiang, Vauras, Volet, & Wang, (2016) that teachers being sympathetic in response, rather than using punitive strategies of disciplinary actions, will most likely help the disruptive learner and critical for effectively managing the classroom. Many teachers perceive managing of learner behaviour as a serious challenge in schools due to the fact that most teachers are not empowered enough to carry out the code of conduct in terms of learner discipline (Bray, 2005 and Xaba, 2011). This has escalated to the level of declination of discipline in the contemporary schools thus, resulted in poor teaching and learning process. The disruptive behaviour has demotivated most teachers in their lesson deliveries, hence affecting learner's academic performances. It is for these concerns that the



current study will focus on teachers' experience in responding to disruptive behaviour of learners. What makes this study different from previous studies is that, this study will be conducted in secondary schools in Tshwane north district. The focus will be on the factors that influence teachers' response to managing disruptive learner behaviour. My intention is to explore the experiences of teachers and how they act towards managing disruptive learners. The factors that encourages positive response (pull factors) that shows caring for the learners as well as the factors (push factors) that results in negative response towards the disruptive learners will be explored.

#### **4. Purpose of the study**

The research focus area is managing the disruptive behaviour of learners. My intention is to explore teachers' experiences in responding to disruptive student behaviour in KIP schools (Budapest) and the techniques teachers use in responding to these unruly behaviours. The focus of this study is to help investigate why teachers still show caring for students regardless of their behaviour and the factors that result in teacher burnout due to disruptive student behaviour.

#### **5. Aims and objectives of the research**

The research aims to explore teachers' experiences in responding to disruptive learner behaviour in the classroom.

The objectives are:

- To discover the factors that encourages positive response (pull factors) that shows caring for learners regardless of their disruptive behaviour
- To investigate the factors (push factors) that results in negative response towards the disruptive learners
- To understand how teachers perceive disruptive learner behaviour
- Make recommendations and present guidelines to enable schools to develop whole-school learner behaviour strategies.

#### **6. Research questions**

##### **Primary research question**

How do teachers' experience affect their response to disruptive learner behaviour?

##### **Secondary research questions**

Why do teachers care for learners regardless of their disruptive/unruly behaviours?

What are the factors that result in negative response towards disruptive learners?

How do teachers respond to learner behaviour in the classroom?

What are teachers' perceptions of disruptive learner behaviour?

#### **7. Theoretical framework**

Frameworks in relation to research are intellectual instruments used to theoretically guide the researcher (Sefotho, 2018). This means that, the researcher uses theory chosen as the framework of the study to explain the research findings (Imenda, 2014). It is the utilization of a theory to offer definition of an event or shade light on a particular research problem.

The central theoretical framework in this study to explore teachers' experiences and techniques used in responding to disruptive learner behaviour will be "Ethic of care" theory. This theory will also help the researcher to discover the factors that encourages positive response (pull factors) that shows caring for learners regardless of their disruptive behaviour as well as the

factors (push factors) that results in negative response towards the disruptive learners. Ethic of care theory was developed by Noddings (1984) and Gilligan (1982). The ethic of care is about acts of love and establishing relationships that empower others (Gilligan, 1982). The ethic of caring is about the act of creating connections and showing affections to endow others (Noddings, 2013). To care means to be responsible to protect, guide and maintain something or someone (Noddings, 2013). This collaborative, interactive process is made of the features of (a) engrossment, (b) commitment, (c) a motivational displacement, and (d) reciprocity.

Engrossment is when learners wish to understand the situations (physical and personal) of teachers. The approaches and presence of the learner needs to be assessed and accepted by the teacher. This means that teachers should step out from their own preferences and engross themselves with the sentiments such as troubles, uncertainties and expectations of learners. This implies that disruptive learner behaviour may be effectively managed when teachers understand, motivate and respond appropriately to them. Teachers are severely hindered from becoming more experienced in their practice because they involve emotions and do not take responsibility for their actions (Dreyfus and Wrathall, 2014; Gottlieb 2015). Having said this, teachers should involve themselves or draw closer to learners to know more about the history behind the consistent behaviour and the kind of strategies to imply to effectively manage disruptive learner behaviour in the classroom (Gottlieb, 2015).

Commitment/obligation as the second feature of ethic of care echoes that caring for learners should be the main priority (responsibility) of teachers. Teachers Dialogue is fundamental in building caring relations. In respect to this, Noddings (2013) states that dialogue refers to talking and listening, sharing and responding. This means that disruptive learner behaviour will continue and could even escalate if there is no dialogue or teacher does not see it as his/her main responsibility and learners are left alone to manage it (Ødegård 2014). The purpose of dialogue is not solely for teachers to obtain information to make decision but also helps to sustain caring relations regardless of students behaviour. During dialogue, the teacher is able to know the feelings and the needs of learners rather than making assumptions of what students' needs are. Teachers and students get to know each other better when dialogue is used, this help teachers to understand and know their students the more and respond to their needs appropriately.

The third feature of the ethic of care is Motivational displacement. According to Noddings (2013), the caring relationship is achieved when teachers are obliged to motivational displacement. The displacement of motivation is when there is an equal flow of energy in direction of both (teacher and student) needs. The ethic of caring advocates that teachers approach to students' needs should be from a subjective and irrational viewpoint of "I must do something" instead of "something must be done" approach. The "something must be done" approach allows teachers to concentrate more on the problem instead of understanding the reasons and needs of students. This might result in negative response towards the disruptive students (Push factors). The concentration of teachers should emphasis on assisting students to relieve their troubles and to realize their confidence. Teachers caring to meet the needs of learners also means that caring must be a skill of persistence (Noddings, 2012b). This means that teachers should understand and show continuous care for students regardless of their behaviour. Such students are ready to listen in class when teachers' pay attention to their sentiments or exhibit care (Skvorak, 2013). Having said this, the teacher needs to be experienced or have in-depth knowledge to address the concerns and academic needs of students. To achieve this, the teacher must develop relevant strategies/techniques to respond to disruptive behaviour in the classroom (Riley et al., 2010).

The final feature of the ethic of care is reciprocity. Learners contribute to the caring process by responding to the actions or the presence of the teacher. Responses such as nodding affirmatively, smiling or verbally saying, "yes I finally understand the concept" or saying "thank

you". This means that both the teacher and the student must be required to facilitate the ethic of care relationship. However, there will be a smooth flow of classroom instruction, hence mitigating disruptive learner behaviour. Noddings (2012) affirms that when students do not recognize the effort of the teacher, there is no caring relation occurring. In this study, a caring relationship may be realized when there is the presence of engrossment, the commitment from teachers, the motivational displacement and the reciprocity.

## **8. Research methodology and design**

In this study, phenomenological inquiry will be used to interpret lived experiences (Smith, Larkin and Flowers 2009) of teachers. Lived experience is pre-reflective, comprising the physical world as believed by individuals according to experience of self, body and relationships. Therefore the analysis and collection of data will be done in accordance to the principles of qualitative research approach.

### **8.1 Research approach and design**

Mixed methods will be appropriate for this study. In the research community, mixed techniques have been defined in a number of ways. Mixed method inquiry is an approach to exploring the social world that, in an ideal scenario, comprises more than one methodological tradition and hence more than one way of knowing (Greene, 2006). According to Cresswell & Clark (2011), mixed methods research is a research design (or methodology) in which the researcher collects, analyzes, and mixes (integrates or connects) both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or a multiphase program of inquiry. In this study, the latter definition will be adopted.

The research design in this study will be phenomenology. Phenomenology as a qualitative research design provides an understanding of a particular issue from the participants' perspective of their social realities (Patton, 2004). Phenomenologist focus on describing what all participants have in common, for the purpose of this study, it will be about the factors that influence Hungarian teachers response in managing disruptive behaviour of students in the classrooms. It is the responsibility of the researcher to understand and describe the factors that influence the research participants response in managing disruptive behaviour of students. Phenomenological inquiry focuses on the meaning that certain lived experiences hold for participants, that is to determine what an experience means for the person who have had the experience and is ready to provide a comprehensive description of it (Maree, 2016). With this approach, I will be required to set aside my personal biases. This means that, I will not give a personal judgement about the phenomenon being studied. Instead, I will understand the experiences of the participants about the behaviour of learners. Further, I will also be able to explore the causes of disruptive behaviour of learners and the strategies that is used by teachers. The experiences and the perceptions of teachers about disruptive behaviours of learners will also be understood by the researcher by using the phenomenological design. A phenomenological study also describes the meaning of lived experiences of several participants of a concept or a phenomenon. Several kinds of classroom disruptive behaviours will be described by the teachers and the strategies they use in managing them with the usage of phenomenology as a research design. Strategies for managing disruptive classroom behaviour may be applied with the help of discipline as self-control theory which maintains that the use of I-message and active listening principles encourages teachers to identify the needs of learners and give support in solving the problems owned by learners.

### **8.2 Site and participants**

The research will be conducted in five KIP secondary (Complex Instruction Program) schools in Budapest, Hungary. School premises will be the appropriate site for this study because of the phenomenon being studied.

In this study, the researcher intends to do simple random sampling in selecting the participants. Simple random sampling is **a type of probability sampling in which the researcher randomly selects a subset of participants from a population (REFERENCE)**. Each member of the population has an equal chance of being selected. Data is then collected from as large a percentage as possible of this random subset.

Teachers experiencing management of disruptive behaviour of students will be selected to generate rich information for the study. This technique is widely used in mixed method research for the identification and selection of information-rich cases for the most effective use of available resources (Patton, 2002). The current study will be done in schools where teachers experience disruptions in their classroom and the factors that influence their response to managing such unruly behaviours. Using simple random sampling method, the researcher will randomly select individual participants from a population who are experienced or knowledgeable in the management of disruptive behaviour of students (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). In addition to experience and knowledge of participants, the researcher will consider the availability and willingness of participants who will participate and also effectively communicate their opinions and experiences in an expressive, articulate and reflective manner (Bernard, 2002). In contrast, probability or random sampling, which consciously include a diverse cross section of ages, backgrounds, and cultures, the notion behind simple random sampling is to randomly select a subset of participants with specific characteristics who are willing to support with the relevant research.

### **Talk about KIP schools in this paragraph**

Twenty teachers with teaching experience ranging between 5 years, 10 years and over 10 years will be randomly selected to be interviewed. The contributions of all levels of teachers as indicated above will be taken into consideration. The study will involve ten male and ten female teachers with the range of the above teaching experience. A selection of ranges of teaching experiences and both gender of teachers will ensure different categories of participants' responses to managing disruptive behaviour of students in the classrooms. The aim of the study is not to generalize the findings, instead provide a rich interpretation and an in-depth knowledge of the participants' experiences, perceptions, causes, strategies and factors that influence their response to managing disruptive behaviour of students in KIP secondary schools in Budapest, Hungary.

## **9. Data collection**

Data from the participants will be collected through interviews. This approach will be employed in the KIP schools that have been randomly chosen to gather information on the factors that influence teachers' response to managing disruptive student behaviour. The researcher will use a semi-structured interview technique to collect data. Interview as one of the proposed methods of data collection will be in the form of conversation with the intention of exploring with participants about their views, opinions and beliefs about the phenomena being studied (Wiersma and Jurs (2008). Opinions by participants will not be used to conclude the findings (Bryman, 2008), but will help the researcher to understand and acquire deep knowledge of the phenomena (Masadeh, 2012).

In contrast to other data gathering techniques, interviewing is affordable, yields results quickly, and enables the analysis of huge samples. The administration of the school will assist the researcher in randomly selecting the participants for the interview. This will be done after the researcher has seek the consent of the participants. Having said that, high rate of participants may refuse to participate in a telephone interview. O'Leary (2004) draws attention to the fact that the interviewer has little control over the interview process and that not all of the target populations will be accessible for interviews, which limits the interviews. Interview enhances flexibility and openness (Patton, 2002: 43). By ensuring that the interview questions are uniform and written simply, the researcher will ensure that the interview's pace is well managed. The researcher will make sure that every question will be carefully constructed to ensure that it is clear to the participants. Anonymity will be guaranteed for participants when answering the questions. By carefully developing and describing the interview questions, the researcher will also ensure that each one is pertinent to solving the study topic.

Additionally, the researcher will carefully and accurately record the interview, and before doing so, she will get the participants' permission. This will be accomplished by getting the participants' permission prior to the interview. Making notes will assist the researcher in reviewing the participants' responses and posing questions to them after the interview (King and Hoorocks, 2010). When the interview is over, the researcher will check the notes, listen to the audio, and reflect on the interview to identify any gaps that need to be addressed in a subsequent interview (Maree, 2016).

Additionally, structured questionnaires will be used in this study to generate confirmatory results despite differences in methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation. In order to collect information from respondents, a structured questionnaire is a document that consists of a series of standardized questions with a fixed design that sets the precise language and sequence of the questions (Cheung, 2021). The use of questionnaires can reveal evidence among large populations (Kendall, 2008). Participants respond to questions in a structured questionnaire by choosing one of several possible replies (such as multiple choice or Likert scales), and the results are often quantitatively analyzed. Despite the fact that questionnaires are typically thought of as a more objective research tool that can generate generalizable results due to large sample sizes, results can be threatened by a variety of factors, such as poor questionnaire design, sampling and non-response errors, biased questionnaire design and wording, respondent unreliability, ignorance, misunderstanding, reluctance, or bias, errors in coding, processing, and statistical analysis, and incorrect interpretation of results (Oppenheim, 1992)

## **10. Data analysis**

A thematic data analysis will be used to determine series and put data into categorize in accordance to the main subjects that will come from the interview (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Grbich, 2013). Prevailing themes that comes out will be interpreted phenomenologically (Smith et al 2009) accompanying own inferences, taking into account contextual intelligence to maintain validity and objectivity (Braun and Clark 2006). The interview transcripts will be read several times and memo notes will be written down to interpret the data later. The analysis process will include coding of the interview transcripts.

Coding is the process of reading carefully through a transcribed data and meaningfully dividing it into analytical units (Maree, 2016). The researcher will read and re-read the data before focussing on the sections of the transcripts for coding (Oun and Bach, 2004). Coding of the data will be done to help the researcher organise the interview data by identifying and labelling the vital notes in the data that might lead to answer the research questions. The coding process will enable the researcher to rapidly retrieve and gather all the text and other data which

might have associated with some thematic idea so that the organised codes can all be analysed and different cases compared in that respect.

After the coding is completed, the researcher will then categorise the various codes into a hierarchical system to help the researcher make sense of the data. This will be very effective because the types of relationship between subsets of data and subcategories will be shown. According to Graneheim and Lundman (2004), creating categories is the core feature of qualitative content analysis. After completing the ordering of the categories, the researcher will develop definitions for each category, subcategory and the code. Defining each category will help the researcher in the preparation for reporting findings. The researcher will also make sure to identify typical examples for each code and category from the data. This will keep the researcher focus on the meaning of every code and category and also help in the discussion of the findings.

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Agyare-Opoku, Cindy  
Ghana  
PhD Student at Eötvös Loránd University

Agyare-Opoku, Cindy: The 'Third Mission': Exploring doctoral supervision in Hungarian and Ghanaian Higher Institutions; Students' and Supervisors' perspectives

## **1. Introduction and background of the study**

The 'Third Mission' calls for an improved thoughtfulness of the university entrepreneurship phenomenon (Woollard, 2010). Bearing this in mind an entrepreneurial university could be defined as a survivor of competitive settings with a mutual approach oriented to being the best in all its undertakings (e.g., producing excellent supervision and research) and attempts to be more creative and innovative in instituting links between education and research (Kirby 2005). The Hungarian Act CCIV of 2011 on National Higher Education identifies the essential growth conditions necessary to raise values and to improve and transfer competitive knowledge. Similarly, Ghanaian universities also execute a significant undertaking of research and teaching the high level human resource to apply and transform research effects into innovative and economic development outcomes (Draft ESPR, 2012, NAB website 2012). It is imperative to mention that, in this era of (HEIs) transformation, institutions are encountering new anticipations concurrently (Goldstein 2006). In order to function and be competitive in a multifaceted system HEIs must apply a strategic approach in their management (Barnett 2000). One of this approach to effectively function, be innovative, competitive and meeting the economic needs of the country is the production of quality knowledge-based research through excellent supervision or teaching and learning.

Supervision is an advanced teaching and learning in Higher institution (Barnett 2000). Globally, research supervision/teaching and learning remains dynamic and a complex area of activity. In Hungary and Ghana particularly, the demand for specialized skills and inventive research due to globalization, and universities meeting the needs of the economy has obligated many universities to produce large number of doctorates (Alam, Alam & Rasul, 2013). While opportunities and admissions to doctoral studies have also been increased, most universities in developed and developing nations are presently underfunded owing to reduced government subsidies. Hence, most universities greatly rely on full paying international students. It is worth mentioning that, educational organizations are trying hard to develop their academic standing through improving their research competences, and establishing a brand image to attract full paying undergraduate and postgraduate students (Alam, Alam & Rasul, 2013). To achieve the goal of attracting postgraduate (Masters & PhD) students, universities are determined to develop the excellence of doctoral research, provide quality supervision for greater student satisfaction, completion and publication, and establish research support services comprising of resources and facilities (Ismail & Abiddin, 2011). Thus for HEIs to be competitive and attractive, they must safeguard the competitiveness of their produced and disseminated knowledge (Horvath, 2015) through quality supervision/teaching and learning enacted from a marketing methodology. However, doctoral supervision is not without pitfalls. At present, both students and supervisors are experiencing a huge pressure to complete doctoral programs within a defined candidature timeframe, in addition to financially support families by taking jobs. If essential infrastructure, supervision/teaching and learning and research setting are not available, pressures and expectations can harmfully disturb the creation of new knowledge, the goals of the 'third mission', and writing excellent thesis by postgraduate students (Ismail & Abiddin, 2011).

There is a comprehensive literature on the third mission (Wollard, 2010), entrepreneurial university (Horvath, 2015; Etzkowitz, 2013). Doctoral students and supervisors' expectations and experiences about postgraduate research supervision are also broadly described (Hu, van Veen & Corda 2016; Olmos-López & Sunderland 2016). Even more precisely, issues on how student-supervisor relationship affect student progress and completion are also documented (Masek 2017; Doğan & Bıkmaz 2014). However, little research, has examined the 'third mission: exploring doctoral supervision in Hungarian and Ghanaian Higher Institutions; Students' and Supervisors' perspectives. This is therefore the gap this research project targets to close.

**Keywords:** creativity, education, innovation higher

## 2. Research problem

In Hungary, Ghana and else the mistake that is often made in higher education institutions is the hypothesis that every academic staff, by virtue of his or her knowledge in teaching, knows what is essential to supervise doctoral students' research. However, research proves that this is not typically the case, instead many academic staff need further training to be able to supervise graduate students effectively (Metcalf, 2000). Secondly, academic supervisors and students who fail to work collaboratively, and engage in innovative ideas to mention but a few only contribute to failure of postgraduate students to complete their studies (Naim and Dhanapal 2015; Bitzer 2011).

While doctoral supervision is an undebatable prerequisite that should be highly considered when discussing about graduate students' academic success, innovation, knowledge transfer, competitiveness and a prosperous economy (Abiddin, Ismail & Ismail, 2011), little is known from the reflection of this topic seriously examined through supervisors' and students' perspectives in order to guide the students to complete their studies and impact their societies at large. It is from this backdrop that the proposed study seeks to explore on the research phenomenon. In this study, I endeavor to comprehend how doctoral studies in higher institutions can be improved to both fulfill the necessities of educational and societal needs by way of a logical literature review and policy analysis of doctoral students' and supervisors' perspectives in Hungary and Ghana. The purpose is to conjure up new ways of enhancing the quality of Doctoral education in the two countries. Promoting the next cohort of scholars in the speedily changing world of today is a significant challenge. In addition, the fast growth of new knowledge, the economy and changes of needs in society involve new demands on research communities' obligation to improve future researchers' capability to produce new knowledge and also interconnect research results in a trustworthy way.

## 3. Rationale and Significance

As a postgraduate (Master's) student, I have studied both in Ghana and South Africa. I enjoyed the supervision of my previous supervisor in South Africa. In fact, due to her good skills in supervision, I discussed with her to proceed in supervision for my Master's degree after completion of Honors degree. My reason for this request was that, she was a good supervisor (Doyle et al., 2005; Ramani et al., 2006). Her supervision approach was peer learning enacted from the "*activity theory*" which was very helpful to me mainly because the one-on-one traditional supervision where power relations in which the supervisor is a "master" and I a "learner" was inactive (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Instead her theory of practice which was peer learning enhanced a more partner-like relationship. In my upcoming Doctoral study, it is my passion to study how quality doctoral supervision can meet the goals of 'the third mission' such

as economic expansion and social change (Perkmann et al 2013; Guerrero et al. 2016). The proposed study is worth doing because, it will add to the body of knowledge on the research phenomenon. Further, academic supervisors could be empowered on a deeper understanding and implementation of peer learning in the supervision of Doctoral students. While Doctoral students will be motivated to effectively engage in peer learning and work collaboratively with their supervisors. University institutions could encourage the organization of professional development programs to train academic supervisors on the implementation of peer learning for effective supervision/teaching and learning to yield knowledge creation, innovation, competitiveness and a boosted economy.

#### **4. Purpose and aims of the study**

Explore features of the doctoral supervision from different countries that are possible to share between contexts in order to improve excellence of the research conducted in achieving the third mission.

The study objectives are as follows:

- Examine features of the doctoral education possible to improve excellence of the research conducted for competitiveness, innovation and economic growth.
- Understand how doctoral supervision in relation to courses, seminars and other mandatory activities for Doctoral students are valued.
- Investigate differences between the PhD-programs in Ghana and Hungary regarding design of the mandatory parts of the program.
- Define clear needs that can be addressed in courses for Doctoral students and professional development programs for supervisors.

#### **5. Research question**

##### **Primary research question**

What are the aspects of the doctoral supervision from different countries that are possible to share between contexts in order to improve excellence of the research conducted in achieving the third mission?

##### **Secondary research question**

- What are the features of the doctoral education possible to improve excellence of the research conducted for competitiveness, innovation and economic growth?
- How is doctoral supervision in relation to courses, seminars and other mandatory activities for Doctoral students valued?
- What are the differences between the PhD-programs in Ghana and Hungary regarding design of the mandatory parts of the program?
- What are the needs that can be addressed in courses for Doctoral students and professional development programs for supervisors?

#### **6. Theoretical Framework**

The '*Activity theory*' established in the 1920s by Vygotsky and associates, emphasizes that learning is firstly a social practice, which develops in an 'activity system', where human action is concerned with a precise result, and interceded by objects (Viviana, 2018; Vygotsky 1980). Activity theory is well situated to conceptualize '*peer learning*' which the researcher will adopt as a principle for activity theory (Viviana, 2018). Topping (2005) defined peer learning as 'the attainment of knowledge and skill through vigorous helping among matched companions'. Research confirms that peer learning provides significant opportunities and advantages to help

postgraduate students overcome diverse challenges encountered in their academics and beyond as well as enhancing collaboration and collegiality among students (Callcott et al., 2014; Byl et al., 2011; Lehmann, 2014; Magnessio & Davis, 2010). In the proposed study, I intend to focus on peer learning as a principle for the activity theory to help in my analysis and discussions. The peer learning will imply to this study that student-centered approaches to learning are encouraged although supervisors facilitates the learning and participation process to ensure full engagement, greater knowledge attainment, skills and interdependence (MOET, 2009; Thanh-Pham, 2010a&b).

## **7. Research Approach**

In this proposed study, the researcher intends to adopt a generic qualitative approach to explore on the research phenomenon. Nieuwenhuis (2007) defined a qualitative research approach as the interpretation of meanings in line with how individuals interpret their experiences, how they construct meanings to their worlds and what meaning they relate to their experiences. Qualitative research has the benefits of understanding human experiences in their natural settings and understanding different people's voices about events, to mention but a few (Manion, & Morrison, 2011). By adopting a qualitative approach, I will be privileged to produce a thick description of participants' feelings, experiences and opinions and interpret the meanings of their actions (Rahman, 2016) from different perspectives. In the process of data collection, I will interact with participants directly through telephonic interviews to elicit the feelings and perceptions of the study (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011; Maree, 2016).

## **8. Research Design**

Research design is a kind of exploration within a research approach (qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods) that provides a particular direction and set of actions or procedures to be followed in doing a study (Creswell, 2014; Lankshear & Knbell, 2004). In qualitative research approach, the research designs include ethnography, phenomenology, case study, grounded theory (Fouche & Schurink, 2011). However, for the purpose of this study, a case study design will be used to study the phenomenon of postgraduate supervision/teaching and learning. Yin (2014) indicated that a case study is 'an in-depth exploration from many perspectives of the problem and uniqueness of a specific project, policy, institution, programme or system in real life context, and researchers collect detailed information over a consistent period of time. A case study normally explores one case for which multidimensional data are gathered and analyzed (Stake, 2010). My intention of adopting a case study is to explore participant's self and their real-world context and gain understanding of the participant's experiences in conjunction with the research phenomenon, which will enable me to answer my research questions (Maxwell, 2009). In this proposed study, the case will be postgraduate supervision of the academic supervisor. Where academic supervisors create supervision or teaching and learning grounded on collaboration and partnership (see Wisker et al., 2003), supports their students, demonstrates interest in and appreciates the student's plans, and saves time and give propositions to augment the quality of the research plan (Kumar & Stracke, 2007). Academic supervisors will narrate their understanding of postgraduate supervision and how they execute their supervision practices and roles, their success, challenges and recommendations. Students will be able to also narrate their experiences of the supervision journey, success, challenges and proposals.

## **9. Research site**

The study will be conducted in two higher institutions in Hungary and Ghana instead of three and four higher institutions because as an international researcher I would be restricted to what is manageable in terms of time. However, by using two higher institutions I will be having two cases to study which will be sufficient for interviews. The names of these institutions will not be mentioned. I intend using public universities for my study because, I am more comfortable in the public settings since I had my undergraduate and two postgraduate studies in public universities. I will choose these schools for my future study because I will have access to academic supervisors as well as postgraduate students. The aim of the study is not to generalize the findings, instead provide a rich interpretation and an in-depth knowledge on the research phenomenon.

## **10. Research Sample**

Sampling is the process of selecting participants (Gravetter & Forzano, 2009). I intend to employ a non-probability sampling (purposive sampling) by selecting participants who have the potential to be knowledgeable to provide relevant rich information on postgraduate supervision based on their experiences. Whiles supervisors should have at least 5-10 years of supervision experience, students should be Doctoral students, in their first year to final year of completion. This criteria of selection will enable me to acquire relevant information from participants who are experienced and knowledgeable on the research phenomenon. Demographics of the selected participants will include age, sex, race, ethnic group and language. While I classify these students, attention will be paid on the nationality of students in order to have local and international representatives. All participants will be fluent in English. A total number of thirty (30) participants will be purposely selected from two public universities and interviewed, which will include five (5) academic supervisors and ten (10) Doctoral students from each institution. The main rationale of selecting the academic supervisors and postgraduate students for this study is due to the reality that they work as a body in the institution and will be knowledgeable enough to share their experience in line with the study. To have access to postgraduate students, I will approach the postgraduate administration office for a database of Doctoral students registered for the academic year 2023 and their contact details. I will send invitation letters to Doctoral students through e-mails. Subject to the number of students that will communicate interest in contributing in the study, I will classify them into three stages of their studies – early years (1st and 2nd years), middle years (3rd to 4th year) and final year (4th or beyond).

## **11. Data collection**

In this study, I will use semi-structured interviews to collect data. I will adopt telephonic interviews as a data collection tool due to the current pandemic. Block and Erskine (2012) defined telephone interview as communicating with participants through the telephone using pre-set questions to prompt the responses. In this proposed study, I intend to make an initial telephone communication with my participants (Glogowskwa et al., 2011). I will schedule the interviews at times that are convenient to the participants and arrange a convenient time for pre-interview training and post-interview debriefing (Smith, 2005). I intend to seek permission from my participants to digitally record our conversation (Yin, 2011) even though I will also be making notes. According to Mabuza et al. (2014), interviews should be transcribed verbatim. Meaning that, I will be recording and transcribing my interview word by word and not paraphrased or summarised.

## **12. Data analysis**

Doctoral students' transcribed stories will be individually analyzed in accordance with four predetermined categories (Sharma-Brymer & Fox, 2008). These will include power relation between supervisors and students, challenges in postgraduate supervision, supervisors' knowledgeability of research methodology, pedagogy and student-supervisor relationship. I will code leading explanations to determine variances and likenesses between the codes with a view to recognizing possible patterns (Nieuwenhuis, 2007). I will then group together the associated patterns of categories which I predict would give rise to specific themes. Finally, I will compare the developing themes with understandings I will gain from literature. This will allow me to summarize what I have seen or heard into common phrases, words or patterns that help me to comprehend that which is developing (Benaquisto, 2012).

### 13. Proposed work plan (Subject to be in sync with host university)

1	Coursework/Proposal development	September 2022 until March 2023
2	Examination	April 2023
3	Ethics application	May 2023
4	Literature review and methodology	June 2023 until August 2023
5	Fieldwork	September 2023 until November 2023
6	Data analysis and writing-up chapter on findings as well as the final chapter	January 2024 until April 2024
7	Examination	May 2024 until August 2024
8	Submission	September 2025

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## **Abstract**

It cannot be denied that there is no future without learning because formal, non-formal and informal ways of learning are the keys to advancement and development. However, according to the ordinary sense, we presume that learning is equal to school and it means the acquisition or learning the teaching-learning material. In this sense, there is no learning without teachers.

Being a teacher is one of the world's most uplifting and unique professions. It is a mission, a miracle, to impart love, values, standards and knowledge to bright-eyed, curious and enthusiastic students. Becoming a teacher does not begin by crossing the gates of teacher training institutions. Many teachers stated that they decided to become a teacher in first grade, because their teachers served as examples for them. Different external and internal factors of motivation, commitment to pedagogy, the acquisition of disciplinary professional-pedagogical knowledge, and the experiences of teaching practices are shaped into a profession. Through a case study, the research aimed to reveal what role the individual and group exercises and the mentor teachers who guided these practices played in becoming a teacher. During the questionnaire survey, we sought answers to, among other things, what expectations the students had to meet and what experiences they gained during their teaching practices. At the same time, it is also an essential point to focus on the students' expectations in connection with their mentors. It is also important to clarify how the mentors of the teaching practices are selected.

Based on the research results, it can be concluded that neither the students nor the mentors dispute the necessity and usefulness of teaching practices. Successful cooperation is based on a system of positive human and professional qualities. Joint work also helps the professional development of students and mentors.

**Keywords:** mentor teacher; primary school teacher training; teaching practice; learning

## **1. Introduction**

One of the burning questions of our days is the social, professional and financial respect of teachers, the increase in the average age of the teaching community, burnout, and the drastic decrease in the number of young teachers starting their careers. There is no future without effective, efficient, accepting attitude, and inclusive approach in quality education and teachers who are open and committed to the renewal of their pedagogical culture, continuous professional development and innovation. Research proves that it is becoming more and more difficult to attract motivated and capable young people to teacher training. At the same time burnt-out teachers, who do not really see career opportunities in education, increasingly characterise this profession. (Lannert and Sinka, 2009).

In order to achieve quality education, which is an individual as well as a social interest, we need motivated teachers with high professional and human qualities who are willing and able to do a lot for education. This idea is confirmed by the following quote.

“The quality of education is one of the factors that determine whether a country can increase its competitiveness, the welfare and well-being of its citizens in our globalizing world

(OECD, 2009). One of the keys to the success of educational systems is the teacher" (Paksi-Schmidt-Magi-Eisinger-Felvinczi, 2015, p.63).

It is important to know what conditions must be met those who choose the teaching profession, as well as those who work as active teachers, so that they can really contribute to the creation and maintenance of the quality of the education system. The following thoughts can provide the answer to this question.

Based on an international background analysis focused on the profession of teaching prepared by the OECD (2011), "reforms in the four main areas of the teaching profession will mostly result in the strengthening of the education system. These areas are the admission system and the quality of teacher training, the system of professional development of teachers, the evaluation of the quality of pedagogical work and giving feedback on it, the relationship between the teacher's development opportunities and the career path with the quality assessment, as well as the commitment of teachers to the given reforms" (Sági, 2015, p.83).

Becoming a teacher can be influenced by both external and internal motivational factors. Focusing on external motivations, the career socialization process can be based on the example of our grandparents and/or parents, but our own positive school experiences and the examples of our former teachers can also influence the career choice. According to Pinczésné's research, „the experiences and positive impressions gained during the teaching practices regarding the profession of teaching and their own suitability for this profession strengthened their professional commitment" (Pinczésné, 2019, pp.53-54).

According to Pál Szontagh, internal motivation can be "work schedule, the ratio and variety of individual and community activities, the usability and convertibility of the knowledge acquired in training and practice" (Szontagh, 2020, p.31-32).

Based on these, it is clear that all teaching practices organized during the training period and the mentor teachers who manage them play significant roles in teacher training. Mentor teachers, working in public education institutions, can perform several different tasks. On the one hand, they are active, in-service teachers who teach students at the given school level. On the other hand, they can help the professional development of student teachers who come to the given institution for their teaching practice. Thirdly, since the introduction of the teacher evaluation system, the newly graduated, novice teachers are helped in their school work and are supported in their preparation for the qualification exam by mentor teachers.

## **2. The concept of a mentor**

To define the concept of mentoring and mentor, we have to go back to ancient Greek culture, to Greek mythology. Mentor, who was the son of Alcimos, an Ithaca nobleman, became Odysseus' older friend. Based on his human qualities and actions, he probably trusted him a lot, because he entrusted his son Telemachus to him when he went to the Trojan War. Mentor raised and supported the boy and shared his life experiences with the wisdom of the elderly (Mayer, 2010). According to the Hungarian Concise Dictionary, a mentor is an advisor, a fatherly friend (Bárczi- Ország, 2016). According to Mária M. Nádasi, "the mentors perform complex activities in many scenes, with many participants, and operate in a complex communication space, therefore they must have attitudes, abilities and certain knowledge in order to be successfully prepared" (M. Nádasi 2010, pp.20-21).

Based on the above, the mentors' character, human qualities, behaviour, older age, their wisdom and life experience, as well as their professional knowledge serve as an example for their mentees to follow. Mentors provide security, guidance, helping hands and support, but their mentees retain the right and responsibility of choice, decision, and solution.

The words, mentor, mentor teacher, mentor role, are among the concepts that are already widespread in pedagogical professional discussions. At the same time, the meaning of these

terms needs continuous clarification, since they occur and appear in connection with disadvantaged students, in connection with teacher training, and also during the interpretation of teacher evaluation processes. In each case, the goal is to complete some kind of pedagogical task. The focus is on the interaction and cooperation of a younger participant with less knowledge and experience and an older, more experienced person with more, deeper knowledge (Kotschy, 2012).

### **3. Characteristics of the research**

The purpose of this research is to present, through a case study, what experiences the student teachers who graduated from the Apáczai Csere János Faculty of Pedagogy, Humanities and Social Sciences of the Széchenyi István University in the last academic year (2021-2022) gained during their teaching practices.

During the research, we examined, among other things, what qualities an ideal mentor and student teacher should have, what expectations mentors have of their student teachers, and what positive features, competencies or experiences they acquired during teaching practices.

The research sample was made up of graduate student teachers (N=64) of the Apáczai Csere János Faculty of Pedagogy, Humanities and Social Sciences and mentors (N=32) managing teaching practices.

Among the hypotheses of the research, the following fit our topic:

H1: According to the students, teaching practices are extremely important for their professional development.

H2: Students expect their mentors to be outstanding in their methodological preparation and to present and share with them the latest professional methodological concepts.

H3: Mentors' human qualities are also very important for students.

H4: According to the mentors, the teaching practices serve only the professional development of their students.

H5: For the mentors, the most important thing is that the students have a high level of methodological knowledge.

#### **3.1. The method of research**

During the research, on the one hand, we used document analysis, which covered documents related to the students' teaching practices, the syllabus of the mentors, and aspects of lesson analysis and evaluation. As another research method, we used the method of written questioning. The questionnaire surveys consisted mainly of open questions. The answers were analysed using content analysis and open coding. The data collection took place in the spring of 2022 using self-edited questionnaires. The questionnaire prepared for both students and mentors contained 30 questions. From the questionnaire survey, only the questions necessary for the presentation of this sub-research are examined.

#### **3.2. The results of the document analysis**

During the document analysis, based on the annual Workplan for Practical Training, we briefly summarized the types of students' teaching practices. The students' teaching practices can be divided into three groups. During the Individual Complex Training, the students mainly have to perform observation tasks in an institution chosen by the student or in one of the university's partner institutions. The experiences of the observations and class visits are diarized and recorded in a pedagogical diary in compliance with specific formal and content requirements. The observation aspects and criteria are determined by the university lecturer assigned to the

subject who also checks and evaluates the documents prepared by the students. This type of teaching practice is not guided by a mentor.

The students carry out their Group Teaching Practices at Öveges Kálmán Demo Primary School, which is maintained by the university. During this form of teaching practice, the range of the subjects to be taught by the students is constantly expanding. The group of subjects include the range of general subjects from the first to the fourth grade, as well as the subjects to be taught in the fifth and sixth grades for the students' chosen field of specialization. The students keep a Teaching Diary, which includes the teaching materials assigned by the mentor, the lesson plans, the notes taken during the preparatory, pre-lesson phase of the practice, the notes made about the lessons of their peers, as well as the opinions and professional statements and conclusion formulated during the analytical and evaluation post-lesson discussions.

The Individual Teaching Practices are continuous one- to eight-week practices that students can complete in primary schools of their own choice. The related student documentation includes lesson plans, self-reflections, student worksheets, as well as evaluations and reflections made by mentors about the students' work. Group Teaching Exercises and Individual Teaching Practices are managed, guided, checked and evaluated by mentors.

### 3.3. The results of the questionnaire survey

When compiling the questionnaires, we formulated several questions that both students and mentors had to answer. One question that was formulated for both target groups is whether they consider teaching practices important. The mentors and the students unanimously (100%) consider the teaching practices to be extremely important, which give them the opportunity to try out the knowledge acquired in theory in practice.

In addition, the students had to rank the teaching exercises from the easiest (1) to the most difficult (4) and could formulate their own thoughts about each exercise. (Table No. 1)

Table No. 1: Types of teaching practices carried out by students (N=64)

Types of teaching practices	Average	Variance
Individual Teaching Practice	1,69	0,96
Group Teaching Practice (general)	3,13	0,70
Group Teaching Practice (specialization)	2,11	0,82
Individual Teaching Practice	3,06	1,22

(Source: own edition)

For the students, the individual complex teaching practices were the easiest ones to complete, because:

"I just had to pay attention."

"I wasn't responsible for the children, I just had to write down everything I saw and heard."

However, there were also students for whom this exercise was not too easy:

"It was very difficult for me to constantly pay attention and take notes. It was exhausting."

"I think the most difficult thing was that I had to write down everything exactly and I couldn't express my impressions or opinions, but (as our teacher asked) I had to be an objective observer."

The group teaching practice (general) was considered the most difficult type of the practices for the students. They begin their first group practice in the fourth semester at the demo school. In this semester, everything is still new, since, for example, they never had to prepare lesson plans for different teaching materials. Week after week, they work continuously - in the morning they hold the lesson, in the afternoon they discuss their experiences and prepare for the next lesson. Making reflections and self-reflections helps their professional development. The range of subjects to be taught expands from semester to semester, and the students cope with the tasks more and more easily.

"It helped me a lot that the mentor dictated the tasks in details at the beginning, explained to us exactly how the lesson should be structured and confirmed things we learned in the methodology lessons."

"It was good that we could ask questions and our mentor answered everything and never blamed anyone for anything."

"I really liked the gradation, because during the exercises at first only Hungarian and Maths had to be taught and gradually we could plan more and more lessons."

"It helped me a lot that my mentors checked my lesson plans, highlighted the positive as well as the negative elements and we discussed what and how to change."

There were also students who had difficulties and stated the following in relation to the exercise.

"It was everything completely incomprehensible for me at the beginning. Then gradually I got used to it."

"I didn't really like that my mentors mainly preferred lesson plans that contained their ideas and methods and were not really open to our own ideas. They always tried to explain why and what was not good and did not encourage me to try any new things."

Based on the students' opinion, the individual teaching practice was ranked third. This did not seem to be the most difficult type of practice, since by the time they start it, they can make use of the planning and organizing work learned in the group practices. The teaching practices are carried out under the supervision and support of mentors who give a lot of help for their students, but they also let the students incorporate their own ideas into the lessons.

During the individual teaching practice, students spend minimum one - maximum eight weeks in a school of their own choice, and since they can teach several lessons a week, they can more successfully see and understand the educational processes.

"What I enjoyed about this practice was that I could teach several lessons a week, so I could think in consecutive lessons, just like in real life. My mentor helped me a lot, but also allowed me to use my own ideas."

"It was the most realistic kind of practice."

"I was also able to try out many of my own ideas."

However, there were also students for whom this type of practice was the most difficult one.

"I had to prepare a lot and continuously for the lessons."

"I expected more help from my mentor, because we only discussed the lessons in general and she rather expected me to figure out a lot of things."

One of the most important positive features of teacher training is that, from the beginning of their studies, in addition to theoretical preparation, students also continuously participate in teaching practices. Summarizing the experiences gained during the teaching practices, the observation and class attendance tasks were very useful for the students, because they could gain an insight into the everyday life of the schools with a relatively low level of responsibility. At the same time, they found it a bit difficult to cope with making objective observations and accurately recording what they see and hear without any judgements. The observation tasks anticipate the ones related to the observation of group teaching practices and each other's lessons. On the other hand, they also expect their peers and mentors to evaluate

their own activities during the teaching practices, without judgement, realistically and objectively and not to be guided by their emotions.

The students highlighted the gradation and helpfulness of the mentors as a positive aspect of the group teaching practices. At the same time, it is difficult to accept if, mainly in the beginning, the mentors expect from their students what was discussed during the preparation phase and free planning ideas are not really supported. It was highlighted as a positive element that the mentors put a lot of emphasis on the writing and continuous checking of the lesson plans, which was considered "pointless and fiddly" at the beginning. However, this expectation contributed to "learning how to structure and build up a lesson consciously". Group practices related to the chosen field of specialization was not surprising for the students, since by then they could already acquire a routine in this type of teaching practice. The planning and organizing work carried out in upper primary classes provides students with greater freedom and independence.

For the most students, the individual teaching practice means the greatest experience, as they work with the same group of children during several lessons a week. They get to know the children better, the lesson planning work provides them with a process-oriented planning work, they can understand the contents of the curriculum, they can work on the same topic from its beginning to the end with the children, so they can more easily achieve success. It is interesting that while some students saw the advantage and positive aspects of this type of practice in the fact that they were able to implement many of their own ideas and see things in progress, other students lacked direct mentorship and detailed guidance. Many students carry out all their individual teaching practices in their former school, with their former teachers, which is "a very exciting challenge", "provided a sense of security", and "looked at the work of their former teachers in the school in a completely different way".

"I was thinking about what we were like and how much we annoyed our teachers. Now I see many things differently and I respect my former teacher because she was always patient with us. And I'm still learning from her."

"When I studied here, I thought how good it was for our teachers. They didn't have to write any tests or give any oral presentations. At that time, I didn't realize how much they had to prepare for each lesson. I can understand it now".

The role of mentors is given a different emphasis during different teaching practices. In the case of mentoring exercises during the individual complex practice there is no designated mentor for the students, as this is not necessary to complete the tasks.

The group teaching practices take place in the demo primary school. Based on the group assignment, the students do their practice in different grades and classes. At the beginning, this type of teaching practices is more mentor-oriented and mentor-centred. The most important goal of the mentors during this practice is to present various methodological suggestions for the students during the preparation phase of the lessons. When planning lesson plans, students can choose from this methodological offer, good practices, and ideas. It is not a supportive attitude, if the mentors never consider the ideas of their students. However, in any case it is the mentors' responsibility to judge whether the given idea can be realized in the given lesson or group. At the same time, it is also important to clarify which elements of the given ideas are methodologically supported and which elements/steps need to be modified and what alternatives can be used. This shows the mentor's professional preparation and methodological richness to the students.

The group teaching practices prepare students for individual teaching exercises in the following way:

- preparing lesson plans by collecting ideas, good practices,
- observing the lessons of their peers,
- self-reflections to learn/recognize the strengths and the areas to be developed,

- student reflections with objective, supporting comments,
- mentor reflections to strengthen strong points and sharing professional solutions that support the improvement of areas to be developed.

All of this contributes to the human-professional-methodological development of the students. The students are able to make excellent use of these experiences during individual teaching practices. Mentors provide students with more independence, especially during the practice in the eighth semester, which is the students' last teaching practice within the framework of teacher training.

The most positive experience of the students regarding the individual teaching practice is that in many places the students were received as colleagues, the teaching staff and the school environment were very welcoming and helpful. The students gained an insight into the everyday life of the schools, they were able to look at the events from a slightly different perspective, as they were able to gain their experiences from another aspect. The lesson plans were not always checked by the mentors before the lesson, but after the lesson they "told us what and how we should have done it."

The group and individual teaching practices are guided by mentors, but there is a question whether students need mentors. Only 9.38 percent (3 people) of the mentors believed that the students did not need any mentors.

All students believed that they would not have succeeded during the teaching practices without their mentors. The other question, to which we expected answers from both students and mentors, is what the ideal mentor and what the ideal student are like and what human and/or professional expectations they set for themselves and each other. The three most important words had to be named in the questionnaire.

The mentors collected 49 different characteristics. According to them, the three most important human qualities of mentors are that a mentor is cooperative (N=32), understanding (N=30) and flexible (N=26).

Among the 15 different characteristics collected, the most important professional qualities are commitment to the profession (N=32), setting an example (N=31), and professionalism (N=30).

The students collected 34 different words for the mentors' human qualities. According to them, the three most important qualities of mentors are to be patient (N=51), creative (N=48) and honest (N=46).

Among the 12 different professional characteristics collected by the students, the three most important are that a mentor formulates realistic expectations for the students (N=60), a mentor is professionally authentic (N=51), offers/shows/recommends diverse methods for the students (N=46).

The mentors collected 26 different words for the students' human qualities. According to them, an ideal student is respectful (N=30), conscientious (N=28) and reliable (N=25).

Among the professional characteristics of the students, the three most important are that the students have a high level of methodological knowledge (N=32), complete the tasks by the specified deadline based on the instructions/guidelines of the mentors (N=28) and thoroughly prepare for each lesson (N=27).

The students named 31 different qualities, of which the three most important human qualities of the ideal student are curious/interested (N=50), hardworking (N=48) and cooperative (N=42).

According to the students, the main professional qualities of the ideal student are that they have their own ideas (N=55), use modern/ICT tools in lessons (N=49), and prepare well for their own lessons (N=48).

Among the lists containing the three most important characteristics, there is one common element, according to which the students should prepare thoroughly/demandingly for the

lessons. The lists, collected by the two target groups, include several common elements, but only the first three, most frequently mentioned properties were presented.

In reality, however, it is not certain that all mentors and students have the listed human and/or professional qualities. That is why we also sought an answer to what were the three most important qualities of mentors and students, and what kind of mentors and students worked together during the teaching practices.

From the characteristics of an ideal student, accuracy, precision, and thorough and demanding preparation for lessons appeared in reality, during the teaching practices. According to the mentors, their students were conscientious (87.5%), cooperative (84.38), hardworking (78.13%) and enthusiastic (56.26%).

Regarding the characteristics of ideal mentors, the students met mentors who were committed to their profession (53.13%). The most positive features that were mentioned by the students were that their mentors were open-minded and positive (81.25%), encouraging (78.13) and helpful (73.44%). However, students met mentors who hardly ever praised them and only the mistakes were highlighted (3.13%). There were some mentors who were arrogant and condescending (25.56%) or rigid, inflexible with an entrenched resistance to change (34.38%).

For the students, we offered a list of areas that could be developed by mentors. The students had to decide whether the mentors contributed to the development of the given areas during their teaching practices.

The students received the most help, support, and development in the preparation of lesson plans (100%) and introduction to school life (90.62%). As a positive point, it should also be highlighted that the mentors provided their students with a lot of help in the area of differentiation by formulating different solutions (89.1%). It is very positive that, in addition to mentioning the students' development areas, the mentors also shared the improvement opportunities with the students (76.56%) and did not just list or name them (43.75%). Self-reflection, an objective, realistic assessment of our own performance is not an easy task, so the mentors provided a lot of help when they shared the self-reflection samples with their students.

They received the least amount of help in dealing with students' disciplinary problems, and in relation to the education of students with integration, learning and behaviour difficulties and to the students with special educational needs (15.63%).

During the research, it was also important to map whether the teaching practices help the development of the students or whether the joint work also supports the development of the mentors.

The mentors mentioned a lot of positive things about the students. They were satisfied with the students' methodological preparation, their humility, commitment towards the profession and their willingness to help. The students spent a lot of time with the children during breaks and even after classes. The students nicely integrated the "reflections that were discussed into their work". They prepared for the lessons with many "individual, creative ideas".

The mentors have learned a lot about the use of various digital tools and interactive platforms in their lessons, and students constantly "bring youthful vigour" to everyday life. The students also help in the "development of communication competence".

"Mentoring is the most effective tool for self-development."

In addition to the positives, there were of course negatives as well.

"Preparing for teaching practices takes a lot of time for me."

"I can spend less time on my own things."

"I don't have enough time to regenerate."

71.9 percent (23 people) of the mentors emphasized the development of the students, and only 28.12 percent (9 people) experienced the possibility of joint development.

It is also important to clarify the criteria on which the mentors are selected in the institutions.



37.5 percent of the mentors (12 people) have a specialized qualification for becoming a mentor teacher. It was an advantage in the selection and these mentors completed the given training because they had already dealt with students before, but they wanted to make their work much more conscious and authentic by completing this specialization. At the same time, we cannot clearly state that only teachers with a mentoring qualification can perform their tasks well.

"I consider continuous self-education very important and I think that I gained a lot of useful knowledge during the mentor training."

The other selection criterion is the time spent as a teacher, which is presumably combined with professional commitment and dedication. At the same time, it cannot be stated that a good teacher is also a good mentor. Of course, it is possible that a good teacher is also an excellent mentor, but it is definitely necessary to consider that university students are young adults who, although they participate in formal education, cannot be treated as small children. While direct guidance is acceptable for young learners, during mentoring, it should be gradually reduced to the minimum. In addition, of course, we trust the judgement of the institutions' headteachers and mainly teachers who are both personally and professionally suitable for this are likely to be asked to be mentors.

"I am not a good mentor because I have completed some training, but because I pay attention to my students in the same way as I do to the children entrusted to me."

We also wanted to get to know if there were any conflicts between the students and their mentors. Only seven mentors (21.88%) mentioned that they had problems but these could not be considered serious conflicts.

"Some students did not understand that they should act as teachers in elementary school groups and set an example for children."

"I had discipline problems with only a few students who didn't understand why they weren't allowed to chew gum, eat breakfast, or play games/surf the internet on their phones while watching their peers' lessons."

"Most of the problems I had with my students were meeting deadlines and being late for lesson plan discussions."

"Some students felt hurt when we mentioned their areas to be developed, however they were objective comments."

"Obviously I can't tell my students what to wear, but I'm sure I can ask them to respect the boundaries of good taste."

Students also had some problems but only ten of them (15,63) shared some thoughts with us.

"I had a mentor, who treated me as a little kid and she always gave me instructions. I would be happier if she asked me to do things instead of giving orders. At the end of the practice she asked me how I felt myself during our joint work and I told her that I felt her communication arrogant."

"I had a mentor who crossed out my lesson plan in red. I did not receive any comments or opinions. When I asked her what the problem was, she just said that my lesson plan was unacceptable. Unfortunately, I did not receive any suggestions, opportunities to correct or rewrite the lesson plan."

"I was looking forward the individual teaching practice because I was sure that I can learn a lot as well as I get a lot of chance to try out my own ideas. But unfortunately, I had to follow the mentor's thoughts because she insisted on it. I didn't feel well in this role. I was not myself in the lessons and my mentor's feedback was rather negative than positive. I tried to explain my problem but my mentor told me that her ideas are perfect as they always work well when she teaches. So, the problem is with me, not with the ideas."

“One of my mentors constantly interrupted my lessons, instructed the children, made comments and told the children that I was not a real teacher yet, I don’t know what and how to do. That was very humiliating for me. After some lessons I told her how I felt. She got very angry and said that I rather should have been grateful for her help.”

We do not want to generalize or formulate broader conclusions from the listed examples. However, it is important to emphasize that all students and mentors should strive to treat each other with respect, understanding and proper communication, because our main goal is to make teaching practices successful both personally and professionally.

#### **4. Evaluation of hypotheses**

H1: According to the students, teaching practices are extremely important for their professional development.

Our first hypothesis was fully confirmed, as 100 percent of the interviewed students confirmed the necessity of teaching exercises.

H2: Students expect their mentors to be outstanding in their methodological preparation and to present and share with them the latest professional methodological concepts.

Our second hypothesis was also confirmed, because according to the students, one of the most important professional qualities of mentors is authenticity and showing, applying and sharing different methods with students.

H3: Mentors' human qualities are also very important for students.

Our third hypothesis was also confirmed. The students collected 34 different human characteristics. The three most important human qualities were patient, creative and honest. The top ten features also included the adjectives encouraging, practical, empathetic, fair, reliable, realistic and friendly.

H4: According to the mentors, the teaching practices serve only the professional development of their students.

This hypothesis was also confirmed, because for less than 30 percent of mentors, means professional development the joint work with their students. Presumably, the mentors who think like this, are more open, allow more student ideas to be implemented, look for opportunities to integrate ICT tools into lessons, and prefer a student-centred approach during teaching practices.

H5: For the mentors, the most important thing is that the students have a high level of methodological knowledge.

This hypothesis was also confirmed. Almost all of the mentors expressed this professional expectation. This is understandable because it is difficult to organize teaching practices without theoretical knowledge, and learning algorithms, rules and schemes. We can think about the structure of different types of lessons, which can be easily followed based on a specific sequence of steps and algorithm.

#### **5. Summary**

The aim of our research was to explore the role of teaching practices and mentors in the process of becoming a teacher. Based on the research results, it can be stated that the surveyed target groups clearly highlight the necessity of teaching practices.

The structure of teaching practices is gradual as they start with practices based on lesson observation tasks, continues with weekly controlled group teaching practices and ends up with individual teaching practices. By combining their theoretical knowledge with practice, the students learn the process of preparing lesson plans, they can teach in lower and upper primary classes, and they receive continuous feedback on their work from their peers and mentors. Their

self-reflections help them get to know themselves, explore their strengths and areas for development.

The success of the mentor-student collaboration is based on professionalism, professional awareness, and commitment of the participants. Joint work is also supported by positive human qualities such as cooperation, creativity, patience, respect, curiosity, diligence.

Working together means the enrichment of both partners. Students become more and more aware of the planning, organization and implementation of the teaching-learning process. Their mentors can be filled with youthful vigour and obtain up-to-date information about the possibilities offered by modern devices.

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Cserné Pekkel, Márta  
Hungary  
University of Dunaujvaros

Cserné Pekkel, Márta: The background of the comprehensive school's success

## **Abstract**

After World War II, education in Finland was in ruins. In this difficult and uncertain period, there was a need for everyone to learn the same chance, so that following this approach, the new comparator school was established in 1972. This type of education system, which defines Finnish education as the basis for a small change, is working until today. (Shalberg, 2013).

Finland still needs to follow up on the established patterns of other countries and has introduced new avenues, and this constant renewal is still typical of the country's education system (Baranyi & Nagy, 2020).

Effective Finnish education has more than one component. One factor is that the teaching profession is an estimate of the profession, as is the lawyer, the doctor, or the architect. This can also be seen in pedagogic training: at the end of a long recruitment procedure and a specific training process, the most appropriate will become teachers. In Finland, the main emphasis is on the teaching tasks not only limited to the delivery of the curriculum but also developing the skills of learning to adapt to the changing world of the maxim and to learn the perspective of lifelong learning (Kálmán, 2001).

Another important factor in successful Finnish education is that the education system is based on the principles of equity and equality (Shalberg, 2013). But what does that mean? No single and strict syllabus has been issued centrally; during the learning process, each child can move according to its own pace of development, with no self-recognition; all schools are of the same quality because schools operate under the same funding system. The institutions have the same equipment and standards and no significant differences (Zakar, 2015).

The paper shows the comprehensive school's essential characteristics through successful Finnish education.

**Keywords:** comprehensive education, education, Finnish education system, teaching career

## **1. Introduction**

In many ways, the Scandinavian countries have served as an example at the international level in recent decades, and their education system is also exemplary.

Finnish public education received great attention when the results were evaluated after the first PISA survey (Kupiainen, Hautamäki & Karjalaine, 2009). The study showed that Finnish children produced outstanding results compared to students from other countries. A broad analysis of the Finnish model has begun (McKinsey & Company, 2007; Zakar, 2015). What makes Finnish education so successful?

The PISA survey takes place every three years. It examines knowledge that can be used in everyday life among 15-year-old students in three areas of competence: knowledge of applied natural sciences, knowledge of mathematics, and reading comprehension. The primary goal of the measurement is to see the basic knowledge of this age group, which relates to knowledge that can be used in everyday life (Benedek, 2005). Questionnaires are a permanent part of the examination, with the help of which we get an idea about the student's family and school

background; thus we get information about the factors influencing the student's performance, and the results can be interpreted in many contexts.

The idea of a comprehensive school, now widespread in many countries, was born after the Second World War when the goal was to standardize education. So, all aspects of education are based on the principle of identity, starting with teacher training, the institutions' equipment, and the curriculum. Although this implementation differs from country to country, it shows a uniform picture concerning a specific level and type of education. For a long time, it was a question of which system is more successful and works better: one that is aware of, among other things, the presence of social, social and economic differences and sees them as a difficulty to be solved, or one where everyone is considered equal. Nowadays, this view has gained a new interpretation. The principle of justice and the inclusive school type have come to the fore, meaning that every student has the same opportunity to participate in education. The main purpose of creating the comprehensive school type was to eliminate the differences between classes, since previously, some schools only accepted children from wealthier families. In contrast, other schools could only attend students with average or worse academic results. This discrimination has increased the gap between the poor and the rich and social injustice and division among students.

In our article, we do not undertake to present the comprehensive school program of each country; we only want to attempt to reveal the background of the successful Finnish education system.

In Finland, the process of transforming the education system began several decades ago. It was implemented step by step to adapt education to social needs, which was later supplemented with economic ideas and aspirations. They reacted well to the changes in the market, and these transformations were not only seen in individual industries but also brought renewal in the education sector. The goal was not to create a famous and best education system but to give every child the same opportunity and chance to learn, regardless of their family background, region, or living conditions. The basic intention is to reveal the students' potential through education, to support them in realizing their goals and shaping their careers, considering their abilities and individuality. Measures have been taken, resulting in Finnish young people producing significantly higher results, even in an international comparison. Behind the good performance is not only the supportive approach typical of Finnish education but the fact that the state finances education for everyone, thus ensuring the acquisition of accessible knowledge, which contributes greatly to the good result (Benedek, 2005). From primary school to graduation, education is free, including textbooks, school meals, and the cost of getting to school. A well-developed and excellently functioning scholarship system supports students completing secondary and higher education.

In Hungary, the individual institutions are categorized centrally with various rankings, which results in huge differences between schools, even by region. Finns believe that, among other things, the task of the school is not to reproduce social and social inequalities but to reduce them. The state sacrifices a lot to create equal opportunities and ensure that the needs in the lower levels of Maslow's pyramid, well-known in psychology, are properly met. The foundation of the education system is that school education is the most important tool for creating equal opportunities, and it follows that the education process should be personalized and differentiated. Comprehensive schools are largely characterized by student-centered education and the fact that the curriculum is adapted to the individual needs and abilities of the students.

## **2. Finnish primary and secondary education**

In Finland, children start primary school at the age of seven; before that, it is not mandatory to attend any educational institution. Parents can also decide that the child is raised only at home.

However, in the year before school starts, it is possible to participate in the school preparation program, which schools and kindergartens also organize.

In Finland, school starts at 9:30 or later. The reason for this is, on the one hand, that the children do not have to leave home in the pitch dark during the winter months, and the students can get enough rest. In all of Europe, the school days are the shortest here, the children only have 4-5 lessons a day, with long breaks, and the amount of school material is much less compared to other countries. They believe that it is unnecessary to burden the children with 6-8 lessons since they cannot be expected to pay attention for more than 2-3 hours; the children should rather spend their time with games and free movement.

Sometimes they are given homework, but it doesn't take more than half an hour for the students to complete it either. Competition is prohibited at all levels of education, students do write tests and assessments, but the purpose of this is for the teachers to see where they are, how well they have mastered a given topic, and for the teacher to receive feedback on how to continue teaching his activity.

Unlike in our country, the students study in smaller class sizes; the teachers have more freedom in the design and shaping of the curriculum, and they can devote more time to each child; thus they can place more emphasis on the development of certain skills and abilities. In elementary school, students do not primarily study according to subjects but rather prioritize acquiring certain basic competencies (problem solving, reading, and writing, arithmetic) at a skill level (Perjés, 2014). The daily work of the teachers is supported by many people: special education teachers, development teachers, pedagogical assistants, career and career counselors, and as a result, the teachers are less burdened than their Hungarian colleagues, so the risk of burnout is much lower (Torgyik, 2009).

In Finland, the state spends a significant part of the annual budget on the operation of the education system, which is considered an investment that will pay off in a big way years later. There are mostly only state-run schools, no elite institutions or private schools. All children go to the district school of their residence, so children from different social backgrounds study together. Primary schools do not specialize in any field, so there are no "departmental schools"; even advanced level classes are only in a foreign language at most, the requirements and curriculum are the same everywhere, while the course of education is extremely flexible. In the first six years of elementary school, a teacher, the class teacher, teaches the children; he has the opportunity to get to know the students, their needs, and their background and adjusts the learning-teaching process and classroom work accordingly. In the upper section of the nine-year primary school education, i.e., only in the last three years, the specialist teachers are involved in education. However, at the same time, they also consider the teaching of arts, music, and poetry important, as this contributes to the students becoming creative and balanced.

Compulsory education lasts nine years, after which upper-secondary education begins. The young people have the opportunity to decide whether to continue their education in a school similar to the Hungarian high school, where they pass the Finnish baccalaureate exam, or choose a vocational school-like institution, where they learn a profession with less emphasis on general knowledge subjects. However, they can pass the baccalaureate exam during the training period also, so they can continue their studies in higher education. In Finland, students wishing to enter higher education can choose from around 20 colleges and 30 universities (Barber & Mourshed, 2007).

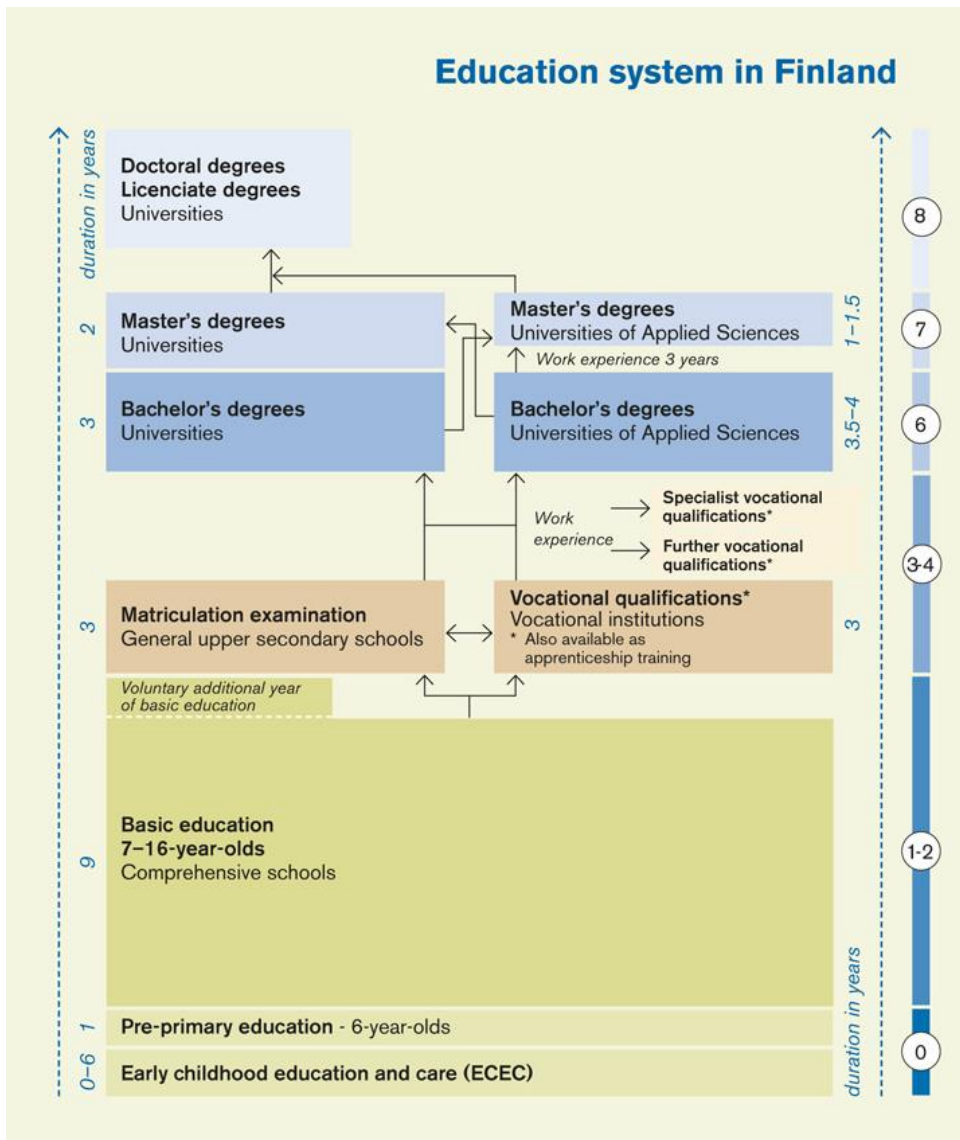


Fig. 1.

Source: <https://finlandabroad.fi/web/hun/a-finn-iskolarenszser> (Download time: 04/02/2023)

At the age of 16, students' compulsory education ends. Students can already decide whether they intend to continue their studies at a higher education institution and choose one or another option accordingly. Finland, 90% of children remain in the system after their compulsory schooling: 40% of students acquire a profession, and 60% choose high school education, but the education system does not make a meaningful difference between the two types of schools, both institutions have equal chances to enter the students to higher education (Sahlberg, 2013). Secondary studies are a three-year course, but the curriculum allows them to be completed in two or four years. Unlike the Hungarian form of education, there are no classes in the classical sense, as students can decide what subjects they want to study, thus creating an individual curriculum and schedule for themselves (Baranyi & Nagy, 2020). The subjects can be divided into three groups: compulsory, special, and applied subjects. All students must complete 18 compulsory subjects and a specific number of special and applied subjects. In Hungary, with a strict curriculum and framework curriculum, students must complete which subjects in each type of school year after year.

In Finland, the students have to give an account of their knowledge in at least four subjects in the final exam, which represents the first serious competition for the students; nothing similar had taken place during their studies up to that point. Therefore, the teachers do not have to constantly comply with the numerous rankings and regulations; thus they can fully focus on teaching and the children.

In Finland, building on the competencies acquired during the nine years of primary school, students acquire basic skills in vocational training that are not only necessary for learning professional knowledge but also support their success in the world of work and the development of the need for lifelong learning (Deming, 2015). Further goals in vocational training with a practice-oriented approach are that, while the students' personality also develops, they master the process of self-education, their communication, social and digital competencies continue to improve after primary school, they can notice changes in the labor market and respond to them with sufficient speed and flexibility react (Sahlberg, 2013).

The increasingly widespread spread of smart devices in schools and education has brought many challenges, but at the same time, their use has many opportunities. In Finnish education, much emphasis is placed on using the opportunities provided by digital technology to help the learning and teaching process. It is a gratifying fact that Hungary has made great progress in this regard in the past period, which several studies have confirmed.

*„We believe that, based on the conclusions of our study, there is a positive, progressive trend in our country to integrate m-learning into the learning-teaching process.”* (Sipos & Bottyán, 2022, p.13).

Another great advantage of the comprehensive school system is that students have the opportunity to continue their studies in the same educational institution for a long time; in this way, the students have a way to get to know each other better, develop more stable and valuable human relationships and live a larger community life.

### **3. Teacher training and the situation of teachers**

In Finland, teachers play a central role at all levels of education, especially in primary and secondary education. They are valued both financially and morally by society and the government. Teachers' starting salaries can be considered high, even in European terms. However, including legal regulations, they ensure that only truly dedicated and suitable persons can become teachers. It is extremely difficult to get into teaching courses, as there are over 20 times over-applications every year. They also try to filter through the multiple-round entrance exam so that only the best get a teaching degree. Only the most motivated and dedicated can study in the teaching courses. These traits will also help them succeed later on, and it is typical for the training and teaching profession that there are very few dropouts and leaving the profession. Another difference compared to Hungarian teacher training is that a Finnish teacher candidate must have at least a master's degree, and teacher training is research-based, so the knowledge and development of educational theory, methodology, and critical thinking is a particularly important area (Kálmán, 2011).

### **4. The principle of personalized education and equity**

Hungarian and Finnish public education differ in many respects, but perhaps the biggest difference is that Finland's education system is characterized by decentralization and autonomy; they strive to reduce and eliminate centralization. Questions related to the curriculum are formulated, and decisions are made locally. The system can be considered uniform only in terms of the outcome of the process; I am thinking here, for example, of the matriculation exam. The



exact opposite of this is the centralized content regulation implemented in Hungary, so it is not within the competence of a specific school and teacher to decide what and how to teach their students. In our country, these are defined and regulated centrally.

In Finnish education, it is fundamental that every student attends the primary school closest to where they live, thus creating heterogeneous groups where students of different abilities study together, regardless of family or financial background. It is necessary to compensate for the disadvantages arising from the socio-cultural background; they claim that the school is not only capable of this but that this is one of its fundamental roles.

In our country, in the last twenty years, there have been many changes in secondary education, not only in terms of those who maintain them but also in structural forms. In addition to multi-year high schools, many secondary schools offer the possibility to complete the language preparatory year zero. On the one hand, thanks to the many types of schools, there are large differences between the performances of students attending individual schools, which are also supported by the annual National Competence Measurements (Csapó, Molnár & Kinyó, 2009). The results of students in the 6th, 8th, and 10th grades are examined from several aspects: according to gender, institutions, settlements, regions, and forms of education. It is typical in Finland that the differences between schools can be insignificant in terms of student performance and equipment, which follows the principle of fairness because the Finns do a lot to minimize inequalities (Báthory, 1997). It is characteristic of both countries that the baccalaureate exam is of equal importance since, without it, you cannot apply to a higher education institution. However, an interesting difference between the two countries is that while it is free in our country, in Finland, the cost of the baccalaureate exam must be paid by the students (Sahlberg, 2013).

## **5. Summary, conclusions**

Nowadays, experts are increasingly concerned with how long the success of the Finnish education system can be maintained.

In his writing, Mihály Benedek analyzes the Finnish school system. His starting point is that by analyzing the PISA assessments, we get an idea of the situation of society from several perspectives through education. In his opinion, the priority of Finnish education starts with high-level teacher training, and success is based on the great independence of teachers. In his writing, he also covers other factors, such as the individual curriculum and the differentiation of students (Benedek, 2005).

Like Mihály Benedek, Ildikó Mihály also writes about the high quality of teacher training. However, he attributes Finnish success primarily to the comprehensive school type. The reasons include the students' interest, their activities after school, the structure of the education system, education support services, and Finnish culture (Mihály, 2003).

Both agree that learning and education enjoy social respect and recognition, the professionalism of education policy is outstanding, and the provision of excellent conditions for the educational environment means a social composition that predicts success.

Both of them point out that the teaching and educational work that takes place in schools, the teaching methods, and the schools' equipment contribute to the student's progress according to their needs and abilities. Education purposefully and effectively prepares students leaving secondary schools for higher education, employment, and integration into society.

Sahlberg sees the key to success in constant self-reflection and continuous renewal since long-term development is unthinkable without this. From his point of view, the Finns' priority in education lies in the fact that both students and teachers are encouraged to think independently and implement their ideas and plans (Sahlberg, 2013).

In Finland, people are characterized by openness, but at the same time, respect for tradition and nurturing their culture play an important role in their lives. Children are brought up differently; parents set a different example for their children than in our country. As long as campaigns are organized in Hungary to popularize reading and propagate the use of libraries, the Finns are at the forefront in terms of reading from an early age.

It is clear that the type of school itself is not the only explanation for Finnish success; the good results result from different factors and their influence on each other. For example, the structure of the education system, teacher training, education support services, educational conditions, students' interests, and the culture itself is defining elements.

As educators, we trust that once the need for change is recognized in our country, and following consensus and beneficial professional decisions, teachers will be respected in Hungary as well, and learning and professional competence will be equally recognized at all levels of society and in all regions of the country.

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Janurik, Tímea  
Hungary  
PhD student in the EKKE

Janurik, Tímea: A comparison of Turkish and Hungarian folk music education until the end of the 20th Century

## **Abstract**

In my research, I examine the situation of folk music, the discovery of folk music's importance, furthermore the folk music collection and its inclusion in education from the 17th century to the end of the 20th century in Hungary and in Türkiye. My aim is to shed light on the parallels, differences and their roots. My research method is document analysis, I examined Hungarian, English and Turkish research from the point of view of folk music education.

In the study, it can be seen that the music of the Ottoman Empire can be classified first according to three styles; folk music, classical music and military music, to which western music was later classified, while in our country we can examine the music according to folk music, art music and ecclesiastic music. In Hungary, in the second half of the 18th century, the discovery of the importance of folk music and the collection of folk songs began as a result of the national upsurge during the reform period, and, from the 19th century, folk songs also played a role in school textbooks. After the founding of the Turkish Republic, folk music collectors were also guided by nationalistic goals, but this was two centuries after the beginning of folk music collecting in Hungary, with the help of Hungarian folk music collectors, among others. In both countries, folk song arrangements became popular, folk songs, solfège, singing folk children's game songs and sample tunes, as well as the use of solmization hand signs and musical ladder became part of the curriculum. I would like to extend my research to the current situation of folk music education, to get to know it better through interviews with teachers working in folk music education, and to make proposals for the popularization of folk music education, if this is seen as necessary.

**Keywords:** folk music, turkish, music education, folk music collection

## **1. Introduction**

In Türkiye, the concept of traditional music started to be used in the second quarter of the 19th century (Uçan 2005), and after the establishment of the Republic, a new era in music began; thanks to the Istanbul and Ankara Radios, the concept of Turkish folk music entered the public consciousness (Karaelma, 2016). Music education in primary and secondary schools gained ground in the 20th century, with music education, including the use of Turkish folk music in schools, as a means of fostering national unity. The Kodály principles were given a role, which has become even more important in the last thirty years (Çelikleş, 2022).

In Hungary, the Enlightenment and Romanticism saw the beginning of a general interest in folk songs, with the first manuscript and printed collections appearing in the 19th century. Folk musicology gained a place among the disciplines with the work of Zoltán Kodály and Béla Bartók (Paksa, 2012). Zoltán Kodály advocates compulsory vocal music education and its folk music content (Pethő, 2011). In his study of Hungarian Folk Music, he writes that folk music is ubiquitous in healthy nations, in art, in public education and in public consciousness, citing England as an example. In his opinion, the earliest way to folk song is through musical literacy (Kodály, 1951). The aim of this paper is to describe the role of folk music from pre-19th century

to the 19th century and into the 20th century in Hungary and Türkiye, and to highlight the parallels that reveal the importance of folk music.

The relevance of the choice of topic is that the subject of the study has not yet been researched. The relationship between Turkish and Hungarian folk music has been studied by Hungarian folk music researchers. Béla Bartók (1937), following his collection in Türkiye, found that more than 20% of the Turkish folk songs he collected could be related to Hungarian folk music. Zoltán Kodály (1951), in his study entitled *The Hungarian Folk Music*, shed light on the eastern origins of our five-key songs, in which he could not separate the Ugric and Turkish elements, dating their origin to the ancestral homeland of the Hungarians, before our emigration, and considering them to be part of the great Asian music culture. Paksa (2012) describes the two styles of the Old Turkic ancestral layer of our folk music, the pentatonic style with small vowels and the descending pentatonic style with a large arch, changing fifths, in his volume entitled *Magyar népzene-történet*. Based on the systematisation of Hungarian folk music, János Sipos (1994) in his work *Turkish Folk Music* undertook to collect and systematise Turkish folk music, presenting melodic parallels and similarities between the songs of the two peoples. These studies provide the basis for the teaching of folk music, which started in schools at different times but with the same aim, so after presenting the historical background, I will examine its current situation in the Hungarian and Turkish curriculum.

In my research, I use the method of documentary analysis of the state of folk music. I analyse Turkish, English and Hungarian sources, which, along with other musical styles, also shed light on the use of folk music in the 19th and 20th centuries, the beginnings of folk music research and the introduction of folk music into education. I juxtapose data from these sources and examine the parallels.

## **2. The role of folk music between the 17th and 19th centuries**

Çelenk (2016) distinguishes between two types of Ottoman music, folk music and art music, while Yılmaz (2015) cites Uçan's division into three musical styles, namely folk music, traditional classical music and traditional military music. From the middle of the 18th century onwards, Western artistic traditions played a major role in Ottoman culture as a result of military defeats (Göktürk-Cary, 2017). In the 19th century, traditional classical music began to decline and military music lost its importance with the abolition of janissary music in 1826 (Yılmaz, 2015), and from this year onwards, Çelenk (2016) identifies Western music as the third style in Ottoman music. Under the influence of Western countries and musicians invited to the sultan's court, polyphonic music became more and more popular (Sarı, 2014). In addition to the wandering singers, there were also composers among the sultans who are considered to be representatives of art music. Until the beginning of the 20th century, itinerant singers sang their songs throughout the Ottoman Empire, accompanied by instruments. Hamdi Hasan recorded folk songs alongside their songs in his collection of late 17th century songs. The lyrics of hundreds of Turkish folk songs from the 1880s were collected by a Hungarian researcher, Ignác Kunos, but the systematic collection and study of folk songs only began in the early 20th century (Karahasanoğlu Ata, 2002).

In Hungary, it was in the Árpád period that folk music was first separated from the sacred music of the art form. Folk music was also performed at court and in towns, and from the 17th century in grammar schools and colleges. In the Lutheran, Piarist and Jesuit schools, students could also receive instrumental music instruction (Dobszay, 1998). At the end of the 18th century, German literature influenced folk songs in Hungary, too, and folk songs played a major role in poetry, making it important for writers and poets to collect them. In these times, the Hungarian mother tongue is of particular importance as an expression of national autonomy, as a counterweight to the centralising and Germanising tendencies. The development of

Hungarian national culture was closely linked to the issue of folk tradition. After the establishment of the Hungarian Scientific Society (from 1858 the Hungarian Academy of Sciences), the collection of folk songs gained even greater momentum (Paksa, 2012).

From the second half of the 18th century, thanks to the reform revival and the gypsy bands, all strata of the country became acquainted with *verbunk* as folk dance music, its arrangements and the *csárdás*, which developed from *verbunk*. Hungarian elements appear in the works of Ferenc Erkel and Ferenc Liszt. The emergence of musical institutions can be seen as a particularly important moment in 19th century musical life. The opportunities offered by music schools, which had hitherto been private and run by associations, were extended to include independent music schools in towns, and the formation of song groups, whose repertoire included arrangements of folk songs, although at that time the concept and styles of folk music were still unknown. The composition of folk songs was a popular activity among the nobility, and, along with the repertoire of folk theatre ensembles and gypsy bands, these songs spread among the peasantry, and were incorporated and transformed (Dobszay, 1998).

### **3. The changing role of folk music in the 20th century**

In Türkiye in the 1920s, traditional Eastern classical music, folk music and Western music coexisted. The aim was to create national, European music by combining the two latter styles. This was also part of the nationalist reforms of the Republican era, together with the laying of the foundations for musical education. The so-called Turkish Musical Revolution became a priority (Yilmaz, 2015). The Westernization movement, which aimed at harmonizing folk melodies, was so strongly reflected in music that for about two years from 1934, radio stations were not allowed to play traditional Ottoman music (Sari, 2014).

The folk song collection movement began in the early 1920s, with the teachers of *Darülelhan* (*Darü'l-Elhan*), then the only music school, collecting folk songs, and a pair of brother musicians, Seyfettin Asaf and Mehmet Sezai, recording folk songs in Western Anatolia on behalf of the Ministry of National Education. At that time, the collectors worked without sound recording equipment, but after the advent of the phonograph in Istanbul in 1926, folk music collection gained momentum (Karahasanoğlu Ata, 2002), thanks to the staff of the aforementioned music school. It is worth mentioning here that the first phonograph folk music collection in Türkiye in 1901 was made by an Austrian researcher, Felix von Luchan, who collected folk songs in Ayıntap, Anatolia (Okan, 2023). In the 1930s, Béla Bartók helped Turkish musicologists and groups from the newly opened Ankara State Conservatory embarked on folk song collecting trips. The second phase of research, which began in 1940, was carried out by the Directorate General for Research and Promotion of Folk Culture (HAGEM), an agency of the Ministry of Culture (Karahasanoğlu Ata, 2002).

In 1924, the landmark School of Music Teacher Training was founded and, in the same year, singing and music lessons were introduced in primary and secondary schools (Çelikleş, 2022). Until 1926, in the absence of a unified curriculum, teachers taught according to their own ideas, due to their different levels of knowledge and methods (Uçan, 2005). The music curriculum published in 1926 included the principles of voice training, the use of solfege, musical pattern melodies, singing games, Curwen hand signs and voice ladder in voice-music lessons, and the acquisition of the major key of the tone series and tonality as the main objective (MEB, 1948; Sazak et al, 2014 cited in Çelikleş, 2022).

In 1940, the training of music teachers in rural schools was started, giving a greater role to folk music, and in 1948, the Village Primary School Programme was merged with the Urban Primary School Programme to create a unified, national training programme, thus making folk music part of general music education (Uçan, 2005). The *détente* policy of the 1950s also manifested itself in music, with a widening gap between Turkish classical music and folk music

(Arıkan & Azman, 2016). During this period, Turkish musicologists, like Zoltán Kodály, were also questioning the issue of folk music, the musical mother tongue and the teaching of music to children, and whether it would be more useful to teach the tonalities used in Turkish folk music instead of the major-minor tonality. Turkish musicologist Veysel Arseven advocated a folk music-based education and suggested the ré line, the most common mode of Turkish folk music, as the basis for music education in schools. Turkish composers' compositions based on folk music were given an even greater role in the curriculum of vocal music lessons. The composer Muammer Sun calls these Turkish school songs. In addition to Sun, Saip Egüz, Erdoğan Okyay, Sefai Acay and Salih Aydoğan are associated with folk music-based school compositions, most of which are in the ré range (Çelikleş, 2022).

While the music curriculum of 1936 was based on Western music, with national songs on the themes of republic and freedom, and folk songs, the programme, which was to be published in 1962 and revised in 1968, already included a wide range of folk music, with folk sayings, counting songs, lullabies, folk songs, music from neighbouring regions, as well as historical folk songs and hymns. The Music Curriculum for Primary Schools, which came into force in 1995, includes a conceptual definition of calculators, children's songs, lullabies, folk songs, Turkish folk music and Turkish classical music, divided amongst grades and teaching units (Uçan, 2005).

In Hungary, 24 years after the officialisation of the Hungarian language (Fodor, 2013), compulsory singing lessons were introduced in elementary schools, senior schools, civil schools, teacher training colleges and teacher training colleges from 1868, but the curriculum was not yet available. Until then, the curriculum consisted of church hymns and German chants with Hungarian lyrics, but in 1871 the first textbook with Hungarian folk songs was published. In 1912, a book for teachers was published, in which all songs were accompanied by piano, even the few folk songs. In 1929, Zoltán Kodály called for the compulsory introduction and renewal of vocal music in his book *Children's Choirs*, which called for better music education for teachers and teachers and for children to be introduced to folk songs as their mother tongue. He encourages Hungarian composers to create choral works using Hungarian folk songs (Pethő, 2011) and has done much to promote folk songs herself. Together with his fellow folk music researcher Béla Bartók, they arranged the folk music collected since 1905 in their works, creating the modern Hungarian musical style (Romsics, 2010). Relative solmization and Hungarian folk music play a major role in his concept, contributing to the development of Hungarian consciousness (Mészáros, 1982 cited in Pethő, 2011). This concept is in line with the principles of nationalist reforms in the Turkish Republic.

#### **4. Summary**

Folk music, classical Turkish music and military music coexisted in the Ottoman Empire, the use of the latter having ceased with the dissolution of the janissary. During the republican period, a great role was given to the revival of music, with the aim of creating Turkish national music by fusing folk and Western music. In Hungary, religious and secular art music was popular among the nobility and bourgeoisie, while folk music was popular among the peasants. From the second half of the 18th century onwards, thanks to the ideas of the reform era, the issue of Hungarian national culture and music also played a major role in Hungary. National music was expressed in the *verbunk* and the *csárdás*, and the collection of folk songs gained great momentum. At the beginning of the 20th century, the collection of folk music also began in Türkiye, followed by polyphonic arrangements of songs. From 1926 onwards, singing lessons included solfege, singing games, singing sample melodies, the use of Curwen hand signs and the musical ladder. In Hungary, the collection of folk songs began in the second half of the 18th century, and after a century Hungarian folk songs appeared in school textbooks.

From 1940, folk music became more prominent in Turkish education, as the training of music teachers in rural schools began, and from 1948 it became widespread in singing and music classes nationwide. In the 1950s, the teaching of folk music, the mother tongue of music, the teaching of music to children and the teaching of Turkish folk music as a musical instrument instead of the major-minor keys used in Western music became a musical pedagogical issue. The 1968 curriculum included folk music with folk sayings, calculators, lullabies, folk songs, marches, janissaries. In Hungary, compulsory singing lessons were introduced from 1868 onwards, mainly singing church hymns and German chants in Hungarian. The first textbook with Hungarian folk songs was published in 1871. Zoltán Kodály, among other composers, took up the cause of polyphonic folk music, and several folk music-based choral works were written, and the elements of the singing and music lessons mentioned in the Turkish practice are still part of Hungarian school singing lessons. For both nations, folk music was the basis for the creation of a national music, a musical mother tongue, which strengthens the sense of belonging.

## 5. Conclusion

The research highlighted the historical antecedents of current folk music education, showing how Hungary owes much to the early embrace of folk music, the early start of folk music collection and classification, and the work of folk music researchers who were even involved in the collection of Turkish folk music. The two nations share the same aims in the matter of folk music education, and so it can be argued that folk music plays a similar role in current school education, with singing folk songs and folk song arrangements by composers of the respective nations being part of the vocal music lessons.

A thorough examination of this topic requires further research, in which a comparison of the two countries' national curriculum for music education, a comparison of the content of music lessons and, if necessary, the formulation of proposals to increase the role of folk music would provide a complete picture of the parallelism of folk music education in the curriculum of these two countries up to the present day. I would like to extend my research to interviews with teachers working in the field of folk music education, in which they would present their views on the current situation of folk music education in Türkiye and Hungary.

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## **1. Introduction**

In Hungary, in accordance with the law, minorities include children and students who require special treatment (those with special educational needs, those with integration, learning, and behavioural difficulties, and especially gifted children and students). In this paper, I deal with the education of groups of students who deserve special attention. This term created by me is not legally regulated, but at the same time it can include those belonging to – usually minority – social groups who, without support, cannot, or can gain the same status as those belonging to the majority society only with difficulty.

In Hungary, minority refers, on the one hand, to the groups with cultural traditions that live in the territory of Hungary and are classified as national minorities (1). This group also includes non-territorial, ethnic minorities (2). Finally, I also classify immigrants into this category (3). It is characteristic of those belonging to minorities that they usually speak their mother tongue and/or the language of the majority, i.e., that of the Hungarian society at a different level. Their culture tends to differ from the culture of the majority society, and they have such cultural characteristics that often make it difficult for them to integrate into the majority society. However, I would like to point out that in Hungary, of the above-mentioned groups, the majority of national minorities do not form disadvantaged groups while the majority of ethnic minorities (primarily the Roma) are disadvantaged in terms of their social background, and most of the few immigrants and migrants struggling with language barriers also tend to be disadvantaged.

The primary aim of this paper is to present why and how education that creates equity for those belonging to groups that deserve special attention (national minorities, ethnic minorities/the Roma, immigrants) can contribute to the creation of social equality. By citing good examples and giving priority to the achievement of equal opportunities for disadvantaged groups, I am concerned with the education of groups that deserve special attention before and after entering school. Regarding teachers, I point out what additional competencies they must have so that they can foster the academic success of students belonging to this group.

## **2. Terms related to the issue of the social embeddedness of groups deserving increased attention, phases and models related to the development of society**

The terms of equity, discrimination, segregation and integration related to this topic are usually related to the group of disadvantaged and cumulatively disadvantaged people, so I feel the need to define these terms as well.

A child who is entitled to a regular child protection allowance and a child who has reached the age of majority in whose case one of the following conditions exists is considered to be disadvantaged:

- a. the low level of education of the parent or the guardian taking care of the child, if it can be stated that both parents raising the child together, the parent raising the child alone or the

- guardian taking care of the child – on the basis of a voluntary statement – that they have at most a basic level of education when applying for the regular child protection allowance,
- b. the low employment rate of the parent or the guardian taking care of the child, if it can be stated about any of the parents raising the child or the guardian taking care of the child that they are entitled to care for those of active age according to section 33 of the Act on social administration and social benefits or the person registered as a job seeker for at least 12 months within 16 months prior to the date of applying for the regular child protection allowance,
  - c. the child's inadequate housing condition or housing conditions, if it can be stated that the child lives in a residential segregation in the integrated urban development strategy or in a dwelling with no lavatory or bath, a dwelling with lavatory only, or temporary housing, or in housing conditions where the conditions necessary for his/her healthy development are limited.
  - d. a child entitled to a regular child protection allowance or a child who has reached the age of majority are considered to be cumulatively disadvantaged, in whose case at least two of the conditions specified in points a)-c) above exist (Act on National Public Education).

The terms of multicultural and intercultural education are also related to minorities. I use the term *multiculturalism* in the sense of mutual coexistence and understanding between different cultures coexisting in society, and by the term *intercultural* I mean interactions between different cultures (UNESCO, 1995; Vámos, 2003). A democratic society inherently involves organizing such education that takes account of the culture and needs of minorities and helping them to catch up with the majority society if due to their socio-economic background, they fall behind. This requires that society should develop in this respect, which has recognizable phases and models (Lynch, 1986).

The phases include *the laissez-faire*, *the assimilation*, *the deficit model* and *the anti-racist model*. In the *laissez-faire* model, politics disregards the fact that it is facing a social and cultural phenomenon related to minorities that needs to be solved. In the *assimilation* model, due to social pressure and dissatisfaction, the issue of the child-student is given priority among the many problems. To solve this, such measures are taken as the distribution of minority children between different schools (for example, the schools of Hódmezővásárhely)<sup>1</sup> or busing them to district schools (for example, Baktakék school), but also creating special segregation schools for them (for example, Nyíregyháza – Huszártelep school)<sup>2</sup>. According to the *deficit model* or *deficit approach*, the child is responsible for his/her academic failures, or his/her narrower or broader family – and social background, which, determined by its specific culture, lifestyle, and financial possibilities, does not provide sufficient knowledge and desirable conditions for his/her development, i.e., the child brings his/her disadvantages in other areas (e.g., social) to school. In the deficit model, the education policy acknowledges the existence of different, legitimate cultures and places emphasis on nurturing them (cf. Nahalka, 2016). We speak of an *anti-racist* model when society has an indifferent or hostile attitude towards minorities and cultural groups.

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<sup>1</sup> Hódmezővásárhely implemented a well-functioning integrative education model for the successful elimination of school segregation. In the spirit of integration, the city rebuilt its primary education system both structurally and in terms of content: the city's then 11 schools were closed, new institutions were founded, and school buses were introduced to provide equal opportunities for children from outlying areas. (online: [https://nepszava.hu/1057931\\_hodmezovasarhely-a-kovetetlen-pelda](https://nepszava.hu/1057931_hodmezovasarhely-a-kovetetlen-pelda)).

<sup>2</sup> The Huszártelep Greek Catholic school in Nyíregyháza admits every child of the town who has reached the age of six without conditions. The church conducts "Roma pastoral care", therefore, it is mostly Roma students that attend the school (online: <http://sojamiklosiskola.hu/>).

### **3. The characteristics of educational organization in the education of groups that deserve special attention**

The education of those belonging to minorities depends significantly on whether their education is organized jointly or individually. Next, I will present the treatment of minorities as a group, the school organizational characteristics of which show great diversity.

One way of organizing the education of those belonging to minorities is that ethnic minority education is conducted in every class of a school, but it is also possible that one class receives ethnic minority education while the other does not. It also occurs that students belonging to one ethnic minority attend one class in a school and students belonging to another go to another. It is a common phenomenon when students from different cultures are taught together in one class of the school (for example, Gypsy students and non-Gypsy students in intercultural classes) while in the other they aren't. In this case, the latter group is often the school's elite class. Another solution to the problem is where Roma students or foreign students attend a class taught according to the majority program. As for secondary schools, the special organisational solution is that in the case of bilingual minority secondary school education, a language preparatory year is organized, where the target language of instruction is the language of the minority.

The goal of education for the social groups mentioned in the introduction (national minorities, ethnic minorities, immigrants) is different. National minority educational programs focus on national minority culture and language. Another goal is to maintain group attachment, build a sense of belonging to the settlement and the nation, and to provide knowledge about homeland and its people. The educational programs also contain a national minority education (minority education) concept, in which the teachers' tasks are also specified. This is especially important if the language of the nationality is (one of) the languages of instruction since this language is introduced into education just with the aim of achieving the goals. The goals of the education of students belonging to an ethnic group, mainly Roma students is sometimes to place emphasis on compensation for disadvantages, sometimes on development, or to balance them. In relation to the education of Roma students, it is important to clearly define the educational goals for the integrated education of Gypsy students. For immigrant and migrant students, the mother tongue is an important element that helps to build knowledge, but at the same time, in their respect, for the sake of social integration, the goal is to enable them to get familiar with the language and culture of the majority.

No matter the specific goal of the education of which of the above-mentioned groups we examine, we cannot ignore the majority environment. It is important that both the minority and the majority should be aware of the role of Hungarian historical minorities. They should know what minority and otherness mean. Students must be familiar with human rights, the minority and language rights, receive education that promotes tolerance and understanding, recognize conflicts, prejudices and their causes, see the problem of cultural differences, and they need to develop relevant competencies to deal with all of this.

The National Core Curriculum provides the basis for planning the education of national and ethnic minorities, providing for the teaching of the language and culture of the minority, and legislation (for example, the matriculation examination regulations) deals with the possibilities of non-Hungarian citizens (for example, they can take exams in Hungarian as a foreign language).<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>3</sup> The focuses of the curriculum:

- multicultural approach (recognition and interpretation of multicultural differences, development of the skill to assume the role of cultural intermediaries, recognition of cultural and social analogies, generalizations, parallels, knowledge and application of the norms of linguistic behaviour, relation to dialect),

### **3. The emergence of social inequality in Hungarian public education**

As a result of the social, economic and political changes that have taken place in Hungary since the regime change, the structure of society has been transformed, and Hungarian society has become particularly segmented in that the economic, social and cultural differences between the certain strata have increased. The impact of increased social inequalities can be felt in all areas of education, although, this is why the essential task of education is to reduce the differences between certain layers of society.

It has been mentioned many times that the organisational structure of the education system in Hungary needs to be reconsidered. The Hungarian school system has been serving the basic social structure for a long time, accurately reflecting it with its entire apparatus, supplementary system, internal content, pedagogical culture and financing. We could say that this is natural, but it should be added that it is not necessary in developed societies. The school systems of these countries do not reflect social inequalities to the same extent as that in Hungary (e.g., Northern European countries, Canada). Developed countries have recognised that a fundamental distinction must be made between social movements based on the use of skills (production, operation) and the social basic systems for the development of skills, and this recognition allows a social policy to operate that is reluctant to automatically accept the same inequalities of opportunity in education and knowledge production in this respect as those that have been created in society.<sup>4</sup> In his 2018 research, Csapó presents the structural differences between school systems formulating several propositions regarding their significant effects on students' achievements. The author reaches the conclusion that the school systems that provide equal learning opportunities for all students, regardless of their social and economic status, are more successful. In Hungary, one of the often-stated reasons for maintaining differences between schools is the need for elite schools that produce highly qualified students. However, despite the strong social selection, there are few schools that train an appropriate proportion of highly qualified students. In selective systems, it is not only the average students' performance that is lower than expected, but also that of the ones that perform outstandingly. Csapó states that in countries where children attend different types of schools separated according to their performance and skills, the overall performance of the school system is lower. He also reaches the conclusion that where a significant proportion of children from the given age group go to nursery school, the results are better (Csapó, 2018). As he notes, public education has an important role in creating equity, i.e., children and students who can rely on less than average support from their families must also be provided with competitive knowledge. Students with a low socioeconomic status perform worse than their better-off peers. However, countries with a developed education system can help them overcome the disadvantages brought from home while in systems that place emphasis on creating equity students will go on lagging behind, which may even increase. Therefore, efforts must be made to ensure that going to school does not become the result of a counter-selection where certain social strata and groups (e.g., the Roma) are inevitably disadvantaged and fall behind in their learning.

However, as long as society is hierarchically stratified, schools will not be able to offer all children the opportunities and chances that are necessary for their optimal development. There is the lowest social group in society and there are schools which the children of the lowest social group attend. The most sensitive measure of society's openness is the opportunities it can provide for such children (cf. phases and models related to the development of society).

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- language of instruction-pedagogical approach (the issues of the language of instruction -planning of the pedagogical program, the issues of the curriculum of the subject in the target language, the issues of thematic plans and lesson plans).

<sup>4</sup> According to Bourdieu (1978), the school is a conservative institution for reproducing and passing on social inequalities and differences according to unchanged patterns, and to alleviate this, system wide conditions for reducing inequalities at school level must be created.

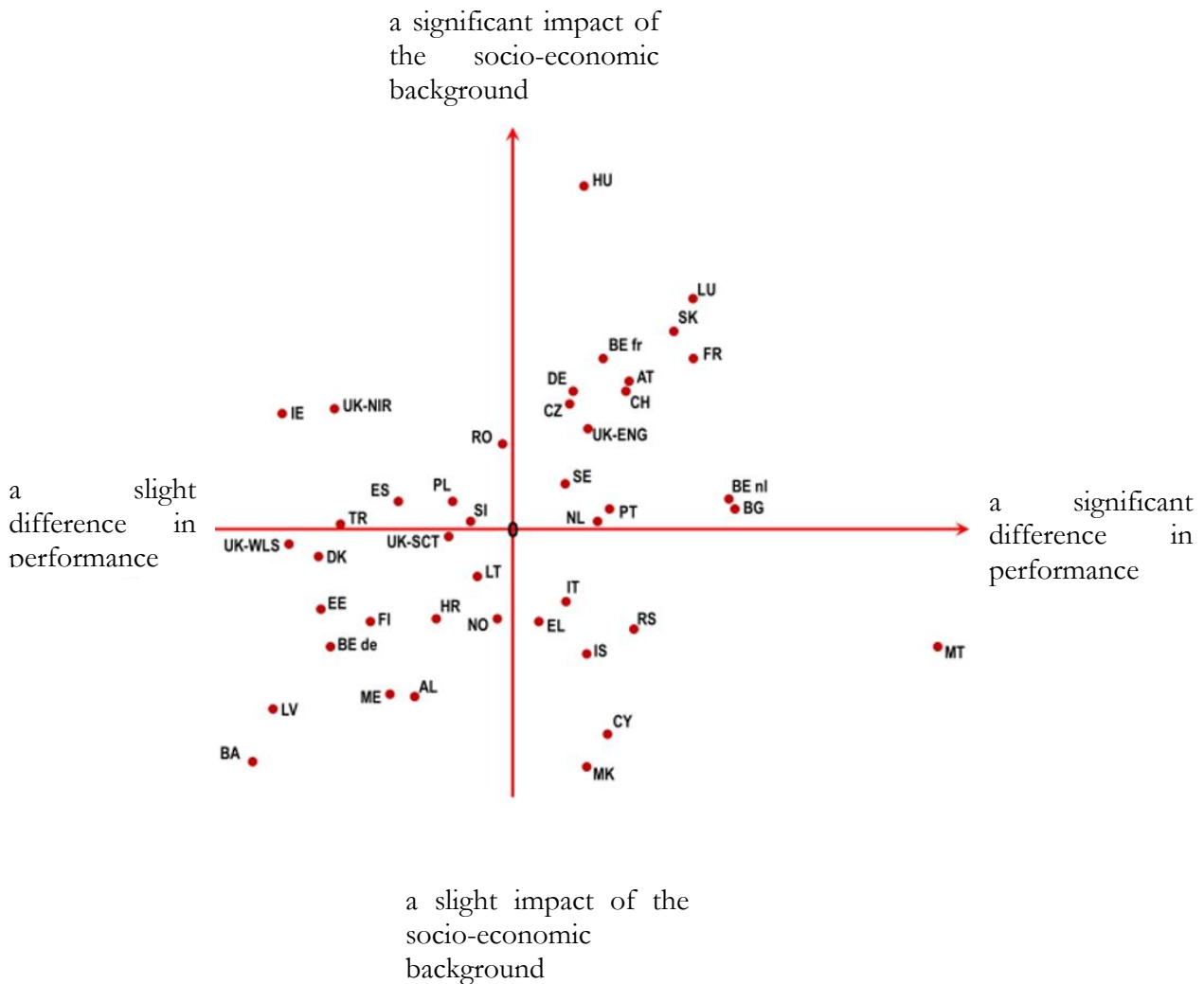
Although Ferenc Loránd (2004) proposed creating a school and an education system that adapts equally to the different life situations of all students in order to deal with the disadvantaged situation, I believe that changing the structure of schools is not enough to solve the problem because in the case of disadvantaged students, there is a risk that they will be able to benefit less from an equally good school. To reduce their falling behind, the education system needs to take several measures, some of which took effect in the last decade. An example of this in recent years is the compulsory pre-school education from the age of three, as well as the expansion of the day nursery care. Although preschool education and day nursery care help to overcome disadvantages, they are not sufficient by themselves. Support procedures that also help parents should be looked for.

One of the important tasks of schools is to develop students' skills and, at the same time, to reveal human values for society as much as possible. Currently, however, the biggest dilemma of pedagogy, and one of the biggest obstacles to making education and learning effective is that society does not use the educational institutions, or it uses them not only as a means of education and learning/teaching necessary for a democratic society, but - due to the segregated institutional system - also as a means of social distinction and status transmission. The mechanisms for this lie in the microworld of sessions and lessons, i.e., where it seems that equity-based policies cannot penetrate in general. Creating equity in this micro-world must bring about changes, and therefore, it should be able to make education and learning effective.

Roma children who are disadvantaged due to their social circumstances form a special group in this respect. The family background can be understood as a multidimensional space of inequality, which is influenced by the parents' social position, the family's cultural status, the use of cultural mediators, the parents' financial situation and the family's place of residence. Most disadvantaged Gypsy children do not know the language of the school and the educational environment codes, they fall behind, and they are highly unlikely to feel at home in the world of the school. The main danger is that these strata-specific disadvantages can become permanent and fixed during schooling, those who drop out of school have no chance of mobility. Nevertheless, it is the hierarchy formed between individuals that determines people's life path. It's the task of the individual to change the hierarchical order and gain positions, which is ultimately the key to advancement and mobility (K. Nagy, 2015). Therefore, even today, one of the most important goals of catching up disadvantaged students is to bring them to a state in which they "can be educated".

#### **4. Interpretation of equity related to groups deserving more attention**

By creating equity in education related to groups deserving more attention, we mean that every individual receives the amount and quality of education necessary for their development, resulting in their performance changing greatly, independent of their socio-economic background (Ballarino et al., 2014). While most countries undertake the task of creating equity, the level at which it is implemented differs from society to society. When a country is less "inclusive" towards those who do not belong to the majority society, creating equity is also a less important issue for it, i.e., in this case, the significant differences in students' academic performance are strongly correlated with their socio-economic background (Figure 1).

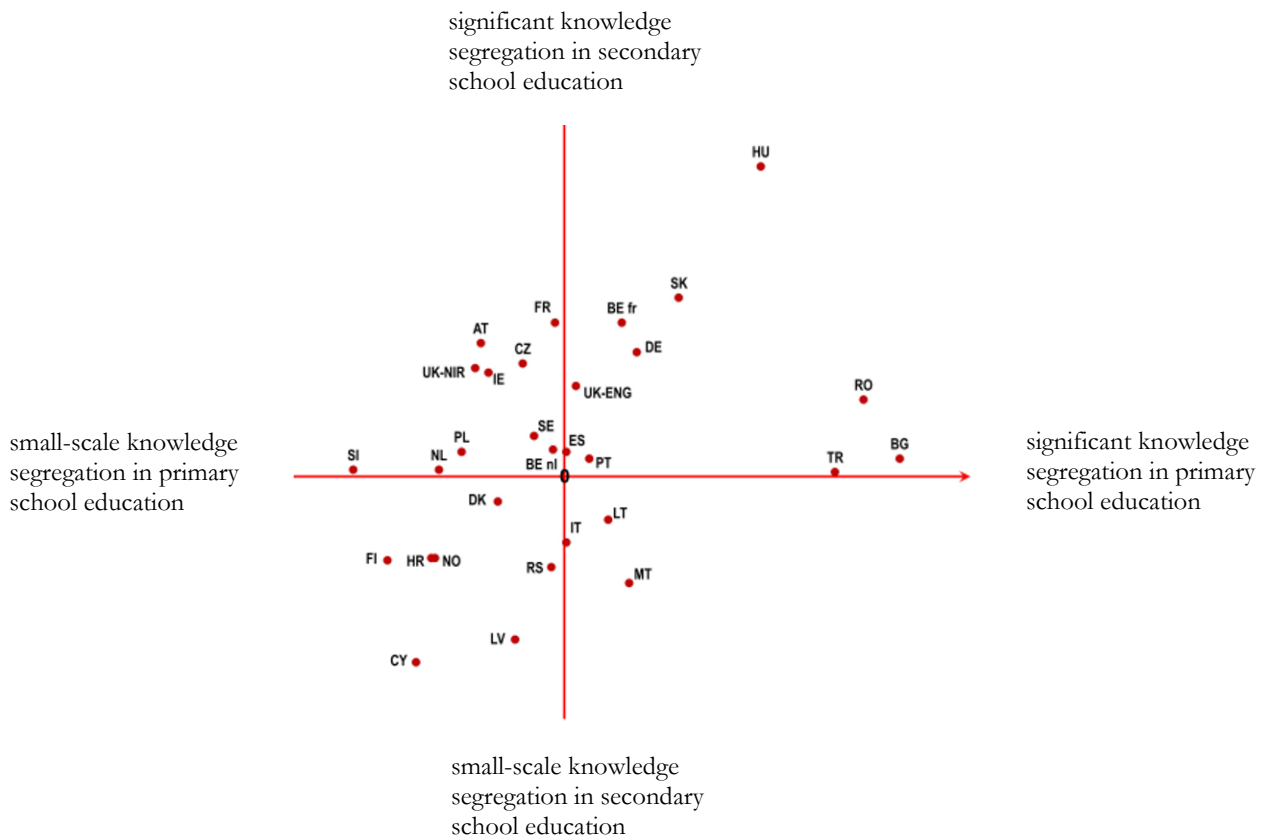


**Figure 1:** The relationship between the creation of equity (student performance) and the socioeconomic background (Eurydice, 2020)

Figure 1 shows that certain countries vary widely in terms of creating equitable education. The zero (0.0) point represents the average level of creating equity. The differences show a strong correlation with the socio-economic background of the students. As can be seen from the figure, Hungary's selective, segregation-supporting education system has the greatest influence on students' academic performance, i.e., the students' socioeconomic background generates the largest difference in their performance in our country.

Education is one of the most important helpers in making society more inclusive and equitable. To achieve this, the education system must ensure that all young people, regardless of their background, can develop their skills and enhance their talents. However, the socio-economic background strongly determines the effectiveness of those who deserve special attention, as the resulting underachievement, early school leaving, and social exclusion pose a threat to them.

Regarding this question, it is worth examining whether the difference in student performance appears within or between schools (Csapó, 2018). From the point of view of my topic, it is the latter that is important since the differences between schools are manifested primarily in terms of the students' average performance, a phenomenon that entails the difference in students' knowledge, which I interpret as knowledge segregation. This segregation particularly sensitively affects the group of those who deserve special attention (Figure 2).



**Figure 2:** Student performance and the extent of segregation in primary and secondary schools (Eurydice, 2020)

Figure 2 shows the relative level of performance-related segregation typical of public education. The zero (0,0) point represents the average level of knowledge segregation. As can be seen from the figure, there is a significant degree of segregation of students according to their knowledge in both primary and secondary education in Hungary.

### 5. Care and catch-up of those who deserve special attention before and after entering school

Early childhood education and care before entering school is the stage before primary education, which covers the period from birth to the age of 6, and preschool education is of particular importance. In this phase, a foundation of lifelong learning is established, the treatment of unequal opportunities for disadvantaged children starts, and the institutionalized initiation of individualized development takes place. Of the basic personality development skills, the development of intellectual abilities takes place, including the development of fine motor skills, which is a condition for teaching writing, the development of listening skills, which is the basis of effective reading instruction, and the development of relational vocabulary, which is the foundation of effective oral communication. Basic mathematics, inference generation and understanding connections also promote children's intellectual development. In addition, it plays an important role in strengthening children's ability to concentrate, developing their memory, and improving their observation skills. Nursery school is the field for deepening good habits, educating for civilized behaviour and tolerance, developing cooperative skills, and social and emotional education, which are aimed at ensuring a successful start to school for all children (OECD, 2017; Van Huizen & Plantenga, 2018; Vandenbroeck et al., 2018). The process is facilitated by the continuous professional cooperation between the nursery school and the school aimed at easing the transition from nursery school to school.



International research shows that early childhood education and care (ECEC) is a clear advantage both in terms of general development and later academic performance, which is given a particular priority in relation to children who deserve special attention, including disadvantaged children. According to the data of the PISA survey, disadvantaged children, mainly from Roma families, certainly make less use of these types of opportunities although expanding access to both general and special needs, as well as improving the quality of care could significantly contribute to overcoming the shortcomings (Csapó, 2018). In this regard, I primarily mean financial incentives for families, overcoming or mitigating cultural and language disadvantages, and the use of various general and targeted services (e.g., increasing family allowances, providing welfare benefits, helping single parents, etc.) (Vandekerckhove et al., 2019). According to the European Commission, participation in early childcare and PISA results show a correlation, i.e., students receiving early care generally perform better in cognitive tests than those who participated in such services for a shorter period of time, or not at all. According to the European Commission's report, participation in early childhood development is particularly noticeable in the performance of students with a low socio-economic background, mainly the Roma ones (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2014; OECD, 2011, 2014).

As already mentioned above, the expansion of nursery care and the introduction of compulsory kindergarten attendance from the age of 3 will help a lot, especially in the case of disadvantaged children. To achieve this, early development must be made available to all children belonging to disadvantaged groups, including those living in poverty, as well as those belonging to the immigrant or ethnic, Roma minority (Vandekerckhove et al., 2019). A good example of early childcare abroad is the Harlem Children's Zone (HCZ) organization<sup>5</sup>, which offers health, kindergarten and school programs, while in Hungary I point out the health visitor network<sup>6</sup>, the Safe Start program<sup>7</sup> and the Van Helyed System<sup>8</sup>. The common goal of these programs is to create opportunities for all children from an early age. The elements of the programs include early childhood care, improving learning skills, strengthening parental competences, and thereby creating a basis for the successful labour market integration of children living in disadvantaged families in the future.

Building equity in education during the years of school age is particularly important for minorities, including mainly Roma students, who are often educated under segregated conditions. In their case, we speak of segregation if they are concentrated in the same schools or in the same classes or on the same programs due to their minority status or skills (Parker et al., 2016, p. 12). The segregation demand of parents and students belonging to the elite strata, and primarily prejudice against disadvantaged, mainly Roma children will result in increased educational inequalities (Ammermüller, 2005; Strietholt et al., 2019). Free school choice

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<sup>5</sup> The Harlem Children's Zone (HCZ) is a non-profit organisation for poverty-stricken children and families in Harlem, providing free support in the form of parenting workshops, preschool and school programs and health programs. It supports children in primary and high school and then it keeps them on track through college and the job market.

<sup>6</sup> The health visitor service provided even before the birth of the child addresses all expectant mothers to enable them to properly prepare for their baby's arrival and them caring for him/her. The uniqueness of the method in the world is that the development of all infants and toddlers in the country is tracked in a family environment.

<sup>7</sup> The Biztos Kezdet (Sure Start) program can be implemented in areas characterized by unemployment, segregation, dead end villages, and a concentration of the Roma population. Its goal is to give children who live in the extreme poverty a chance to develop their skills and abilities at the earliest age. The pilot program started in 2003. In the meantime, the document titled 'Be Better for Children!' National Strategy - 2007-2032 was developed and adopted, which aimed at early skill development.

<sup>8</sup> The goal of the Van Helyed System created by the Van Helyed Foundation is to support the emancipation of marginalized social groups, primarily that of the Roma communities. By providing its services, the System helps the person from the fetal age until entering the job market in cooperation with the family. When creating and developing it, the Foundation utilized, among other things, the experience gained by the Harlem Children's Zone. (online: [www.vanhelyed.org/rendszer/](http://www.vanhelyed.org/rendszer/))

contributes to this, which results in greater socioeconomic and skill stratification (Wilson & Bridge, 2019), and all of this is closely related to the creation of equitable education (Gibbons, Machin and Silva, 2006; OECD, 2019). However, the more freedom parents and students have in this regard (either in terms of the type or number of schools offered, or in terms of school choice), the stronger impact the admission criteria and procedures have in certain schools. The admission procedure organized at an early age in primary school has a strong negative effect on creating equity as it increases social and skill stratification (Field, Kuczera & Pont, 2007; Merry & Arum, 2018). I note, however, that research supports that the impact of the socio-economic background on student performance generally has a greater influence than the distribution of students between schools according to place of residence (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2020, p. 228), i.e., children from higher-status families perform better than their lower-status peers, so parental background has a decisive influence. (Goldthorpe & Erikson, 2002). Numerous studies have investigated this issue, seeking to answer the question of how to increase the academic performance of children from less advantaged family backgrounds. Based on experience, it is obvious that well-trained, outstanding teachers are capable of obtaining significant results in the case of these children as well (Schmidt, Burroughs & Richard, 2015), i.e., equity in education can only be created in a school where teachers trained adequately work with adequate quality (Réthy & Vámos 2006). The task of education that gives priority to equity in education is to build a safety net that eliminates exclusion, intolerance and segregation, while at the same time it creates an environment that is adaptive, inclusive and takes into account specific educational needs. Equitable education provides equal opportunities to all students as it helps each child by adapting to their values. According to Lannert (2015), most of all, it is schools that operate in the spirit of inclusion that are capable of achieving this. In such an inclusive institution, efficiency and equity are reconciled since everyone receives the education that suits them, and thus students have the best performance they can achieve. In such a school, the teachers consider the development of their students equally important, regardless of their skills, motivation and family background. At the same time, in connection with the effectiveness of education, I believe that the hidden curriculum in the underlying background of the system taking effect in schools and classes (László László et al., 2006) is often more influential and, in favourable cases, it is more effective than the official curriculum.

A goal set by all Hungarian institutions that receive and provide care for students who deserve special attention is to create equity in education. These schools include institutions that organize excellent ethnic education, institutions that successfully educate disadvantaged and migrant students, as well as institutions that implement effective co-education, inclusive education. When selecting the examples below, I found it important to mention programs that operate in a network and/or are available in the form of teacher training and/or are exemplary in terms of their effectiveness.

The social program of the *Hungarian Charity Service of the Order of Malta*, which aims to support the disadvantaged, carries out uniquely complex work to help children/students living in extreme poverty – a significant part of whom are of Roma origin – to catch up due to the close cooperation with its special schools and the *Biztos Kezdet (Sure Start) Children's Houses*.<sup>9</sup> The *Hungarian Evangelical Brotherhood* also undertakes a mission similar to that of “Malta”, i.e. their goal is to help disadvantaged educational institutions. The goal of the *Arany*

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<sup>9</sup> The foundation, established in 2001, is responsible for maintaining 5 elementary schools, 5 nursery schools, 3 vocational training institutions and a developmental school. The four priority areas of the Maltese professional strategy: developing children's/students' social competences; developing basic competencies; developing digital competences; and renewing the institutions' educational organization practice. The foundation takes over nursery schools and primary schools primarily in settlements that are among the 300 poorest settlements in the country. (<http://maltaiskola.hu/>).

*János Talent Support Program (AJTP)*<sup>10</sup> is to support the further education of disadvantaged, talented students who have an opportunity to attend secondary schools and boarding schools where emphasis is placed on students' effective preparation for higher education studies ([http://www.ajtp.hu /start](http://www.ajtp.hu/start)). The *Igazgyöngy (Real Pearl) Foundation* aimed to help the disadvantaged has created a complex model of opportunity creation that helps families living on the periphery of society, in segregated communities to create a vision for the future and get integrated (<https://igazgyongyalapitvany.hu/>)<sup>11</sup>. A network of special schools aimed to help primarily Roma students began to emerge at the turn of the century, the first of which was the *Józsefváros School*<sup>12</sup>. Another good example of supporting disadvantaged students is the *InDaHouse Hungary Association*, whose volunteers hold individual and group development sessions for disadvantaged children living in the villages of Borsod county (<https://indahousehungary.hu/>).

In the Hungarian education system, there are schools that, if not in a pure form, give a priority to preserving linguistic diversity in education, and at the same time, with regard to foreign-speaking and migrant students, they place great emphasis on the acquisition of the Hungarian language, thus facilitating students' integration and academic success. It is significantly supported by the programs developed within the *Együtthaladó (Step together)* project developed by the teachers of linguistics at the University of Miskolc (Kecskés, 2013; Illésné Kovács & Kecskés 2018; Illésné Kovács, 2020) ([www.egyutthalado.uni-miskolc.hu/](http://www.egyutthalado.uni-miskolc.hu/)).<sup>13</sup>

The *Complex Instructional Program* and the *Complex Basic Program* are good examples of co-educating students in the classroom. The *Complex Instructional Program (KIP)* ([www.komplexinstrukcio.hu/](http://www.komplexinstrukcio.hu/))<sup>14</sup>, which organizes nearly two hundred schools into a network and gives priority to student status treatment aims to create equity in education. The KIP's networking is supported by the *Miskolc-Hejőkeresztúr KIP Methodology Centre* (<http://kipkozpont.uni-miskolc.hu/contact.php>)<sup>15</sup> established at the University of Miskolc. The *Complex Basic Program* (Révész, K. Nagy & Falus, 2018) ([www.komplexalapprogram.hu/](http://www.komplexalapprogram.hu/)) was developed as part of a pilot project led by Eszterházy Károly University (now Eszterházy Károly Catholic University) as a result of the *Complex Instructional Program*. The KIP is part

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<sup>10</sup> The general goal of the community is to help people recognise their human dignity and moral responsibility. The system currently supports 20 primary, secondary and higher education institutions. (<https://metegyhaz.hu/>).

<sup>11</sup> The foundation operates art schools in six settlements in the Berettyóújfalu region. They work together with the Berettyóújfalu School District, family helpers, child welfare services, the guardianship office, the health visitor network, nursery schools, primary and secondary schools, the police and municipalities.

<sup>12</sup> This special school called Tanoda is an initiative to compensate for disadvantages with an innovative approach based on local characteristics, the voluntary participation of children and young people and their individual needs. Bearing in mind children and young people's personality development, it provides a complex service which they who are on the social periphery and are less successful in the public education system have limited or no access to. The specialty of this special school is that it does not take out children from their own school, but instead, it aims to promote their academic success in cooperation with it (Szőke, 1998). These special schools also operate in a network, their number is nearly 300. (<https://tanodahalozat.hu/>; [www.facebook.com/TanodaPlatform/](http://www.facebook.com/TanodaPlatform/)).

<sup>13</sup> The novelty of the method is that, leaving the student in his/her own class, it develops their knowledge of Hungarian through specialized subjects. The years that have passed have proven that it can also be successfully applied among Hungarian children struggling with the Hungarian language.

<sup>14</sup> The KIP method enables teachers to organize high-level group work in heterogeneous groups of students. Its goal is to ensure access to knowledge for all students. The Complex Instruction (CI) was created by Rachel Lotan and Elizabeth Cohen (Stanford University). Impacted by the Stanford model, the Hungarian Complex Instruction Program was developed at the school in Hejőkeresztúr (K. Nagy, 2007, 2012, 2015). Today, it has been proven that the program can be used successfully in all schools, whether it is a training school belonging to the university or an institution teaching only Roma students.

<sup>15</sup> Besides KIP, in the framework of the project, the so-called complex lessons were developed. In addition, sub-program sessions are also organized for the harmonious development of students' personality. Within the framework of the program, Eszterházy Károly Catholic University addresses nearly 600 schools. The country's major teacher training universities are among the partners. (DE, EKE, ME, NYE, SZTE, PTE).

of the Complex Basic Program, in which more than a thousand schools have acquired the knowledge of the KIP through the Differentiated Development in Heterogeneous Groups of Students-Complex Instructional Program (DFHT-KIP) course.

The goal of schools that provide minority education, but are not characterized by a disadvantaged student composition, and that provide nationality education is to make students familiar with the language, culture and traditions of the given nationality, thereby strengthening the sense of belonging to the national community. As a result of the assimilation processes, the role of nationality institutions has now increased in facilitating the development of students' identity, strengthening their ties to their community, and striving to make the benefits of language and cultural diversity obvious to students. In Hungary, there is a high number of primary education institutions where some form of nationality education is present. (Table 1)<sup>16</sup>

**Table 1:** Primary education institutions providing nationality education

Form of education	Name of institution	Number of primary education institutions		Rate of national coverage
		<b>Nursery school</b>	<b>Primary school</b>	
<b>Nursery school performing nationality tasks</b>		783, from these 460 Roma		Having a national coverage
<b>Primary school performing nationality tasks</b>			696, from these 322 Roma	

Source: [www.oktatas.hu/kozneveles/intezmenykereso/koznevelesi\\_intezmenykereso](http://www.oktatas.hu/kozneveles/intezmenykereso/koznevelesi_intezmenykereso)

## 5. Teachers' competencies to help students who deserve special attention

In relation to the education of minorities, but primarily in terms of ethnic education, the biggest challenge for teachers today is how to prepare for their education. Teachers need to develop their knowledge of cultural diversity so that they can cope with the social and cultural heterogeneity of the class they teach, and thereby increase the effectiveness of their work. I believe that since the goal of development is strongly determined by the culture of the student group, teachers are supposed not only to know the cultural differences between students, but also what knowledge, depending on the culture, is important for them to acquire for effective development.

Taking into account the above requirements, in order to successfully educate students who deserve special attention, teachers must have the necessary nine teacher competencies, to which I add the following in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes (Education Office, 2019).

In relation to their existing knowledge, teachers are required to

<sup>16</sup> The following institutional forms of school education of national and ethnic minorities can be found in Hungary:

- nationality mother tongue based /nationality bilingual/supplementary nationality kindergarten education (e.g., Croatian Kindergarten, Primary School Grammar School and Students' Hostel, Budapest), nationality mother tongue based /nationality bilingual/nationality language teaching school education (e.g., Slovakian Kindergarten, Primary School, High School, Vocational Secondary School and Students' Hostel, Budapest; Nicolae Bălcescu Romanian High School, Primary School and Students' Hostel, Gyula; Friedrich Schiller High School, Vocational High School and Students' Hostel, Pilisvörösvár, Nikola Tesla Serbian Kindergarten, Primary School, High School, Budapest),
- supplementary nationality education (e.g., Bulgarian Language School, Budapest),
- Roma nationality public education (e.g., Don Bosco Primary School, Vocational School, Vocational High School, Kazincbarcika),
- nationality boarding school education (e.g., German Nationality High School and Students' Hostel, Budapest).

- have knowledge of the students' prior knowledge, interests, status and interpersonal relationships;
- have knowledge of the strategy, methods and tools for the successful education of heterogeneous groups of students;
- have knowledge about the possibilities of using multiple skills, their impact on treating learner status and facilitating the effectiveness of learning.

Regarding skills, teachers are supposed to

- be able to select and implement well-considered strategies suitable for different goals, methods and organizational forms that ensure motivation, differentiation, student activity, and help develop students' thinking, problem-solving and cooperation skills;
- be able to use traditional and ICT tools and digital teaching materials effectively and professionally;
- give priority to complex pedagogical activities in the classroom and be able to plan and implement pedagogical processes that support individual and group learning through all of these;
- give a more prominent role to problem-based education in their lessons as opposed to informative education;
- move from the leading, controlling role to the organizing role in order to build students' knowledge in some parts of their lessons;
- create balance between student-centered, learning-centered, evaluation-centered and community-centered knowledge acquisition in the lesson.

Regarding attitudes, teachers should

- consider it important to create equity in the classroom;
- consider it important to acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to support self-regulated learning;
- consider it important to develop students' innovation skills;
- consider it important to support student independence;
- consider it important to develop social behaviour besides developing cognitive skills.

Another contributing element to the successful operation of an institution is the cooperation between the members of the staff, thinking in terms of long-term plans, continuous learning, and the positive, encouraging influence exerted by the leaders on colleagues. An important task is to develop the pedagogical culture, especially with special regard to methodological diversity, but the knowledge of these methods does not mean their automatic and arbitrary application. The pedagogical assistant, the school psychologist, the teacher of learning development and special education teacher, the community helper, the social worker, etc., provide help for this work within an institutional framework.

## **6. Summary**

This paper intended to outline why and how the education that creates equity for those who belong to groups that deserve special attention (national minorities, ethnic minorities/Roma, immigrants) can contribute to remedying social inequality. By citing good examples and giving priority to creating equal opportunities for disadvantaged groups, I dealt with the education of groups that deserve special attention before and after entering school. I pointed out the additional competencies that teachers must have so that they can facilitate the academic success of students belonging to this group. I agree that in Hungary the problem of children who deserve special attention in school can be solved, and compensation for their lagging behind can be achieved by changing and reforming the education system. By getting familiar with the good examples, the teaching community has an opportunity to prepare for organizing equitable

education for students who deserve special attention and come with various social and language disadvantages.

In this paper, I placed emphasis on the schooling of Roma students, whose education mostly taking place under segregated conditions does not ensure the creation of equity. I close my discussion with Trudgill's (1995, 110) thought: "If someone becomes a victim of discrimination due to racism, we do not suggest that they change the colour of their skin [...]. If someone becomes a victim of discrimination due to sexism, we do not suggest, either, that they change their gender [...]. If someone becomes a victim of discrimination due to the dialect they speak, it is discrimination that must be eliminated not the dialect". Based on this idea, I believe that in groups that deserve special attention, to provide an education that gives the opportunity to create equity for disadvantaged and cumulatively disadvantaged students, primarily Roma students, such a school system must be operated in which children from different social groups attend the same educational institution and the same class.

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## Appendix

Appendix 1: Prominent good examples from Hungary - institutions that provide education aimed at creating equity

Form of education	Name of institutions	Number of primary and secondary education institutions served						The rate of national coverage
		Nurse ry school	Prima ry school	Second ary school	Developme ntal school	Boardi ng school	Special school or higher educati on	
The education of disadvantaged and/or migrant students	The Hungarian Charity Service of the Order of Malta	5	5	3	1			300 institutions situated in the poorest settlements



	the Hungarian Evangelical Brotherhood	5	8	6 from nursery school to secondary school		1	National coverage
	The Arany János Talent Support Program			23		13	National coverage
	The (Igazgyöngy) Real Pearl Foundation		6			1	Berettyóújfalú and its surroundings
	The Együttthaladó (Step together) program		8	4			Budapest és Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén county
Inclusive education	Complex Instruction Program – KIP		180	17			National coverage
	Complex Basic Program			713			National coverage

Michael Ochieng' Otieno, PhD student in educational science, Special education and disability studies, ELTE Eotvos Lorand University.

Dr. Könczei György, PhD, DSc, Professor, ELTE Eötvös Loránd University, Institute for Disability and Social Participation.

Dr. Sándor Anikó, PhD, Assistant Professor, ELTE Eötvös Loránd University, Institute for Disability and Social Participation.

Michael Ochieng' Otieno, Könczei György, Sándor Anikó: Pedagogical challenges in inclusive classrooms: Perspective of learners with special educational needs and disabilities

## **Abstract**

Inclusive education is important in the transformation of schools into platforms of excellence and equality for all students. For learners with special educational needs and/or disabilities (SEND), the concept of inclusive education is anchored on the United Nations Convention on the rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD), 2006, which requires that all learners SEND get access to education that is equitable to their non-disabled peers. As the concept of inclusive education gains currency, learners who previously would have been referred to specialised forms of provision, are now in the mainstream classrooms. Consequently, classroom teachers are increasingly faced with the challenge of teaching learners whose differences vary across many dimensions. This study employed semi-systematic literature review to explore challenges in inclusive classrooms in some European and global south countries, and to assess how such challenges affect the participation and autonomy of students with SEND. The findings of the study reveal several challenges including inadequate supplementary instruction and classroom support, inadequate specialised training for teachers, bullying and isolation, lack of awareness and negative attitude, co-teaching dilemmas, classification and ability labelling, resistance from parents and children, large class size and varied learner expectations and lack of relevant curriculum and teaching strategies. The study also found that these challenges meaningfully exclude learners with SEND from active classroom participation and consequently, hinders their attainment of classroom autonomy. The study recommends inclusive classroom practices which are based on research evidence of effectiveness in facilitating the academic and social development of learners with SEND.

**Key words:** Inclusive classroom, special educational needs, disability, challenges, participation, autonomy

## **1. Introduction**

### **1.1 Background of the study**

Inclusive education is a globally mandated education policy phenomenon that promotes students' right to quality education by means of adopting new educational approaches and arrangements to effectively meet the needs of all students including those with special educational needs and/or disabilities (SEND) (Liasidou, 2013). Inclusive education involves restructuring the culture, policies, and practices in schools so that they can respond to the diversity of students (Mehraj and Syed, 2017). According to England's Department for

Education and Employment (DfEE) (1997), advancing the notion of inclusive education means increasing the proportion of learners with SEND in mainstream schools, while maintaining special schools for those learners who may need them. In contrast, Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education (CSIE) (2002) describes inclusive education as a situation in which all learners are educated in regular classrooms within mainstream schools, with only temporary withdrawal from this situation for purposes of individualised work, group work or therapy. In this article the term ‘inclusive education’ is defined as the integration and education of most students with SEND in mainstream classes.

The question of inclusive and exclusive practices in education continue to play a central role in academic and political discussions worldwide (De Silva, 2013). For learners with SEND, the concept of inclusive education is anchored on the United Nations Convention on the rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD), 2006, article 24, 2(b) which requires that learners with SEND get access to education that is equitable to their non-disabled peers (United Nations, 2006). Inclusive classrooms must therefore recognize and respond to the diverse needs of the learners, accommodating both different styles and rates of learning and ensuring quality education to all learners through appropriate curricula, organizational arrangements, teaching strategies, resource use and partnerships with their communities. Li (2012) defines pedagogy as a method of imparting knowledge and skills that considers the interactions that take place within the learning environment. According to Shulman (1987), pedagogy adopted by teachers shapes their actions, judgments, and teaching strategies by taking into consideration theories of learning, understandings of students and their needs, and the background and interest of individual students. The inclusive pedagogical approach suggests a way of working that is reflected by a shift in thinking from ideas of ‘most’ and ‘some’ learners to ‘all’ learners (Lani and Holly, 2010). Lewis and Norwich (2005) acknowledged that teaching strategies in mainstream education can be adapted to assist students with learning difficulties. In addition, Hegarty (2007) asserted that effective practices in special education are often found in mainstream education, therefore it is difficult to sustain the argument that students who have been identified as having special or additional support needs require teaching methods and approaches that are pedagogically different from those used with normal learners.

As the concept of inclusive education gains currency, learners who previously would have been referred to specialised forms of provision, are now in the mainstream classrooms (Ferguson, 2008). Consequently, classroom teachers are increasingly faced with the challenge of teaching learners whose differences vary across many dimensions (De Silva, 2013). Aniftos and McLuskie, (2002) noted that although inclusive education is a popular concept in educational discourses, there remains a gap in describing common knowledge and practices. Despite enhanced concerns about advancing inclusive education, there is considerable empirical evidence suggesting that educational services do not meet the diverse needs of students with SEND (Slee, 2011), who are more likely, in comparison with their peers, drop out of school. Meaningful participation among students occurs when their contributions in the classroom environment are facilitated, rather than directed, and when learning is connected to students' interests and applicable to their lives (Morris, 2003). For learners with SEND, meaningful participation involves being included in mainstream classroom activities (Morris, 2005). Meaningful participation at school helps cultivate students' autonomy and decision-making skills (Leithwood and Mascall, 2008).

## **1.2 Purpose of the study**

The purpose of the study is to explore challenges in inclusive classrooms, as experienced by learners with SEND, and to assess how such challenges may affect a learner's sense of autonomy and meaningful participation within the classroom setting.

### **1.3 Research questions**

The study aims to address two research questions:

- i. What are some of the challenges faced by learners with SEND in the mainstream classrooms?
- ii. How do the inclusive classroom challenges affect the classroom participation and autonomy of learners with SEND?

### **1.4 Theoretical framework**

The study is guided by the Causal Agency Theory (Wehmeyer *et al.*, 2015) which explains how people become self-determined, that is, how people define their actions and beliefs that are necessary for engagement in self-caused, autonomous actions that addresses basic psychological needs. Self-determined people make conscious choices based on one's preferences. Three essential characteristics lead to causal agency: volitional action, agentic action, and action-control belief. Volitional actions are self-initiated and function to enable a person to act autonomously. Agentic actions are self-regulated and self-directed and function to enable a person to make progress toward freely chosen goals and to respond to opportunities and challenges in their environments. Action-Control Beliefs: Is a sense of personal empowerment; a believe that you have what it takes to achieve freely chosen goals.

## **2. Literature review**

### **2.1 Introduction**

A review of literature on inclusive education practices is explored with an aim of analysing how such practices could foster learning of students with SEND.

### **2.2 Inclusive education practices**

Wu *et al.* (2018) advocates for inquiry teaching in the context of inclusive education, putting emphasis on provision of appropriate education for students with diverse needs. De Silva (2013) emphasised on different pedagogic models centred on social justice, democracy and respect for individual differences and integration of knowledge through a participatory approach to create an inclusive classroom. Common features of schools where inclusive education thrive (Giangreco, 1997) include: a collaborative and shared framework with family involvement, a clear role and relationship among professionals with effective use of support staff (special educators); meaningful Individual Education Plans (IEPs) and procedures for evaluating effectiveness; positive attitude to inclusion from classroom teachers and special educators; positive peer relationships and provision of adequate resources. Hunt and Goetz (1997) emphasised teaching staff consensus on the value of all children in mainstream schools as an essential element of success in inclusive classrooms. In addition, they affirmed the importance of reconceptualising teaching roles and responsibilities to enable collaborative teaching, and acceptance of the idea that inclusion represents an opportunity to participate. Hopkins *et al.* (1996) identified student participation in the decision-making process, positive attitude towards the learning abilities of all students, teachers' knowledge of learning difficulties of all students, careful application of specific instructional methods, and parent and teacher support as some of the important components needed to promote inclusive education. The use of support staff or special educators is of great importance in inclusive classrooms since they influence the naturalness of interactions (Farrell, 2001). When classroom teachers, special educators and

other support staff work together in co-teaching situations, there could be fewer problems associated with the severity of the learning difficulties (Farrell, 2001). De Silva (2013) reported that positive peer relationships, which are positive traits in inclusive classroom settings, create an environment that show acceptance of individual differences. Active citizenship pedagogy demands that classroom teachers, special teachers, and peers pursue emancipatory social justice, working towards the recognition and inclusion of all by actively building a consensus (De Silva, 2013). To promote social justice and democracy, educators must recognise and respect the individual differences of all learners (Aniftos and McLuskie, 2002). This would enable a more effective alignment of teaching and learning techniques aimed at achieving a more inclusive classroom.

Mitchell (2014) advocates for education that put emphasis on learning programmes and activities that are anchored on evidence-based teaching, and behavioural strategies in meeting students' varied needs. To this end, she asserted that teachers are expected to utilise appropriate pedagogical approaches, specialised interventions, and support strategies. Hornby *et al.* (2013) emphasised that effective implementation of evidence-based practices is a key element of inclusive special education. Ortiz (2001) proposes a clinical teaching model that is premised on modifying teaching strategies systematically, close observation and monitoring of students' progress as a means of identifying their needs and designing appropriate interventions. A common broad and balanced curriculum and application of general teaching strategies, personalised to meet the needs of all learners are appropriate approaches to achieving a conducive inclusive classroom (Norwich and Lewis, 2007). Hornby (2011) champions for interventions involving assistive and instructional technologies, guided peer tutoring and co-operative learning that would optimise the effectiveness of teaching and collaboration with parents and other professionals. Mainstream schools should offer resource-based models of integration to enable full-time inclusion of some learners with SEND, while providing segregated education (special schools) for those with profound and severe difficulties (Farrell, 1997). The contributions of these scholars imply that appreciation of learners' individual differences is the hallmark of inclusive educational practice. As such, if their suggestions are fully implemented, the learners with SEND could get opportunities to meaningfully participate in inclusive classroom activities and eventually be able to attain classroom autonomy.

### 3. Methodology

This study employed a semi-systematic (narrative) literature review to identify challenges in inclusive classrooms, as experienced by students with SEND in educational institutions found in European and global south countries (Asia and Africa). A semi-systematic review was preferred for this study because it is an approach that enables a researcher to detect common issues within a specific research discipline (Ward, House, and Hamer, 2009).

The inclusion criteria used in this study were:

- i. The articles must have been published in peer-reviewed English journals between 1995 and December 2022. The year 1995 is significant since the study intends to make a follow up on the Salamanca statement of 1994 which recommends a proper classroom support for children with SEND (UNESCO, 1994).
- ii. The articles must be related to students in the basic education program (primary and secondary schools).
- iii. The article must relate to learning in general education classrooms/mainstream classes.

The review involved four steps:

- i. Database search was conducted using ERIC electronic search engine. The specific descriptor words and phrases used were inclusion or inclusive education, mainstream schools or inclusive schools or regular schools, mainstream classrooms or inclusive

classrooms or regular classrooms or general classrooms, special educational needs or disability, and pedagogical challenges or barriers or problems.

- ii. Articles selection by reviewing titles and abstracts yielded 46 articles.
- iii. Articles selection by reviewing full texts produced 37 articles.
- iv. Finally, the articles were re-read and categorized using thematic analysis. Thematic analysis is used in this study because of its strength in identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns in the form of themes (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

### 3. Results

#### 4.1 Overview of studies

Thirty-seven articles met the inclusion criteria. Regarding locality, 21 articles reported research carried out in Europe, 10 in Africa and 6 in Asia.

**Table 1** Overview of studies included in the review

Study	Location	Results
Brydges and Mkandawire (2017)	Nigeria	-Lack of additional specialised attention and specialised classroom technology for learners with visual impairments. -Students with visual impairments are being harassed or subjected to mockery, looked down upon and their views are not respected by their non-disabled peers. -Students with SEND are put under the tutelage of their non-disabled peers.
Engelbrecht <i>et al.</i> (2017)	South Africa	-Teachers lack well-developed special educational needs support network. -Limited technology advanced aids in schools in poor socio-economic environments. -Inadequate equipment to assist learners with some specific disabilities.
Gathumbi <i>et al.</i> (2015)	Kenya	-Limited special services for students with disabilities who are in inclusive classrooms.
Xu (1995)	China	-Lack of support personnel such as vocational counsellors, evaluators and work placement specialists.
Mehraj and Syed (2017)	India	-Inclusive classrooms lack of assistive devices for students with SEND. -Teachers have inadequate competency, knowledge, and educational qualification to handle learners with SEND. -Negative attitude of teachers towards learners with SEND and marginalized children. -Large class size is an obstacle for teachers in enacting inclusive education. -The rigidity in the curriculum does not allow the learning of students with SEND to be at par with their normal peers.

Avramidis <i>et al.</i> (2000)	UK	-Many teachers do not have the relevant knowledge, and skills necessary for inclusion of children with a wide range of SEND in their classes.
Ofsted (2008)	England	-Teachers lack the necessary knowledge and skills to work with a range of individual differences.
Anastasiou, Kauffman, and Di Nuovo (2015)	Italy	-Unspecialized initial training for support teachers.
Bragiel and Kaniok (2016)	Poland	-Lack of teachers' proficiency in inclusive classroom practices. -Lack of parents' understanding of the idea behind inclusive education hinder cooperation.
Walton and Rusznyak (2017)	South Africa	-Initial teacher education programmes do not respond to the increased demand for newly qualified teachers for inclusive schools.
Guan (2017)	China	-Most teachers lack the necessary expertise to handle students with SEND.
Farrell (2001)	Sweden	-Pupils with SEND are ignored by their non-disabled classmates.
De Silva (2013)	Sweden	-Students with SEND are isolated and rejected by their non-disabled peers. -Inadequate collaboration between the special educators and classroom teachers. -Children and parents resist teachers' (experts') diagnoses.
Nes, Demo, and Ianes (2018)	Italy	-Students with disabilities are segregated to a separate area of the classroom by their non-disabled classmates.
Desombre (2019)	France	-General teachers have less positive attitude toward inclusion as compared to special education teachers.
Warnes <i>et al.</i> (2021)	England	-Most teachers perceive children with SEND as demanding a great deal of effort.
Ellsworth and Zhang (2007)	China	-Teachers have a heavy teaching workload.
Giangreco (1997)	Sweden	-Confusion due lack of harmonised teaching methods between the classroom teacher and special educator.
Hornby (2015)	UK	-Negative labelling and stigma.
McIntyre (2005)	UK	-Conflict in decisions made by class teacher and support staff.
Ianes, Demo and Dell'Anna (2020)	Italy	-Status conflict between support teachers and general teachers undermines collaboration.
Neumann and Lutie-Klose (2021)	Germany	-Inadequate cooperation between special teachers and general teachers undermines effective learning.
Lani and Holly (2005)	Scotland	-Classification of students into ability groups diminishes the performance of those who fall in the lower set.
Dahlberg and Moss (2004)	Italy	-Classification into ability groups reinforces exclusion of those who do not fit into the standard framework.

Anitfos and McLuskie (2002)	Sweden	-Conflict in opinion among parents, children and teachers hurt classroom interaction.
Lani and Holly (2010)	Scotland	-Classification of students into ability groups negatively affects students with SEND.
Maiwa and Ngeno (2017)	Kenya	-Large class sizes and high teacher-student ratios are obstacles to inclusive education practices.
Hettiarachchi and Das (2014)	Sri Lanka	-Diversity in school and classroom populations may induce stress in mainstream teachers.
Otukile-Mongwaketse (2018)	Botswana	-Teaching methods are mostly teacher centred. -Examination-oriented curriculum and large class sizes. -Use of authoritarian approaches of teaching perpetuate exclusion of students with SEND.
Kolchenko (2007)	Ukraine	-Teaching styles inappropriate to students with disabilities. -Most instructors have limited ability to help students with disabilities feel accepted.
Ghergut (2010)	Romania	-Some mainstream teachers resist the inclusion of learners with SEND in their classes.
Engelbrecht (2020)	South Africa	-Narrow curriculum in initial teacher education programmes.
Genovesi <i>et al.</i> (2021)	Sub-Saharan Africa	-Educational materials inadequate in regular schools. -No personnel in most institutions to provide advisory services to regular teachers.
Anjum <i>et al.</i> (2021)	Pakistan	-Students with learning difficulties lack repeat instruction from teachers.
Speck (2019)	England	-Schools have inadequate trained paraprofessionals and support staff in SEND.
Engelbrecht (2016)	South Africa	-Mainstream teachers are ill-prepared to handle learners with SEND.
Andrews <i>et al.</i> (2020)	South Africa	-Leadership-imposed teaching practices based on challenging socio-economic factors.

Qualitative thematic analysis yielded the following common themes as the challenges facing learners with SEND in most inclusive classrooms: inadequate supplementary instruction and classroom support, inadequate specialised training for teachers, bullying and isolation, lack of awareness and negative attitude, co-teaching dilemmas, classification and ability labelling, resistance from parents and children, large class size and varied learner expectations and lack of relevant curriculum and teaching strategies.

#### **4.2 Inadequate supplementary instruction and classroom support**

Inadequate supplementary instruction and classroom support for learners with SEND is reported to be a barrier to classroom participation. In Nigeria, students with visual impairments have difficulties learning mathematics together with other students in absence of additional specialized attention (Brydges and Mkandawire, 2017). In addition, they indicated that students with visual impairments lacked specialised classroom technology such as access to the Job Action with Speech (JAWS) program, which would allow them to use computers. In a study conducted in sub-Saharan Africa, Genovesi *et al.* (2021) reported that educational materials



were either not provided or inadequate in most regular schools where students with special needs were being integrated. Further, the study noted that there were no personnel in most institutions to provide important advisory services that would assist the regular teachers with teaching and managing the learners with special needs who were being educated in mainstream public schools. In South Africa, teachers lack the well-developed special educational needs support network. As a result, students having learning difficulties remain on the periphery of classroom activities as teachers prefer to refer them to external specialised support centres (Engelbrecht *et al.*, 2017). In addition, technologically advanced aids are limited in poor socio-economic environments of south Africa, hence schools in these environments do not have adequate equipment to assist learners with some specific disabilities (Engelbrecht *et al.*, 2017). Gathumbi *et al.* (2015) study in Kenya, decried limited special services for students with disabilities who are in inclusive classrooms. In China, support personnel such as vocational counsellors, evaluators and work placement specialists are lacking in most of the educational institutions serving learners with special needs (Xu 1995). Anjum *et al.* (2021) study in Pakistan reported that students with special educational needs lack repeat instruction from teachers. Mehraj and Syed (2017) noted that most inclusive classrooms in India lack of assistive devices that would enable students with SEND take full advantage of the learning process. They noted that use of technology such as use of Power Point Presentations, has proved to be a challenge especially to the visually impaired students.

### **4.3 Inadequate specialised training for teachers**

Inadequate specialized training for teachers is reported as a hindrance to learning in most mainstream classrooms. Avramidis *et al.* (2000) study conducted in the UK showed that many teachers do not have the relevant knowledge and skills necessary for inclusion of children with a wide range of SEND in their classes. In England, Ofsted (2008) reported that teachers lack the necessary knowledge and skills to work with a range of individual differences among learners in inclusive classrooms. Speck (2019) noted that English schools have inadequate trained paraprofessionals and support staff in SEND. In Italy, the unspecialized initial training for support teachers has been criticized since it raises doubts about the ability of such teachers to guarantee adequate support for pupils with SEND (Anastasiou, Kauffman, and Di Nuovo, 2015). In Poland, Bragiel and Kaniok (2016) observed lack of teachers' proficiency in inclusive classroom practices as the main challenge faced by learners with SEND. Walton and Rusznyak (2017) reported that initial teacher education programmes in south Africa do not respond to the increased demand for newly qualified teachers for inclusive schools. In addition, Engelbrecht *et al.* (2017) study findings indicated that South African teachers in principle support the justification of inclusive education, however, they expressed serious doubts about their own self-efficacy in its implementation. Some teachers from the mainstream classrooms described themselves as not qualified since they were initially trained to work in general classrooms, hence not willing to include students with SEND in their classes. The teachers prefer to refer learners with SEND to qualified health professionals for support and placement in separate classrooms (Engelbrecht, 2016). In China, Guan (2017) indicated that most teachers are willing to provide support for the learning of students with SEND but lack the necessary expertise and support. Consequently, classroom participation of students with SEND is unsatisfactory and remains a significant challenge. Inadequate competency, knowledge and educational qualifications remain a challenge for most teachers in India, hence such teachers are unable to meaningfully fulfil their inclusive classroom duties (Mehraj and Syed, 2017).

### **4.4 Isolation and bullying**

Most students with SEND in mainstream schools experience isolation and bullying. In Sweden, peer interaction has worked against inclusion since disabled children in inclusive classrooms are being isolated by their non-disabled peers. As a result, teachers are in a dilemma of whether to teach pupils with SEND in excluded environments or place them in inclusive environments where they are rejected by their peers (De Silva, 2013). In another study in Sweden, Farrell (2001) observed that if a pupil with special need is placed in a group of mainstream children, there is a great risk that the pupil will be ignored, hence the need for a support staff to influence the naturalness of interaction. Students with disabilities in mainstream classes in Italy sometimes experience the phenomenon of micro-exclusion, whereby they get segregated to a separate area of the classroom by their non-disabled classmates (Nes, Demo, and Ianes, 2018). In Nigeria, students with visual impairments reported being harassed or subjected to mockery by their classmates with normal vision, and such superior attitudes appeared to specifically relate to their disability (Brydges and Mkandawire (2017).

#### **4.5 Lack of awareness and negative attitude**

Negative attitude and lack of awareness of the unique needs of students with SEND is reported in several mainstream classrooms. In England, most teachers perceive children with SEND as demanding a great deal of effort which add load to their already overstretched regular teaching role (Warnes *et al.*, 2021). Desombre (2019) noted that most general teachers in France have less positive attitude toward inclusion as compared to special education teachers. He explained that this discrepancy is partly sustained by general teachers' lower sense of efficacy. In Nigeria, Brydges and Mkandawire (2017) noted that students with disabilities are often looked down upon and that their views are not respected by the classmates. This undermines their self-worth hence makes it difficult for them to demonstrate their competence. Negative attitude of teachers towards learners with SEND and marginalized children is a major issue in inclusive education set-up in India (Mehraj and Syed (2017).

#### **4.6 Co-teaching dilemmas**

Classroom challenges regarding cooperation between general teachers and special teachers exist in many mainstream classrooms. In Sweden, Giangreco (1997) reported that when a classroom teacher and a special teacher use two different teaching methods or believe in two ways of including a special need child in the classroom, the child gets caught up between two views. In addition, De Silva (2013) observed that effective use of support staff (special educators) was lagging due time constraints for collaboration. In the UK, McIntyre (2005) observed that when organising classes into ability groups or according to curriculum levels, the judgements made by class teachers about certain teachers often conflict those formed by the support staff. There is also a dilemma related to labelling (Hornby, 2015), since if students are identified as having SEND, there is a risk of negative labelling and stigma, while if they are not identified, there is a risk that they will not get the teaching they require, hence their special needs may not be met. In Italy, the difference in the status of support teachers (special educators) and class teacher (general teachers) led to some challenges regarding collaboration between them (TreeLLLe Association, Caritas, and Agnelli Foundation, 2011). This status cold war and its resultant lack of collaboration undermines a teacher's preparation and content delivery. When support teachers are assigned certain classes because of the presence of students with SEND, in most cases it generates conflicts since general teachers often feel that they are deemed incapable of such responsibilities despite emphasis on equal responsibility for teachers (Ianes, Demo and Dell'Anna, (2020). This inadequate collaboration could mean that students with SEND do not get the expected classroom support. In Germany,

teaching responsibilities in inclusive classrooms are divided among special and general teachers, but various challenges regarding cooperation exist, and this may foster separation and exclusion (Neumann and Lutje-Klose, 2021).

#### **4.7 Classification and ability labelling**

Classification and ability labelling hurt learners with SEND as observed in many mainstream schools. In Scotland, when classifying learners into ability groups based on teachers' judgement, the outcome is not only a celebration of the progress of the learner who has moved to the top set but also a concern for those left behind in the lower set (Lani and Holly, 2010). For the learners who fall in the lower set, who in most cases are those with SEND, this classification shows a low level of teacher expectation (Lani and Holly, 2005), which not only diminishes their performance but also their self-confidence. In Italy, those pupils who fall in the lower set are identified as academically weak and treated with pedagogical remedies (Dahlberg and Moss, 2004). This may not only make it difficult for inclusion process, but also undermine individual children's needs, interests, and learning abilities in relation to their non-disabled peers. Dahlberg and Moss, (2004) asserted that this process where learners are subjected to standard measurements to gauge whether they can perform certain learning tasks, reinforces exclusion of those who do not fit into the standard framework.

#### **4.8 Resistance from parents and children**

Resistance from parents and children has proved to be a challenge as observed in many inclusive schools. In Sweden, children and parents at times resist teachers' (experts') diagnoses and occasionally come into conflict with the school and teachers (De Silva 2013). When parents, children, and teachers find themselves in different subjective positions, in most cases it results in some students losing interest in learning, becoming less responsive, and being violent to their teachers (Anitfos and McLuskie, 2002). Bragiel and Kaniok (2016) study in Poland reported that lack of parents' understanding of the idea behind inclusive education hinder cooperation between them and teachers.

#### **4.9 Large class size and varied learner expectations**

Large class size has prevented individualised attention to students with SEND. In India (Mehraj and Syed (2017) reported that large class size is an obstacle for teachers in implementing inclusive education. In China, teachers have a heavy teaching workload because paraprofessionals or teacher assistants are not employed (Ellsworth and Zhang (2007). Maiwa and Ngeno (2017) observed that the reality of inclusion is yet to be realised in Kenyan public schools due to large class sizes and high teacher-student ratios. In Sri Lanka, it has been found that diversity in school and classroom populations (Hettiarachchi and Das, 2014) may induce stress in mainstream teachers. According to Friend and Bursuck (2019), stress and anxiety occur when the input required from the teacher to implement inclusive education increases.

#### **4.10 Lack of relevant curriculum and teaching strategies**

Lack of relevant curriculum and teaching strategies has hurt classroom participation of learners with SEND. In India, the rigidity in the curriculum does not allow the learning of students with SEND to be at par with their normal peers (Mehraj and Syed, 2017). In Botswana, Otukile-Mongwaketse (2018) findings reveal that teaching methods are mostly teacher centred, a move that leave learners with SEND minimally benefitting from the teaching and learning process.

In addition, Otukile-Mongwaketse (2018) identified examination-oriented curriculum and large class sizes as the main barriers to learner centred approaches. They identified traditional use of authoritarian approaches of teaching as one way of perpetuating exclusion, since such methods make curriculum inaccessible to most learners with SEND. In a study conducted at a Ukrainian University, (Raver-Lampman and Kolchenko 2007) reported that most teaching styles used in inclusive classrooms are inappropriate to students with disabilities and that most teachers have limited ability to accommodate students with disabilities. Some mainstream teachers in Romania resist the inclusion of learners with SEND in their classes since they are inclined to teaching students whose diversity does not challenge their traditional pedagogical practice (Ghergut, 2010). Brydges and Mkandawire (2017) study in Nigeria, reported that in most mainstream classrooms students with SEND are put under the tutelage of their non-disabled peers. A teacher would ask the classmates or friends of students with visual impairments to assist them by dictating notes and explaining difficult concepts. In situations where academic performance is competitive, Brydges and Mkandawire (2017) explains, it is challenging for a student with a disability to rely on classmates for assistance. When learners with SEND are under the tutelage of their non-disabled peers, the perception that disability is lack of ability may get affirmed, thereby undermining their self-esteem and reinforcing their perceived subordinate status in the classroom. Further, they observed that classmates of learners with SEND would sometimes fail to attend to their requests for assistance, thereby undermining the ability of learners with SEND from keeping pace with classwork. In south Africa, Andrews *et al.* (2020) observed that implementation of inclusive education practices is constrained by leadership-imposed teaching practices based on challenging socio-economic factors. In addition, the study noted that narrow curriculum in initial teacher education programmes pose a challenge since it fails to broaden the boundaries of inclusive education by integrating broader pedagogical practices of teachers in mainstream classrooms.

## **5. Discussion**

Meaningful classroom participation of students with SEND occurs when their contributions in the classroom are facilitated by their teachers, non-disabled classmates and parents, and when learning is connected to their experiences, interests and applicable to their lives (Morris, 2003). When the teaching and learning process in an inclusive environment is well planned and supported, learners, including the most vulnerable get actively involved in the learning process and consequently develop some of the self-determination skills such as being autonomous (Wehmeyer *et al.*, 2015). In this state of autonomy, they can perform self-initiated and self-directed actions which could enable them progress towards freely chosen goals and respond to opportunities and challenges in their environments (Wehmeyer *et al.*, 2015).

The findings of this study show that most inclusive classroom environments lack the essential ingredients of an inclusive classroom practice, hence students with SEND are faced with myriad of challenges which negatively affect the administration of the necessary support they require for effective learning. Without this support, such learners get excluded from classroom participation and consequently fail to attain classroom autonomy. In this state, students with SEND are often unable to develop some decision-making skills that would facilitate their response to opportunities and challenges in the classroom environment.

## **6. Conclusion and recommendation**

### **6.1 Conclusion**

This study shows that most inclusive classroom practices employed by most teachers meaningfully exclude learners with SEND from active classroom participation and consequently, their attainment of classroom autonomy is compromised (Morris, 2003). In this state, such learners cannot perform self-initiated and self-directed actions (Wehmeyer *et al.*, 2015).

## 6.2 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study:

- i. A theory of inclusive special education (Hornby, 2015) is recommended for effective implementation of inclusive education practices. The theory combines both the philosophies, policies and practices of both special education and inclusive education to form inclusive special education with an aim of ensuring that all children with SEND are effectively educated in either special education or mainstream schools.
- ii. Inclusive schools must ensure that inclusive classroom practices are based on research evidence of effectiveness in facilitating the academic and social development of learners with SEND, and avoid strategies found to be ineffective, such as between-class ability grouping.
- iii. Teacher training institutions should consider the use of the UNESCO Teacher Resource Pack (Ainscow, 2005) in their training programs. The pack is designed to facilitate teachers' training for inclusive education implementation by restructuring schools and classrooms along inclusive lines so that the needs of all learners could be met.

## 6.3 Suggestions for Further Research

Based on the findings of this study, further studies need to be carried out to generate a new vision that would effectively combine key aspects of inclusive education and special education to ensure that all learners with SEND receive the best possible education in mainstream classrooms.

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Muhammad Nizaar, Indonesia  
Najamudin, Indonesia  
Haifaturrahmah  
Ardilansari  
Universitas Muhammadiyah Mataram

Muhammad Nizaar, Najamudin, Haifaturrahmah, Ardilansari: The Effect of the Mind Mapping Method on Elementary School Students' Elaboration Thinking Skills in Indonesia

**Introduction:** Teachers rarely use mind mapping to develop students' elaboration thinking skills. They use the lecture method more often, so this way does not give students freedom of thought. The advantage of the mind mapping method is that it gives freedom to students to connect an object with other objects in a concept map. This study aims to examine the effect of applying the mind mapping method on students' elaboration thinking skills.

**Method:** This study applied a quasi-experimental method using a non-equivalent pretest-posttest control group design. The research sample was grade V elementary school students, as many as 45. In Grade VA, there are 24 students in the experimental class, while in Grade VB, there are 21 students in the control class. Data analysis implemented *n*-Gain to test the significance of the difference in the average scores between the two groups. Moreover, the study conducted Cohen's *d* effect size measurements to determine the magnitude of the effect of treatment between groups.

**Result:** The analysis results of the *n*-Gain value show a Sig.(2-tailed) 0.00 and Cohen's *d* 0.830 value. While the average value in the experimental class is 0.865, and the control class is 0.657. The analysis shows that the mind mapping method significantly affects students' elaboration thinking skills. Cohen's score demonstrates the difference in the effect on the two groups, which is in the high category, meaning that the mind mapping method massively affects students' elaboration thinking skills. The mind mapping method encourages students to connect their previous knowledge with the studied object. Relationship patterns form a web of relationships between one object and another.

**Conclusion:** The mind mapping method significantly affects students' elaboration thinking skills.

**Keywords:** *elaboration thinking skill, study method, mind mapping*

## 1. Introduction

In addition to teaching, a teacher's job description includes managing student learning effectively. Appropriate learning methods determine the success of student learning. The selected approach should support students' personal growth and development (Elita, 2018). One of the essential learning outcomes to cultivate is the ability to think creatively. Students can benefit substantially from learning how to think creatively, especially when dealing with issues in daily life (Chen et al., 2022). A measure of students with creative thinking abilities denotes elaboration thinking. Elaboration thinking skills will be established if the learning process allows students to choose the knowledge they wish to acquire for themselves (Nizaar et al., 2020; Wannapiroon & Pimdee, 2022).

The creative process consists of five steps, including (a) preparation, providing students with problems that stimulate their curiosity; (b) incubation, giving students time to think about

the problem and assisting them in making connections they ordinarily wouldn't think of; (c) insight, linking all pieces of the answers so that they match; (d) evaluation, students decide what the learning activities' conclusions should be; and (e) elaboration, students elaborate in further detail regarding their ideas; usually this stage takes longer (Putra et al., 2019, Damayanti et al., 2019; Acesta, 2020, Septian et al., 2020; Pratiwi & Aslam, 2021; Arga, 2022).

The ability to elaborate entails the capacity for growing, enhancing, and expanding previously acquired knowledge. There are several characteristics that someone has the ability to elaborate on, including the desire to find deeper solutions to problems, the ability to choose a course of action for problem-solving, a high level of curiosity, not quickly feel triumphant, and an eagerness to add lines, colors, and details to their own or other people's drawings (Abdunazarova, 2021; Chiou et al., 2017). These indicators reflect that students' knowledge and understanding are expanding. Students can expand their knowledge by applying previously learned concepts to new circumstances. Therefore, it is crucial to practice elaboration thinking techniques using the right teaching strategies in class. The mind mapping technique is a learning strategy that helps promote elaboration thinking abilities. The mind mapping method allows students to determine an object's relationship with other things in detail. Students are free to decide on the pattern of the connection according to their own understanding.

Previous studies have shown that mind mapping greatly influences students' thinking skills. The mind mapping method has a significant effect on students' creative thinking skills in elementary schools, and there is an apparent increase in the indicators of students' elaboration thinking skills (Febriyanti & Wulandari, 2021, Wulandari et al., 2019; Acesta, 2020, Serevina & Heluth, 2022). The mind mapping method trains students' imagination and exchanges imaginations in groups. Alderbashi & Moussa (2022) found that using the mind mapping method in the class effectively stimulates students' ability to innovate. Students who participate in mapping activities will tend to be enthusiastic about processing information and completing assignments even though they are difficult (Suparyanto dan Rosad, 2015; Yuan et al., 2022; Christiani et al., 2022; Dong et al., 2021; Su et al., 2022). Students are excited because they have the freedom to choose the relationship between objects they want.

Learning through the mind mapping method prioritizes discovery (Sumarta, 2017; Febriyanti et al., 2017; Wulandari et al., 2019; Savitri et al., 2019). The discovery process encourages the student to be active in project activities. Students may express exciting ideas and be distinctive from others. Students can also observe the products they make in different kinds of works, such as drawings, designs, and writings (Susdiana, 2017). Studying becomes more fun and meaningful because students can perceive the whole process and see the product of their work.

The results of previous research on the mind mapping method only relate it to general learning outcomes, such as learning achievement, creativity, and final grades. Regarding the writers' observation, no research focuses on examining the relationship between learning methods and students' elaboration thinking skills altogether. In addition, the primary ability that needs to be assessed from a student's ability mapping is their capability to explore the detail and describe the relationship between various objects. The result of students' mapping concept reflects their knowledge in building correlations between multiple objects. Therefore, this research wanted to analyze the effect of the mind mapping method's experimental results on elementary school students' elaboration thinking skills. It is hoped that this study's results can assist elementary school teachers in developing students' cognitive abilities in the aspect of elaboration thinking skills.

## 2. Method

The research method applied is quasi-experimental, using a non-equivalent pretest-posttest control group design (Frankel et al., 2012). The initial and final abilities of elaboration thinking skills are the conditions before and after treatment. The study applied mind mapping learning methods to the experimental group, while conventional learning methods were implemented in the control class treatment. The research design is as follows.

Table 1. Research Design Pretest-Posttest Control Group Design

Group	Pre-test	Treatment	Post-test
Experiment	O1	X1	O2
Control	O1	C	O2

Note:

- O1 : Pre-test was treated to experiment and control class
- X1 : Mind mapping method treatment
- C : Conventional method treatment
- O2 : Post-test was treated to experiment and control class

The research recruited 45 students in Grade V at State Elementary School 1 Cakranegara as the sample. It consists of 24 students in the VA class and 21 students in class VB. The learning treatment in class A uses the mind mapping method, while the learning treatment in the VB class uses conventional methods. The mind mapping method prioritizes making a network of relationships between objects on student worksheets, while the conventional method only uses verbal discussion regarding the object being studied.

The data collection technique implements the elaboration thinking skills instrument to assess the concept maps made by students. There are three criteria for evaluating student work, e.g., connecting with other objects, details of objects, and entire networks on each object. The study rates the results on student worksheets with a score range of 1 to 4. Score 4 has a very good value, score 3 has a good value, score 2 has a fair value, and score 1 has a poor value. Two experts in the learning discipline validate the feasibility of the instrument.

The data analysis technique for testing the hypothesis employs the two-average difference test through the *n-Gain* value. The hypothesis being tested is the comparative hypothesis, which  $H_0$ : there is no significant difference in students' elaboration thinking skills taught using the mind mapping method with students taught using conventional methods in State Elementary School 1 Cakranegara ( $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ ). As for  $H_a$ : there is a significant difference in students' elaboration thinking skills taught using the mind mapping method with students taught using conventional techniques at State Elementary School 1 Cakranegara ( $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$ ). The analyzed data previously had been tested for normality and homogeneity as a prerequisite for testing the hypothesis. The normality test employs the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, while the homogeneity test uses the Levene test.

### 3. Result and Discussion

The theme chosen for the experimental activities is about plants and animals. Students are asked to make concept maps about animals and plants. Students are given the freedom to connect various objects related to plants and animals. One of the student's work is shown in the following figure.



If the  $p$ -value  $> 5\%$ , the data is declared normally distributed. Hence, the data has been normally distributed with a  $0.916 > 0.05$  value. The results of the average difference test for n-Gain using the SPSS application were obtained the results as shown in the following table.

Table 3. Test Results for the Average Values Difference in the Two Groups

Class	N	Average Value	Sig. (2-tailed)	Cohen's <i>d</i>
Experiment	24	0.865	0.00	0.830
Control	21	0.657		

The test of average values difference employs an independent sample t-test with a 5% significance level. The criteria for the hypothesis  $H_a$  is accepted if the value is  $\text{sig.}(2\text{-tailed}) < 0.05$ . Based on the test results in the above table, the  $\text{sig.}(2\text{-tailed})$  value is  $0.00 < 0.05$ , so  $H_a$  is accepted, and  $H_0$  is rejected. It means there is a difference in the average value between the experimental and control classes ( $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$ ). The average value of the experiment class is higher than the control class. Giving the mind mapping method treatment significantly affects students' elaboration thinking skills.

The magnitude of the treatment effect between groups is known by measuring the effect size. The results of Cohen's *d*-effect size measurement are 0.830. The greater the value of Cohen's *d*, the more significant the difference between the two groups. If Cohen's *d* value is 0.2, it shows a small effect; if Cohen's *d* value is 0.5, it offers a medium effect; if Cohen's *d* value is 0.8, it shows a considerable impact. Thus, the difference in effect between the two groups shows a massive difference in the effect.

The advantages of the mind mapping method are that it can encourage students to think hard to find objects they want to connect. According to Seyihoglu & Kartal (2010), teachers can assess more precisely using mind mapping techniques for various learning themes in class. Other eminences are increased knowledge structuring, maximizing thinking skills, knowledge acquired is interconnected with one another, many ideas and information can be expressed, and accelerating creativity (Usman et al., 2020; Syuhudi et al., 2018; Chabeli, 2010; Hwang et al., 2012).

In the learning process in class, students should be encouraged to look again at the maps they have made so that the flow of structuring relationships between objects is correct. The more connections students make, the higher the elaboration thinking skills level. Teachers must make students focus on making map paths. The obstacle that needs to be anticipated in group lessons is that students are less focused on this activity because of other students' distractions during the discussion. This study also encountered this obstacle; the teacher had difficulty managing discussions because not all students carried out discussions well. Therefore, the mind mapping method would be better done in smaller groups so that the teacher can well control discussion activities.

The implication of this research is to assist teachers in finding the right way to develop students' elaboration thinking skills. Each learning method depends on students' ability, type of material, and no learning distractions. Suppose the teacher chooses the mind mapping method. In that case, it is necessary to make all students focus on learning and subject topics according to students' living conditions and avoid distractions from friends. Students' work can also be displayed in class so that students are proud of the work they have made. In the learning process in class, students should be encouraged to re-observe the concept maps they have made so that the flow of structuring the relationships between objects that are built is correct. Learning activities using mind mapping are very dominant with cognitive exercises, so further research needs to be carried out to test mind mapping learning designs combined with fun physical activities for elementary school students.

#### 4. Conclusion

Based on this study's results, it can be concluded that the mind mapping method significantly affects students' elaboration thinking skills. These results reflect that the mind mapping method allows students to think exploratively, connecting themany objects they want. Learning activities through the mind method accustom students to connecting old knowledge with new knowledge to form a concept map.

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Pu YU, PHD student, Eötvös Loránd University, Institute for Intercultural Psychology and Education.

Pu YU: Teacher-tutors teaching innovation capacity and characteristics

## **Abstract**

The present article aims to examine teacher tutors teaching innovation capacity and the characteristics of those with high teaching innovation degrees. The niche of this research is noted by the requirement for teachers' continuous aspiration for a more optimized teaching solution and the cultivation of innovative talents. Although private tutoring is a growing global phenomenon, less attention has been paid to the teaching innovation capacity of its provider tutors. This research is based on the data of teachers nationwide in Hungary. Found that mainstream teachers who work part-time for private tutoring are more innovative than those who do not. Further, teachers meanwhile working part-time as private tutors and employed by a training company are the most innovative. Besides, the study also found that those tutors with high teaching innovation capacity have distinctive demographical, teaching position, and qualification characteristics. The article is expected to provide insight into promoting teacher teaching innovation capacity and to call for more attention from field experts and scholars.

**Keywords:** teaching innovation, teacher-tutor, capacity, characteristics

## **1. Introduction**

"Innovation can offer vital solutions, at affordable cost, to economic, social and cultural dilemmas" (OECD, 2018. p.4). The promotion of teachers' teaching innovation capacity is an essential link to continuously improving the efficiency of teaching practice and class quality. As well as intrinsic support for fostering innovative talents (You & Wang, 2013), which drives teachers sustained seek new solutions for more tailored teaching practices. Academics have extensively discussed the connotation, significance, and influencing factors of teaching innovation. However, few have focused on the teaching innovativeness of mainstream schoolteachers as part-time tutoring providers, while the fact that private tutoring, widely known as shadow education, has become a notable global phenomenon and continues to proliferate (Bray, 2021).

As such, based on data from the "Models of Teacher Learning" (MoTel) program of teachers nationwide in Hungary, this paper presents the teaching innovation capacity of the teacher-tutor and the non-tutor teacher and teacher-tutor individual variability, which answers two main questions. First, how is the teaching innovation capacity of teacher-tutors? Second, what are the individual characteristics of teacher-tutors with high innovation capacity? Expects to attract more attention from researchers to the teaching innovation capacity of teacher-tutor and provide valuable references to enhance teachers' teaching innovation further and help promote teaching efficiency.

## **2. The connotation of teachers' teaching innovation**

Innovation in education plays an essential role in facilitating students' and teachers' learning and working, creating new solutions for improving effectiveness. Teaching innovation in the education sphere is illustrated as the teaching practice activities aimed at promoting and improving students' learning and well-being (Vincent-Lancrin et al., 2019), through the

adoption of continuously updated concepts, content, methods and tools (Wang et al., 2013) by teachers in the teaching process to solve teaching and learning problems creatively (Yang & Shen, 2006). Based on the driver perspective, top-down organizational-level-driven innovations are systemic and spontaneous. Nevertheless, informal (Halász, 2021) pedagogical innovations driven by individual teachers also potentially become a standard solution, disseminated throughout the system (Halász, & Fazekas, 2022) to upgrade instructional effectiveness, student well-being, and sustained teacher growth.

### 3. What is teacher-tutor?

Tutors are widely characterized as providers of private tutoring, and mainstream school in-service teachers are categorized as one of the prime suppliers (Zhang & Bray, 2020). As such, in this paper, the teacher-tutor is defined as those who are mainstream school in-service teachers and work part-time for paid private tutoring. Either as private tutors or employees in training companies (Tutor Employee) or (Hybrid Tutor), which to unlimited teaching subjects.

### 4. Method

#### Data source

The data were obtained from the MoTeL project (no. 128738) conducted by the Institute of Education, Eotvos Lorand University, with support from the National Research, Development and Innovation Fund of Hungary, financed under the K\_18 funding scheme. Which survey was implemented from December 2020 to February 2021. Overall, 5063 teachers in 656 schools throughout Hungary were surveyed. However, after eliminating invalid responses, such as "I don't want to answer" and "I don't know", and removing the data of teachers whose teaching is not the main job. The final sample used for this study was 3118, overall 595 teacher-tutors were included.

#### Variable selection

##### *Teachers' teaching innovation*

Based on the definition of teachers' teaching innovation in the above-mentioned existing literature, this paper defines capacity as the ability of teachers to adapt or develop and implement new solutions aimed at enhancing the effectiveness of their teaching practices based on their daily teaching and research activities. The two items based on the data sources in this study respectively represent the two dimensions of teachers' teaching innovation capacity, as shown in Table 1, named 'adaptation or development' (AD) and 'integration' (IN) respectively. Teachers who scored 3 or 4 were defined in this study as those with high teaching innovation capacity.

Table 1. Two Dimensions of Teaching Innovation Capacity

Teaching Innovation Variable	Variable Source Items
Adaptation or Developing	I adapted or developed new solutions that aimed to improve the efficiency of my teaching practice
Integration	My innovation has permanently integrated into my everyday teaching practice

##### *Individual characteristics of the teacher-tutor*

In this study, the individual characteristics of the teacher-tutor are classified into three categories, namely demographic, position and qualification characteristics, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Three categories of teacher-tutors individual characteristics

Demographic Characteristics	Gender Teaching experience Highest Pedagogical Qualification
Position Characteristics	Current teacher position Teaching Subjects Other Positions Besides Teaching Other Tasks Besides Teaching If a Member of any Pedagogical Network
Qualification Characteristics	Teaching Subjects Qualification If Passed Teachers' Special Examination Category of the Teacher Career System

## 5. Research result

Teaching innovation capacity of non-tutor-teacher and teacher-tutor

The teaching innovation capacity in both dimensions of the teacher-tutor is higher than the non-tutor-teacher (see Figure 1). In this study, there were 595 (19.08%) teacher-tutors, 439 of whom had a higher ability to adapt or develop new teaching solutions, and 395 who permanently integrated them into their teaching routines. There were 2523 teachers (80.92%) who did not work part-time for private tutoring, of whom 1591 and 1508 showed high levels of innovation in each of the two dimensions (see Table 3). Teacher-tutors have the highest number of teachers working as private tutors with 343, followed by Tutor Employees with 194, and the lowest number of Hybrid Tutors with 58. However, the Hybrid Tutor always has the highest ratio for all levels of teaching innovation, especially at the adaptation or development dimension, as shown in Figure 1.

Table 3. Number of non-tutor-teachers and teacher-tutors

	Non-tutor-teacher	Teacher-tutor	Private Tutor	Tutor Employee	Hybrid Tutor
Overall Number	2523	595	343	194	58
Adaptation or Development Dimension	1,591	439	248	139	52
Integration Dimension	1,508	395	221	133	41

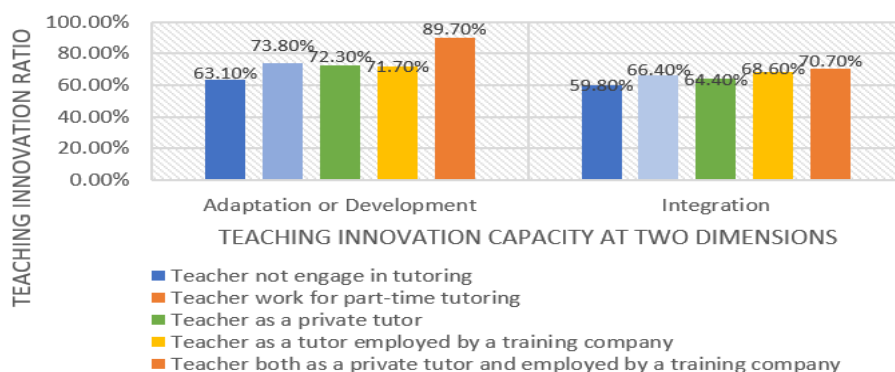


Figure 1. The degree of teachers' teaching innovation capacity

Individual characteristics of teacher-tutors with high innovation capacity

*Demographic characteristics*

First, female teacher-tutors are more innovative at all levels, especially in implementing innovative teaching solutions into their daily practice, significantly higher than male teacher-tutors. Besides, male tutor employees have the lowest overall innovation capacity, while female private tutors have the weakest. Secondly, as far as teaching experience is concerned, teacher-tutors with less than ten years have the highest teaching innovation capacity, and there is no significant difference in the improvement and implementation rate of innovative teaching solutions; in other words, teacher-tutors with no more than ten years of teaching experience and high innovation capacity are able to integrate the adapted or developed programs into their daily teaching practice generally. In addition, private tutors with more than forty years of teaching experience had the lowest level of teaching innovation, especially at integration. Last, except for teacher-tutors who do not obtain a pedagogical qualification, the results showed that the higher the education background of the teacher-tutor, the stronger the degree of adaptation, development, and integration in teaching solutions (see figure 2).

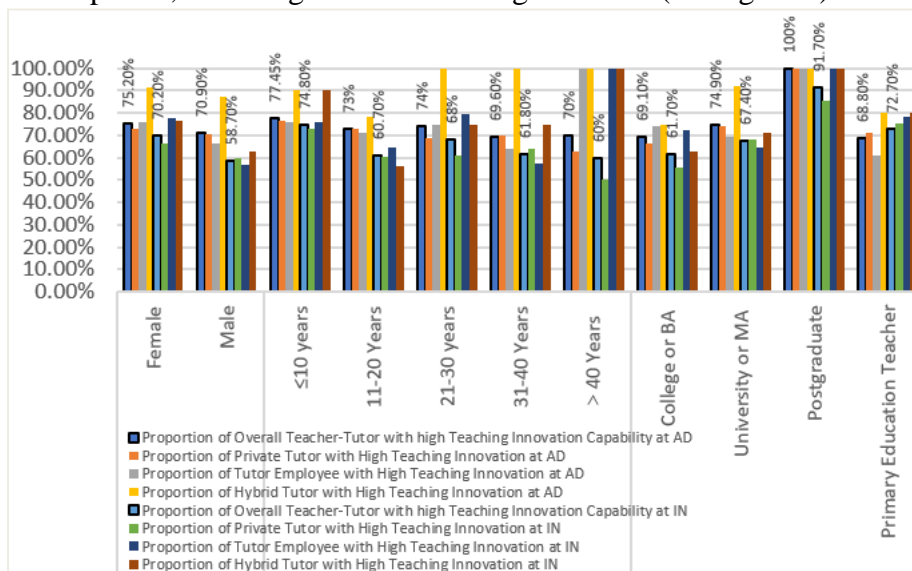


Figure 2. Demographic characteristics of teacher-tutors with high innovation capacity

*Position characteristics*

As shown in figure 4, for the teacher-tutors who teach in general education, the higher the grade they teach, the stronger the degree for adapting or developing new instructional solutions. However, teacher-tutors who teach in lower grades tended to be more likely to incorporate the solution into practice. In addition, teacher-tutors who teach general education in vocational education were significantly less innovative overall than vocational education teachers (VET). Moreover, teacher-tutors in special educational needs (SEN) also have a higher capacity for teaching innovation. Secondly, teachers who served as class teachers besides school teaching have the highest number for part-time private tutoring, but teacher-tutors who meanwhile as head of the teacher committee have the highest teaching innovation capacity.

The results also show that 66% of the teacher-tutors tasked with mentoring student teachers besides teaching have the highest degree of adaptation or development of instructional solutions, and those tasked as experts or consultants have a higher degree of integration of

improved instruction into daily teaching. Nevertheless, the remaining 34% of teacher-tutors who do not undertake any tasks are the least teaching innovative. Moreover, teacher-tutors belonging to any professional pedagogical group were more innovative overall than those not.

Finally, in terms of teaching subjects, as shown in table 4, teacher-tutors with less than five subjects are ignored. Foreign language, physical education, and vocational practical subjects were the top 3 tutoring subjects teacher-tutors engaged. Furthermore, those who teach geography have the most robust ability to adjust and develop teaching solutions, followed by those who teach biology and physics. Those who teach physical education, history, and chemistry are better at integration.

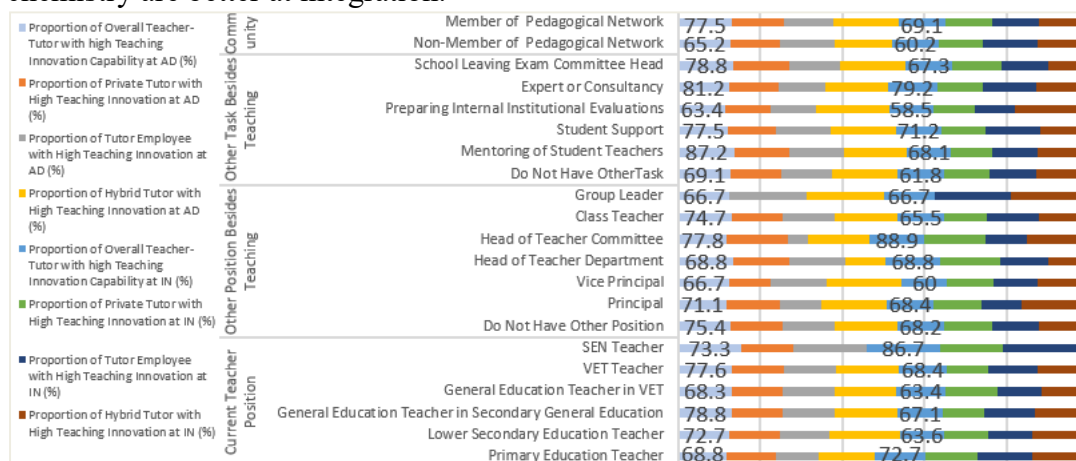


Figure 3. Position characteristics of teacher-tutors with high innovation capacity

Table 4. Common subjects offered by the teacher-tutor

Teaching Subjects	Overall Teacher-Tutor with High Teaching Innovation Capability at AD	Overall Number of Teacher-Tutor	Proportion of Teacher-Tutor with high Teaching Innovation Capability at AD	Overall Teacher-Tutor with High Teaching Innovation Capability at IN	Proportion of Teacher-Tutor with high Teaching Innovation Capability at IN
Hungarian Language	20	29	69%	19	65.50%
Foreign Language	67	88	76.10%	57	64.80%
Mathematics	20	38	52.60%	23	60.50%
History	16	20	80%	15	75%
Physics	13	16	81.20%	10	62.50%
Chemistry	4	7	57.10%	5	71.40%
Biology	11	13	84.60%	9	69.20%
Geography	15	17	88.20%	10	58.80%
Music	8	12	66.70%	8	66.70%
Computer Science	21	36	58.30%	18	50%
Design and Technology	11	19	57.90%	11	57.90%
Ethics, Religious Education	26	35	74.30%	24	68.60%
physical Education	53	66	80.30%	51	77.30%
Vocational Theoretical Subjects	26	34	76.50%	24	70.60%

Vocational Subjects	Practical	68	84	81%	58	69%
Other		37	49	75.50%	34	69.40%

### Qualification characteristics

As shown in Figure 4, first, the number of teacher-tutors who did not pass the teacher's special examination is higher, and the integration rate of innovative teaching solutions was higher than that who passed, but with a lower degree at adaptation and development dimension. Second, although teacher trainees as teacher-tutors are the least competent in adapting or developing teaching solutions, they are the most prominent for implementation. Furthermore, master teachers as private tutoring providers are remarkable in teaching innovation. But it is worth noting that the overall teaching innovation capacity of teacher II is the lowest. Finally, for the qualification of teaching subjects, around 80% of the teacher-tutors focus only on the subject for which they are qualified. However, the teacher-tutor who teaches subjects other than those with a qualification has a higher capacity for teaching innovation. The teacher-tutor who teaches a subject not related to qualification is more capable of adapting and developing teaching solutions, and teacher-tutors who teach a subject related to qualification are more efficient in applying innovative solutions to teaching practice.

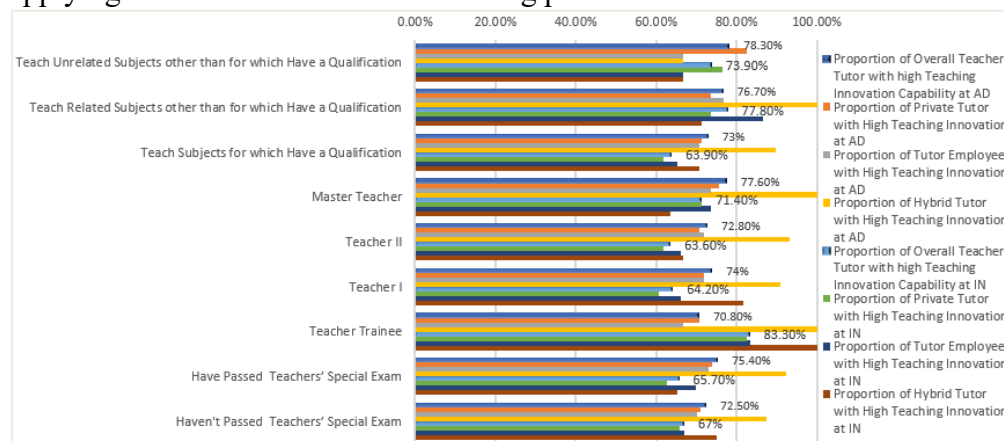


Figure 4. Qualification characteristics of teacher-tutors with high innovation capacity

## 6. Revelation

This study demonstrates that the teacher tutors overall teaching innovation capacity is higher than that of non-tutor-teachers. However, the degree of permanent integration of teaching innovation solutions into the teaching practice dimension is generally lower than that of adapting or developing innovative teaching solutions. Further, hybrid tutors were the most innovative among the three types of teacher-tutors, especially in improving teaching schemes. Besides, the teaching innovation capacity of the teacher-tutor has individual variability. Thus, this study draws the following revelations for further promoting teachers' teaching innovation capacity.

### *Establish exchange access between mainstream schools and private tutoring institutions*

This study shows that the teacher-tutor is more innovative than the non-tutoring engaged teacher, and those hybrid tutors are the most innovative overall. Since one of the main characteristics of private tutoring is customization (Lee, 2005), the tutor needs to constantly update the teaching programs and implement them to meet students' individual needs. Thus, it is important to establish a sharing channel between private tutoring institutions and schools, to facilitate the exchange of teachers inside and outside the school to jointly promote the

improvement of teaching innovation capacity.

*Improve the communication platform between teachers at variety of levels*

First, promote sharing and interaction among teachers of different teaching experiences to stimulate the teaching innovation dynamism for higher seniority. Second, improve the platform for dialogue among teachers at various levels to stimulate continuous motivation for teaching innovation through an interaction-feedback-reflection-practice-evaluation spiral. Third, experts and scholars are encouraged to take the lead; for instance, master teachers, and the head of the teacher community, should lead the teaching team in the continuous pursuit of more effective teaching solutions.

*Encourage interdisciplinary cooperation among teachers*

In this study, the teacher-tutor who undertakes other tasks besides teaching has a higher teaching innovation capacity than that who does not have any tasks. Further, the teacher-tutor who teaches subjects other than that qualified also has a greater teaching innovation extent. Hence, teachers are encouraged to carry out interdisciplinary cooperation to stimulate teaching innovation.

*Promoting teachers' continuous professional development*

This study demonstrated that teachers who belong to any pedagogical professional development organization were more innovative in their teaching than those who do not. Moreover, the research also reveals that the teacher tutors highest pedagogical qualification and, if passed the teacher's special examination, is positively correlated with their teaching innovation capacity. The importance of deepening teachers' professional knowledge is reflected laterally. Thus, teachers' professionalism should be continuously promoted to maintain the constant refinement and implementation of innovative teaching programs.

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Pelesz Nelli  
Hungary  
pelesz.nelli@szte.hu

Pelesz Nelli: Teacher candidates and professional identity development with particular attention to social aspects

My research aims to explore the changes and professionalisation processes in the teaching profession. In Hungary, detailed and substantial research has been carried out on the dualism period, but less research is available on the two World Wars period. Therefore I concentrated on this period. The components of the teaching profession are multifaceted, including professional self-definition, autonomy, academic foundations, social prestige and the nature of the profession. The latter in particular can be adequately explored in the course of career socialisation. The preparation for the teaching profession, its content, challenges and composition shed light on what the profession is about at a given time. In my research I examined the activities of the Catholic teacher training school in Szeged. The institution produced the Hungarian Journal of Teacher Candidates and developed its own training programmes. In addition to cantor training, firefighter training, etc., special emphasis was placed on the social role of teachers: they started ethno-educational training and developed a specific Szeged orientation which became exemplary and of national importance. Practice, attention to local needs, and a broad theoretical and methodological preparation are the key words that characterise not only their training at that time, but also their entire teaching career.

Keywords: teacher training, professionalization, history of education, Hungary between the two world wars, social aspects

## 1. Teacher training in Hungary

Organised teacher training in Hungary, initially regulated by royal decrees, has a centuries-old history. Maria Theresa addressed the issue in her *Ratio Educationis* in 1777, but even before that she considered it important to improve the quality of the public schools and, to this end, the training of teachers and their working conditions. From the 1770s onwards, the so-called 'normal schools' were gradually built up. These were essentially model institutions, whose teaching content and methods set an example for the teacher training colleges set up in close cooperation with the normal schools. For the latter, the main task at that time was to familiarise itself as thoroughly as possible with the basic pedagogical principles and subjects of the vernacular schools and to master the teaching methodology.

Methodology played a central role in the training of teachers from the very beginning and has remained a key issue in later centuries. Because of its undeniable importance, the vast majority of pedagogical practitioners have traditionally regarded its crucial role in training as a positive tradition, but at the same time there have been periods when critical voices have been heard which have pointed to the need to supplement methodological training with higher-level, more scientific knowledge. There was an ongoing debate about the precise content and the way in which this should be done, which had a fruitful impact on the development of teacher training. Soon the denominations responded to Maria Theresa's initiative. Of particular significance for our topic was the establishment of the first independent, secondary-level teacher training institution in 1819 in Székeskáptalan, where the language of instruction was German. The



founder was László Pyrker, Bishop of the Catholic diocese of Spiš, who, as Archbishop of Eger, established the first Hungarian-language institute in Eger in 1828. Here, too, practical training was an important part of the two-year course, but it provided a much more thorough and higher level of education than in the normal schools (Németh, 1990).

During the 19th century, in response to the new demands of a civilising society, educational policy legislation tried to keep pace with the new challenges: teacher training, regulated by royal decrees, was replaced by education regulated by law. The Eötvös Act of 1868 on the education of the people was a milestone of the period. The decision-makers at that time already considered the organisation of teacher training as an important state task, defined it as an independent vocational school and sought to establish a framework for practical training in addition to the acquisition of a high level of professional skills.

The duration of education was increased to 3 years and it was also stipulated that only holders of a diploma could be teachers. This is a forward-looking development in terms of the institutionalisation and professionalisation of the profession (Fizel, 2018).

Detailed curricula and regulations appeared, and an increasing number of state and denominational (Catholic, Reformed, Evangelical, Israelite) institutions started to operate throughout the country.

However, the training of teachers in teacher training colleges was not yet subject to uniform regulations at that time, but was only introduced later, after 1881, when teacher training colleges became four-year schools. The 1880s also brought important innovations in other respects, as the revised curricula published in 1881 and 1882 (the former becoming compulsory for female and the latter for male teachers) were expanded in content and concept. It was at this time that it became clear that the role of the teacher was not only to educate children at elementary level, but also to play a special role in village or town society.

The teacher is the 'spiritual leader' of the local population, an intellectual alongside the priest, the doctor, the notary and other local notables. Vilmos Radó, in 1891, put it this way: "Teachers should be 'educators not only of the people's children, but also of the people themselves, guardians of public health, reliable substitutes for absent doctors, skilful farmers, pomologists, beekeepers, silkworm breeders, experts in all kinds of cottage industries, cantors with a thorough knowledge of music, who not only know how to do their duty in church, but also how to organise and lead choirs, at least know something about teaching the deaf and dumb, be able to organise fire-fighting where they work, the schoolmistress might be a governess, but she should know French, piano, etc. " (Németh, 1990 41.) (Nóbik, 2019)

The task was thus extremely diverse, and the diversity of expectations generated an in-depth and extensive debate involving all the actors involved in the teaching profession in one way or another. They expressed their opinions primarily in the columns of journals, but also at meetings of various associations, school boards, school districts and other officials, at congresses on teaching or in forums of academic public opinion: what is the essence of the teaching profession, its essential tasks, what knowledge should a preparandist acquire, over what period of time and in what way, etc. (Kelemen, 2007)

In response to these challenges, and in addition to the unity of state and denominational regulation, training institutions have developed local practices, as they have sought to respond to local needs and, where possible, to train teachers who can participate meaningfully in the wider community. This is already closely linked to the social aspects of training and teaching practice.

It was at this time that a wide-ranging debate about the possibility of a baccalaureate examination for teachers emerged, and even the question of upgrading the course to a higher level was raised. For example, Jenő Köveskúti proposed the establishment of two-year pedagogical academies in a paper published in 1908, but Károly Barcsai's ambitious reform programme published in Győr in 1921 also caused a great stir. "(Gombos, 2011) (Donáth, 2010)

Basically, in the first half of the 20th century, the teacher training college was seen as a vocational school, whose task was to "produce educated teachers who understood and loved their profession" (Németh, 1990 47.)

The multifaceted tasks detailed above, however, required teachers to acquire a level of professional knowledge and practice in both general and vocational education that made reform of the training system urgent: even if the upgrade to the higher level was not achieved, changes were made in both quality and quantity in order to revise the existing system and to meet current needs. In 1911, a modern Qualifying Examination Code was issued, and in the first years of the century, an independent institution for the training of teachers, the so-called Apponyi College, was established (Németh, 2012).

In the period marked by the names of Kunó Klebelsberg in the 1920s and Bálint Hóman, Minister of Religion and Public Education in the 1930s, the tasks of teachers were further expanded with the aim of building cultural supremacy, and combating illiteracy became a priority: as the large-scale folk school programme unfolded, their numbers were increased in 1930. The state regarded them as leaders of the basic institutions of cultural education, loyal village intelligentsia, and the level of public esteem for them began to rise. However, this was not enough for them to achieve a college education or to be promoted to a higher salary grade. Post-war public conditions did not allow for the implementation of large-scale plans, and the 1923 regulations finally stabilised the duration of teacher training at five years. The Curriculum and Instructions of 1925 and the new Teacher Training Examination Regulations also regarded teacher training colleges as vocational schools preparing teachers for the teaching profession, whose activities were primarily educational, and the teaching and examination of general subjects did not rise to the level of a maturity.

Yet, the overall standard of teacher education improved between the two world wars, and the quality of education improved. The lengthening of the training period, the introduction of the use of textbooks written in a new spirit, and the activities of the teachers who graduated from the Apponyi College had a demonstrably positive effect on all segments of the system (Németh 1990, 81). At the same time, the foundations remained intact, and the institutional system continued to roll certain problems: early and dead-end career choices (the lack of a school leaving certificate prevented graduates from continuing their studies in higher education), and overly long and overcrowded courses with too many subjects did not solve the fundamental problems.

This is why reform ideas for further modernisation have been given new impetus. For example, the work 'Reform of teacher training', published in 1927 by Oszkár Molnár, editor of the Hungarian Teacher Training Journal, which proposed the creation of six-year, two-form institutions in which future teachers could obtain a school-leaving certificate at the end of the fourth year, provoked a wide-ranging social and professional debate. At the Third Universal Congress of Teachers, held in 1928, the teachers' movement went further, calling for the creation of two-year teacher training colleges, to which students would be admitted with a secondary school leaving certificate. In addition to the upper four years of secondary schools, they wanted to establish teacher training seminars to prepare for teacher training colleges and ultimately for teaching (Gombos, 2011).

Their demands could not yet be met: the global economic crisis had intervened, and the number of unemployed teachers had reached the tens of thousands, of whom at least five or six thousand were teachers. The 1934 reform of the grammar school, which created a single secondary school, made it clear that the government would not take on the task of educating more unemployed graduates. However, progress was made: the 1938 Act XIII on Practical Secondary Education and the 1938 Act XIV on Teacher Training were a package of reforms that created a two-year teacher training academy based on a four-year lyceum leading to a school-leaving

certificate. Its reception in professional circles has been mixed, with both welcoming and critical opinions expressed by experts (Frank, 2017).

The type of school did not have time to prove itself: war conditions, mobilisation and lack of resources meant that in 1941 the further development of lyceum education was halted and the academies were not organised. After the third year of the lyceum, they continued their studies in the fourth and fifth years of the old teacher training college, and, contrary to plans, they were not allowed to take the school-leaving examination.

The reform of education in 1948 also took teacher training in a completely different direction. Teacher training colleges were abolished, and two-year teacher training colleges were hastily set up, followed by teacher training high schools. However, these proved inadequate for the training of adequate teachers and were just as quickly disbanded, and four-year teacher training colleges were re-established, with renewed aims and content. Teacher training remained at secondary level, and it was not until September 1959 that the first three-year teacher training colleges, based on the baccalaureate, were opened, with a rather ideological content.

Curricular changes were also made in the 1960s and '70s, and from 1976 teacher training colleges were established, so that training became part of higher education. This period is outside the scope of our interest here, but it should be noted that, despite its oppositional nature in many respects, the content of teacher training in colleges draws heavily on the traditions of secondary schools. The question of the system of aims and tasks formulated in the period between the two world wars has remained an integral part of the discourse on the nature of the teaching profession in a renewed form.

## 2. Teacher training in Szeged

The national processes naturally had an impact in every local community and institution, but despite the uniform regulation, different responses, experiences and practices could be developed according to local needs. Szeged has taken a particular direction: the professional and public activity of the trained teachers of the local Catholic school has actively involved the institute in the national processes.

The beginning of teacher training in Szeged dates back to 1844. On the initiative of the council of the free royal city of Szeged, at the intercession of József Lonovics, Bishop of Csanád, the city received royal permission, so that a teacher training institute could be opened in Szeged, in addition to Miskolc, Érsekújvár, Nagykanizsa and Pest. The institute, called the Szeged Royal Master Teacher Training Institute, started its activities with 33 students. The Revolution and War of Independence of 1848/1849 did not spare the school, some of the teachers and students did not return after the turbulent times, and the building was damaged. In 1855, its closure was on the agenda, and it took a 10,000 forint endowment from Sándor Csajághy, Bishop of Csanád, and decisive action by the bishop of Szeged, Sándor Csajághy, to enable the institution to continue its activities under the name of the Imperial-Royal Teachers' College of Szeged from 1856. (Csillik, Gácsér, 1994)

In the following decade, the possibility of setting up a possible state training school was seriously considered. However, as József Eötvös, the Minister of Religion and Public Education, after his visit to Szeged, praised the institution, and Bishop Sándor Bonnaz of Csanád provided financial support and effective assistance, the threat of nationalisation was averted. The flood of 1879, however, hit the building hard, so the students were temporarily housed in the bishop's buildings in Mako. The reopening after the floods was finally successful, and the institution was expanded with a training school and, shortly afterwards, a boarding school. The following decades brought a period of calm development. The First World War, however, left the institution severely damaged: the building was used as a dining hall by the

French invaders and the books were used to light fires. Many of the former students lost their lives.

The post-war reorganization was not easy: on the initiative of Gyula Glattfelder, the new, more modern and better equipped institution was started in Újszeged. The number of teachers was increased to 20, and the training period was extended to 5 years. It was at this time that Dr. Vendel Becker took over the administrative tasks of the institute, and under his leadership the institute enjoyed its "golden age": the content of the training was modernised, the areas of training were expanded, the life of the associations became more colourful, and the institute was enriched with new equipment and books. The teachers who taught at the teachers' training college were outstanding both professionally and in terms of their social and public activities, including the director mentioned above, Sándor Bálint, an ethnographer (Csillik, 2000).

It was at this time that the specific "Szeged direction", the individual profile, emerged, which was born with the aim of meeting the local needs mentioned above. The difficulties of post-war recovery and the predominantly agrarian environment led Becker to consider expanding vocational training in economics. Already in the 1927/1928 academic year, he wrote an independent study in the teacher training school's newsletter on the need for more intensive teaching of economics, and in 1934 he published his programmatic work entitled *The Problem of Lower School Economic Vocational Education and the 'Economic Teacher Training College to be Established in Szeged'*. In 1936, he published the complete reform concept under the title *The Problem of Hungarian Lower Secondary Economic Vocational Education and its Solution*. He proposed minor curricular changes, innovations to modify the training period or to increase the use of visual aids, but he saw the real solution to the problem in the reform of teacher training.

A summary of his reform programme was published in 1939 under the title *The economic education of the people and the future of the nation*. His proposals can be understood along a few key words - still forward-looking and relevant today: arousing and sustaining interest, practical orientation, adaptation to local conditions, concentration of subjects. It is not our task here to go into the details of vocational training in economics, but it is important and worthwhile to highlight the social context of the subject. In Becker's work, practical orientation is a cornerstone: "The main point is that teaching should be based on local conditions and not leave generalities to the fickle memory of children, but explain to them tangible facts that they encounter in their everyday lives." (Becker, 1936 8) To achieve this, concentration of the curriculum is necessary. "In the service of this principle, agricultural aspects must be added." (Becker, 1936 8.) In several places he stresses the importance of the model farm, because a model farm is not only the primary place for the acquisition of strictly practical knowledge and skills, but also "serves as a model for farmers in the area and, through special courses and lectures, spreads economic knowledge widely. (Becker, 1936 19.) The teacher's economic education thus serves not only to broaden the knowledge of the teacher and the children entrusted to him, but also indirectly to benefit the wider village community, and is in fact part of the ethno-educational activity.

"The provision of economic knowledge to the masses is today of paramount national interest, because from the rise of economic knowledge we can expect a more intensive utilization of the Hungarian land, a revival of our economic life, and ultimately a turn for the better of our mutilated country." (Becker, 1936 4.) "The way of acquiring agricultural knowledge is the school, whose primary vocation, in addition to transmitting the elements of national culture, is to raise the level of agricultural culture among the broad strata of the people." (Becker, 1939 4.) In his view, it is essential that the teacher should meet the material, spiritual and moral needs of the local community, but this task presupposes a high degree of versatility.

"Over time, more and more tasks have fallen to the teacher, especially in the village. In addition to teaching, he is the cantor, the fire chief, the head of the economic cooperative, the most used

organiser and speaker of extra-curricular education, and the leader of the choir. All these more or less permanent tasks placed new demands on his qualifications. The farmers' wish that the teacher should be able to give the village and farm people expert advice not only on spiritual matters but also on economic matters is undoubtedly justified. If we want the teacher to be able to fulfil all the tasks that await him and to be a true village leader, we must also ensure that he is prepared for these tasks because of his versatility." (Becker, 1947 65.)

To a certain extent, this idea is also influenced by the concept of national education that was to bear the name of Sándor Imre. With his concept of national education, Sándor Imre was one of the important programmatic forces in the pedagogical thinking of the period. He emphasised the national character of education, as a form of community that could serve the development of both the individual and the community. "(Pukánszky, 1996) In order to form the individual and the nation, it is necessary to spread "educational thinking" as widely as possible, and in this context Sándor Imre conducted extensive scientific research. He had something to say to almost all educational communities, to all types of schools" (Pukánszky, 1996): he also expressed his views on teacher training. In his view, the dissatisfaction with the public appreciation of teacher training and the content of the training was justified, and reform was timely, but he did not see the solution in university education. Preparation for secondary and elementary education are so different, and the academic and practical tasks of university and teacher training are so different, that it is not feasible to bring the two together. At the same time, the university must open itself up to the teaching profession in order to improve the general education of teachers. On the one hand, it would have opened up the possibility of voluntary further education at university to teachers with the appropriate prior training in a given subject, and on the other hand, it would have proposed compulsory, shorter, course-like further education for the wider teaching profession (Imre, 1937) (Szűts-Novák, 2022)

### 3. Own programmes - the Szeged approach

All this is in line with the suggestions and practice of the teachers of the Szeged training: their aim was to provide more versatile, multi-disciplinary training, while also making the core material available to students in the most practical spirit possible. It is thanks to this approach that, during the period under study, the Institute provided training for cantors, a course for leventurers, a course in economics, a course in cooperative education, a course for fire officers and a course for lecturers in ethnology. The latter is of particular importance for the social aspects of training. Of course, not only Szeged, but also other cities' teacher training institutes offered similar courses, but the specificity of Szeged's training was due to its maximum adaptability to local needs and its highly practical structure.

In 1928, Becker devoted a special study to the subject of extracurricular education. He explains how teachers can be effectively prepared for this multifaceted task. Above all, the candidate must be taught how to communicate with people: 'One of the most important duties of the future generation of teachers will be to train and educate the youth and adults who are not in school. The success of out-of-school folk education requires, above all, a skill of presentation, which can only be acquired through careful practice.' Of course, it is not only how you communicate that is important, but also what you say: "[...] teacher training should already deal with the psychology of adolescent youth and adults, the way of life and treatment of village and farm youth, the literacy of the village people, the purpose and subjects of educational lectures and ethno-educational courses, the methods and means of organising them, the structure of educational lectures and the rules of presentation." (Becker, 1929 1.)

A systematic theoretical, overview training was developed, and - in full accordance with the traditions of teacher training - at least as much emphasis was placed on the acquisition of

practical skills: "It is no less important that the teacher candidate should become familiar with the most effective means of out-of-school folk education (k.t): pastoral games, school and amateur dramatic performances, projected images, films, board games. The pupils should become as familiar as possible with the visualisation tools listed here, possibly involving young people in pastoral plays, school and amateur dramatic performances and the use of projected images in the context of the presentation of various subjects. The visualisation skills acquired in this way will greatly facilitate the teacher's contribution to out-of-school folklore." (Becker, 1929 1.) And all this is summarised by a uniform system of criteria used by the members of the teaching staff: 'Each teacher should, in explaining the method of his subject, also explain what the teacher can use in teaching the subject to the learner and adults, and the method by which the material indicated in the local curriculum prepared for this purpose can be most successfully processed.' (Becker, 1929 4.)

Teachers at teacher training colleges not only tried to coordinate their activities with perceived social expectations, curricula and methods, but also constantly consulted with the state popular education organisation and its representatives. It is no coincidence that József Hübner, the secretary of the state education department, published an article in the school's newsletter on the role of the teacher in the education of the people. He writes: "The teacher is one of the called-up leaders of village society. By virtue of his vocation, the teacher must therefore also be involved in the education of the people outside the school. The teacher should be involved in the following folkloric activities." (Hübner, 1929, p. 14) The number of activities listed and described in detail is very high: teaching illiteracy, giving lectures on health, economics, industry, etc., organising elementary and general education courses. This also included 'out-of-school entertainment', such as the organisation of story time and games. These were no mean feat for teachers, but extracurricular activities went far beyond the educational sphere and also placed other demands on teachers. "The task of extracurricular education is not only to disseminate knowledge, but also to help solve social, social and national problems by transforming the local energies in the communities into a creative force through the use of a more refined intellect. This is not possible without unity and cohesion." (Hübner, 1929 19.) Thus, the management of association life and effective participation in the work of youth and adult associations were also expected of the teaching staff. They were also entrusted with the running of public libraries, the organisation of festivals and excursions, and were expected to use radio, projectors and cinemas.

The 1920s were essentially a period of formulating needs, goals and tasks. It became clear that, while skill development (e.g. lecturing), the emphasis on certain aspects of adult education by subject teachers, etc., played an important and useful role in preparing candidates, they were by no means sufficient.

At a meeting of the institute association of the Foederatio Americana Catholic students' organisation, the Americana Szegediensis, held at the end of 1931, the participants discussed social issues. They listened to and discussed a lecture on the causes of social ills and ways to help them. The lecturer, Dezső Holló "pointed out the ways in which they wished to help in the past and in the present circumstances to help the troubles that were arising. In the end, he sought to make us understand that only Christian socialism can help us in our present social situation." (In conclusion, the lessons of Christian social thought were formulated as a possible solution to social intervention, but concrete proposals were immediately formulated in connection with the thorough theoretical and conceptual review. "[...] several valuable contributions were made by the dominos and apodes present. The need for a planned programme of popular education was raised in connection with one of the corporations' most recent successful appearances on the farms." (Teachers' meeting minutes 1931.)

The idea was put into practice, and the following academic year a further training course was developed specifically on the subject, which would allow a deeper knowledge of the area. The

initiative was crowned with success: "The growing importance of extracurricular education, and in particular the growing importance of the intellectual care of the lower social classes, has prompted our institute to equip our fifth-year students with the knowledge needed to start or regularly continue their education activities. Our idea was received with understanding by both the Ministry of Religious Affairs and Public Education and the General Directorate of the King and was supported to the fullest extent." The demand and the initiative of society and the teachers who were closely associated with them, as well as the teacher trainers who prepared them, reached the decision-makers, who were open to implementing the ideas.

The course material has been put together by practitioners with expertise in the field. "The material to be presented was compiled by József Hübner, Secretary for Popular Education, and approved by the Ministry of Religion and Education. The lecturers on folklore were Dr. Vendel Becker, Papal Chamberlain, Director of the Teachers' Training Institute, József Hübner, Secretary of Folklore, and Gábor Tóth, Director of the State School, who was assigned to the Szeged Folklore Committee." (Becker, 1931 42.) The administrative procedure for the training was also in order. "The students of the ethnocultural course also passed regular examinations. [...] The Ministry of Religion and Public Education had established a separate certificate for the extracurricular course in popular education. Candidates who have attended the present course have already received the certificates now issued by the Ministry of Religion and Education in the first instance and issued by the Institute." (Becker, 1931 43.)

The first examination was presided over by Dr. Gyula Nevelős, Ministerial Councillor, Head of the Department of Public Education of the Ministry of Religion and Public Education, who "pointed out the importance of the initiative of the Royal Catholic Teacher Training Institute of Szeged [...] expressed his appreciation to the Board of Directors of our Institute for the commendable and pioneering initiative of the V. The institute is proud of its commendable and worthy initiative to systematically integrate the knowledge of extra-scholastic ethnology into the modern teacher training in the Vth grade." (Becker, 1931 43.)

In the following years, the training was finalised: one hour a week, usually on Saturdays, with around 20 lectures for fifth-year students during the academic year. In addition to theoretical knowledge (the essence, concept, organisation, tasks, tools, etc.), there was also practical training, and they themselves took part in organising several lectures, excursions and events for adults and children. Most of the participants did well in both the written and oral examinations, with a high percentage of good marks and good results, and the acquisition of knowledge proved useful in the long term. "Our graduates and former students who are already in employment report and testify that what they have learned on the course has been of great use in their lives and has greatly helped their social work." (Becker, 1937 48.)

Indeed, teachers, both graduates and in-service teachers, were in fact challenged by the multifaceted tasks detailed above, and by the need to participate meaningfully and intervene effectively in the social-social scene. As Etel Serfőző, a teacher from Dorozsma, put it: "Today's changing public perception expects a cultural mission from the teacher that is greater than perhaps from anyone else. His work is aided by the talent and capacity that has led him to his career. The work of the teacher has now grown far beyond the walls of the school. He must know the right social ideas and the way of teaching and disseminating them. He must know how to go about his work in order to achieve its success." (Boér, 1937 107.)

In addition to a sense of vocation and talent, the knowledge and use of specific knowledge and methodological techniques are essential to the performance of diverse and difficult tasks. Antal Boér, director of the state elementary school in Csongrád and district school inspector, goes further in his letter: "Build stone roads in the farms, have a people's house in each school district, and until there is a permanent doctor on the farm, have a medical clinic in one of the rooms of the people's house, and on certain days of the week the official doctor should hold clinic hours in the school centre. Let every school in the farm district have a school centre with a post office,

telephone, dispensary, midwife, people's library, projector, slides, etc., all around it." (Boér, 1937 113.) All this is the responsibility of the state, churches, municipalities and other organizations, but the teacher has a key role to play in its implementation. It is not financially, but primarily by virtue of his expertise and his social embeddedness that he is able to fulfil his complex task. It is therefore essential that candidates receive effective and meaningful training in the training institutions, so that they can play a productive and credible intellectual role in community life, even as early career teachers, rather than being in a state of reality shock. According to Boér, "Teacher training colleges have not taught social pedagogy in the past, and are only just touching on the subject at present. And the economic knowledge provided by the trainers is considered by teachers throughout the country to be very minimal. Under these circumstances, if the heart and soul of the teacher in the work of the spiritual and moral life of the village and the farm, however much he may be saturated with the task of raising and serving the cultural, social and economic conditions of the people of his village and farm district, his work will for a long time be only experimentation and not purposeful work." (Boér, 1937 108.) The Szeged school recognized this elementary need and responded to it in a forward-looking way by including, among other things, economic education or a course in ethnology. The Institute's trainers have developed the content to be taught in the most practical and realistic way possible, in collaboration with practitioners. They kept abreast of current events and challenges, followed and actively shaped the national scientific and professional discourse, while seeking to make use of the results and knowledge they had acquired, primarily locally. In this way, they laid the foundations of teacher training in Szeged and pointed out timeless considerations that are worth following in the present, changed circumstances, and which provide useful lessons for teacher trainers of today.

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