

# TEACHING AND LEARNING IN THE DIGITAL AGE

Editors:  
József Kaposi –  
Enikő Szőke-Milinte

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edited by József Kaposi – Enikő Szőke-Milinte

Pázmány Péter Catholic University  
Budapest, 2021

professional reviewers:  
Dr. Hassan Charaf  
Kenneth Floyd Hancock

language reviewer:  
Kenneth Floyd Hancock  
translator: Ágnes Vitéz

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ISBN 978-963-575-047-4

The publication was supported by Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences  
of the Pázmány Péter Catholic University.

The publication was commissioned by  
the Szaktudás Kiadó Ház on behalf of PPKE.

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## Editorial foreword

One of the most significant traits of knowledge-based societies is that the school as the favoured location of knowledge acquisition and teaching and learning processes is positioned to be the focus of attention and research. It is particularly important during a pandemic which hinders or even excludes the act of cognition. Institutions which train and cultivate the educators of the future for the expectations of the knowledge-based society are also faced with great challenges.

The nature of knowledge has shifted in developed knowledge-based societies towards providing a larger role for skills obtained in informal and non-formal circumstances. Knowledge-sharing platforms, learning networks and paradigms of life-long learning, life-wide learning and digital pedagogy have become essential elements of our everyday lives. They have completely modified our understanding of learning and teaching procedures.<sup>1</sup>

This rearrangement of cognition has consequently reshaped the roles of schools and educators. One of the most fundamental statements on Catholic education was assumed in 1977 with the title *The Catholic School on the Verge of the Third Millenium* by the *Catholic Education Congregation*.<sup>2</sup>

The principal and textual source of the statement was the *Gravissimus Educationis* and other synodal documents. The statement declares that teaching is barely the tool of education. The school community must motivate students to cognition and supporting attitude meanwhile schools should develop the students' responsibility and civic consciousness. This contributes to the sustainability of supportive communities in the society. Psychological, social, cultural, and religious diversity are generally depicted as a challenge, a source of opportunity and a gift. The necessary response is provided in the form of an institutional and system-level inclusive approach. The Catholic paradigm and the 21<sup>st</sup> century knowledge-based paradigm appear different; however, after scrutinizing the details, they are both in service of the most perfect human quality.

Vitéz János Teacher Training Centre of Pázmány Péter Catholic University aims at meeting the requirements of the two paradigms. The Centre was established according to the 2011 Act of Higher Education, and it was joined by the Early Childhood Education Department of Esztergom in 2013, from which the new coordinating institution got its name. The Teacher Training Centre operates in the fields of early childhood teacher training, primary and secondary school teacher training and pedagogical research with 24 educators, of whom 14 are certified university educators. If we trace the origins of early childhood education in Esztergom, Vitéz János Teacher Training Centre has a century old past. If we restrict the scope to teacher training, it is still a quarter century old as it was established at the same time as the Art faculty of Pázmány Péter Catholi-

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<sup>1</sup> Samuel Ronfard, Ran Wei, Meredith L Rowe (2017) Uncovering the Social and Cognitive Skills Underlying Processing Efficiency as Measured by the LWL Paradigm; DOI: 10.13140/RG.2.2.14217.75360

<sup>2</sup> Congregation of Catholic Education (1977) *The Catholic School*. [https://www.vatican.va/roman\\_curia/congregations/ccatheduc/documents/rc\\_con\\_ccatheduc\\_20051996\\_profile\\_en.html](https://www.vatican.va/roman_curia/congregations/ccatheduc/documents/rc_con_ccatheduc_20051996_profile_en.html)

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ty. The content-related, methodological, and personal requirements of teacher training were established between 1994 and 2004 under the leadership of Rózsa Hoffman. 2004 is also the establishment date of the Pedagogy Department and the partner-school network with 50 institutions. The administrative and infrastructural background were also crucial premises for the students to be involved with everyday pedagogical practice and to use the theoretically acquired skills and competences in real-life situations. This period saw the launch of postgraduate in-service teacher training courses and the conservative pedagogical journal titled *Mester és tanítvány* [Master and Apprentice].

Vitéz János Teacher Training Centre has organised 5 national-level educational conferences in the past 5 years and alongside the *National Conference of Scientific Students' Associations (OTDK) Educational and Methodological division* in the spring of 2019. The Centre has published 17 individual publications and books. Its associates and colleagues have participated at several national and international scientific conferences and authored papers in a wide range of national and global journals. This publication introduces papers concerning a recent global phenomenon: the coronavirus pandemic. The papers are imprints of a fresh and determinative experience with digital distance learning and educational research. Colleagues of the Centre address the challenges and difficulties of the digital era and distance learning while continuing to provide their students with maximised care and learning support. Individual experience and learning are special requirements in teacher training. These teaching and learning experiences have been transformed fundamentally. While the educator is aware that she must meet the challenges of the digital era, she also knows that the possibility of personality development is best accomplished in human relationships. The papers have been authored with a dual aim: their first section introduces the possibilities of digital teaching while the second half highlights the developmental and educational opportunities of personal relationships.

We believe that every reader will find her interest among the papers which can promote her personal development and pedagogical understanding.

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# Principles of Digital Learning

## by Enikő Szőke-Milinte

The basic principles in scientific cognition represent an integrated level of cognition and are the generalized forms of laws, which determine the whole practice of the phenomenon examined (Ferenczi-Fodor, 1996).

For the purposes of digital learning and organization of learning, the question must be asked: are there any laws regulating digital cognition as a whole? To answer that question, we need to examine the theory of learning on which digital cognition and learning can be based.

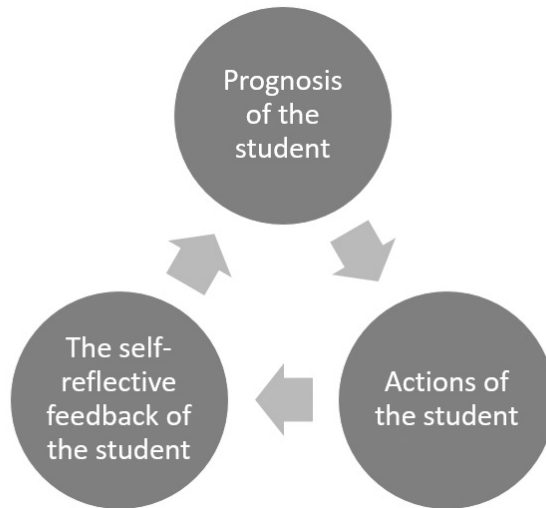
### *1. The theoretical framework of digital learning: constructivism*

The idea of constructivism first appears in the theory of learning by Jean Piaget and later in that of Jerome Bruner. According to Bruner, learning is an active social process in which the students construct new ideas or conceptions based on their present knowledge (Bruner 1974). The student chooses the information, creates hypotheses, and makes decisions while building their own mental constructions, integrating them into their own existing mental structures. By organizing their cognitive structures and elaborating patterns, the learning person gives meaning to their experiences, which is more than merely acquiring information.

According to the constructivist theory of learning, the learning person builds up (constructs) knowledge themselves (István Nahalka 2002). The student's existing knowledge and their concept net play a decisive role in constructing knowledge since they try to join new information to existing knowledge. The quality of existing knowledge determines and "forecasts" the quality of construction. Constructivism interprets the process of learning as a constant circular motion, as it seems that there is no experience free of preliminary theory (Nahalka 2002, 52). The process of learning can be represented by the following model (figure 1).

A current student/ learner enters the learning process with preliminary constructions (called forecast by Nahalka); after that comes the accommodation of information, cognition, i.e. action. Finally, the learner analyses the results of action, and during feedback, the former knowledge can change and transform depending on the new (pieces of) information.





*figure 1 The constructivist approach to learning (edited by the author)*

The constructing “scaffolding” approach – as Bruner puts it – makes it possible for the actual learner to use all situations and within those all biological and cultural means for cognitive development/ knowledge building. Any situation in which the student’s former mental structures make it possible for them to recognize and process new information or problems in that situation can be potentially interpreted as a learning situation. The emphasis is on the mental structures’ state of development; learning is performed through putting the new information into context and intellectual scheme. Getting into contact with our immediate and broader social surroundings and interactions are limited by our cognitive skills, as those determine the size of our social network and how we maintain contact (Dunbar, 1993). That is why there are differences in student cooperation, and the educator needs to respect that in the course of organizing learning.

### **1.1. Knowledge construction in a digital learning environment**

In his medium concept, McLuhan considers means of communication everything which shapes and controls the size of human activities and association, that is, he handles any human product, hardware (physically produced objects) and software (ideas and thoughts) as a medium of communication. According to his train of thought, the nature of the medium conveying dominant communication is what matters in shaping culture, from the aspect of how many sense organs and which sense organs precisely are affected by it. McLuhan thinks that any means of communication form unique sense-organ-usage ratios in the human sensorial system (it makes certain sense organs receive an increased amount of information and pushes the operation of others into the background); therefore, it calls into existence a particularly deformed perception pattern, which generates deformed patterns of thought and behaviour, since the individual, instead of reality, ad-

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justs to a deformed pattern of reality thought to be true. The dominating medium in the given society, in this particular case, the Internet, calls into existence the same deformed perception and thinking model of all members of the community, thus determining the features of culture. Consequently, McLuhan emphasises the responsibility of the medium in shaping culture and society (Mc Luhan 1964 – quoted by Varga 1999).

In line with McLuhan's argumentation, it can also be stated that in the learning environment of the Internet, sense organs are affected by a large amount of information more complex and (along certain goals) more selected as compared to genuine experience, so human cognition is determined by that quantitative and qualitative stimulus intensity. Digital reality develops and operates parallel with reality by its own regularity and inevitability, providing space and opportunity to collect experience for cognition. Suppose we accept that the image communicated by certain media is deformed compared to reality. If we accept that images transmitted through various media distort reality, then it can be no different in the case of digital media operating with integrated (motion) pictures, although the images of digital media are integrated, selected and manipulated multiple times. Digital cognition thereby is performed according to advance planned algorithms of which the recipient is not aware in many cases. The recipient's actions and activities generated by the algorithms, such as continuous down-scrolling, clicking, commenting, liking, multitasking, continuous search, etc., outsource human cognition and learning to the digital space. The same happens when different digital user interfaces are involved in school learning (such as Socrative, Redmenta, Mentimeter, Edubase). The interface brings the student through an advance algorithmic-planned cognition sequence: the cognitive processes are placed from the cranial cavity to the digital space, a virtual reality. In that process, it is already not the learning person who plans and organises the steps of cognition but the algorithm which provides the basis for the operation of the interface.

Digital representation has outgrown the frames that external representations have filled so far: it claims the role of "virtual reality" instead of reality, "new media communication" instead of traditional communication, and copying the nature of the information process through algorithms it appears in the role of information in education.

## **1.2. How can the learner construct their own knowledge in digital cognition?**

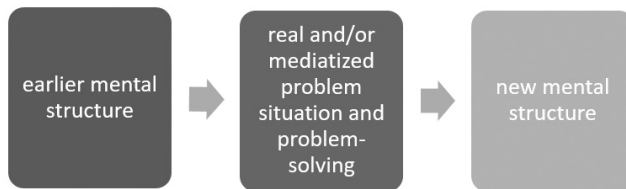
Other research into cognition also emphasises that the environment determines our thinking and behaviour; it affects us. Objects and space are part of the processes of cognition – they are not just neutral objects, articles –, they are inseparable parts of our thinking and our learning processes. (Salomon - Perkins, 1998).

The question of whether technology can ever transformatively affect learning (e.g. Clark, 1994) can be answered in two ways. One of the possible answers is that the transformative effect of technology in instruction means only the functional improvement or better productivity of existing practices. Digital interfaces used in instruction (such as Socrative, Redmenta, Mentimeter, Edubase) do not make knowledge construction possi-

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ble in cognitive pathways planned and algorithmized by the teacher, and what is more, do not effectively transform cognition; they instead ensure the efficacy of cognition through increasing the number of repetitions, competition, gamification, and immediate feedback. They create an operant conditioning situation embedded in a digital environment for the student. Another possible answer emphasises that during the use of technology, there occurs a turning point, where efficacy becomes so spectacular that new practices cannot be distinguished from the old merely in the field of efficacy. The research into technology transforming education practices is nowadays a central issue in pedagogy, and a new field of discipline has come into being for the examination thereof, the field of digital pedagogy (Kimmons, R., Graham, C., and West, R. 2020).

According to that field, the learning individual as the person constructing knowledge uses the interface for developing and reinforcing certain skills only in operant conditioning mode. For them, the real cognitive activity will be the **complex problem solving** coordinated, tutored, and facilitated by the educator. The environment doubled by virtual reality offers complex problems for the learner, the solving of which is performed simultaneously in the natural, mental and virtual environment (figure 2).



*figure 2 Complex problem solving as knowledge construction*

In his theory of learning, Bruner distinguishes three different modes of learning based on the representations created during cognition (Bruner 1974):

a) the enactive mode of learning (which is based on specific material activities and active manual manipulations and operations),

b) the iconic mode of learning (which takes shape primarily based on the development of visual mental images and notions, regulated by perception organization rules, not requiring specific material manipulation), and

c) the symbolic mode of learning (which cardinally takes place based on conventional signs, abstract symbols and notions, making condensation and compression possible, that is essentially on words and the language itself).

During the enactive mode of learning, objects and space have special significance, i.e. they determine the cognitive process in which they have a function. According to Bruner, the stages follow one another in sequence, that is, symbolic learning cannot precede enactive learning, but those modes of learning appear in an integrated form in adult learning. That is why the difference is so spectacular between the cognition of children who are exposed to digital devices at an early age and children who, for some reason, ignore those devices.

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Images communicated by digital devices carry iconic and symbolic characteristics in an integrated way, putting the recipient in a complex problem situation. Processing those images assumes a complex intellectual activity, which the minor child cannot perform without help. In an adequately organized learning situation, the educator can accompany the learning person through the path of cognition selecting the complex iconic and symbolic images and breaking down the processing thereof into small steps, thus supporting the processing process. After that, the learning person will be able to process and accommodate the information carried by digital images independently.

In the constructivist approach of learning, **problem-solving** has a prominent role, and it is not different in digital pedagogy either, where besides algorithmized interfaces supporting learning, the learner comes across mediatized complex problems. If we take, for example, a Hungarian language class where the students' task is to collect examples online, and then, with the debating method, argue about the following statement:

*„...no nation could master wisdom, depth, till sciences were not drawn into its native tongue. All nations became scientists in their own language, but never in a foreign tongue”*  
György Bessenyei

To perform the task, the students will have to recognise that they face a 21<sup>st</sup>-century problem: what does effective information gathering, cognition mean?

During preparations, they need to search theories of learning, find examples about the languages in which scientists of different nationalities can study, and find interviews in which scientists speak about their knowledge construction. The students themselves might ask such people about their experience (in e-mails or interviews) and need to find research data supporting their statements, then, using the debating method, argue in groups of three.

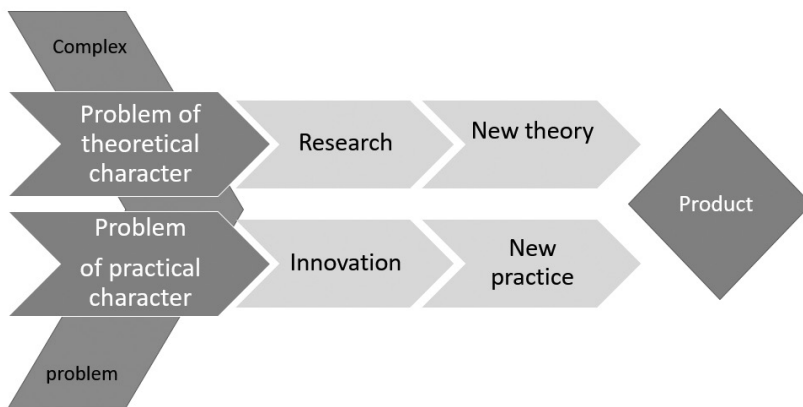
They find themselves in a complex problem situation, in which they recognize that there is a conflict between their system of knowledge and the knowledge required for the problem to be solved, which can be reconciled with problem-solving, that is, proposing and proving or dismissing a hypothesis. The objective is that the problem and its resolution should fit into more extensive and more general systems of notions and knowledge: the learning person should form a strong opinion of the problem and its resolution, based on proofs (in the presented example: how native language determined cognition). The course and result of the problem solving as a new practice are not simply more efficient than when the educator expresses their point of view concerning the problem, but they create a new learning strategy and methodology, a new scene for learning and new cooperation between student and teacher. **In the course of digital cognition, the scenes of knowledge construction are online platforms, where it is possible to form the most varied connections, the strategy of knowledge construction is problem-solving mediatized and facilitated by the educator.** In the course of problem-solving, the formation of a hypothesis and the verification thereof assumes and results in an ever-improving innovative and problem-solving way of thinking, the mobilization and operation of which the educator can support.

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Constructivist problem-solving assonates with the **genesis principle** of cognitive load theory, which states that we can randomly generate and test the efficacy of new information during problem-solving by applying a generating and testing procedure (Schweller 2009; Schweller et al. 2019). The generating procedure is equivalent to proposing, proving or dismissing a hypothesis; the testing procedure is the reflection that follows.

Problem-solving thus is a creative cognitive strategy generating new information, a prominent strategy of digital education that assigns a new role to the current student: the student is appointed to be the “creator” of new knowledge. Indeed, it is a so-called tacit knowledge that can withstand the test of publicity and may become explicit knowledge (Nonaka – Konno 1998).

The process of knowledge construction starts with the recognition and articulation of a problem. Depending on the nature of the problem, the resolution can be based on research or creation aiming at innovation and invention (figure 3). The result of research-based problem solving beyond proving or dismissing a hypothesis creates a new “theory”. The result of creation-based problem solving is a new practice. With the problems that have theoretical and practical aspects, complex resolutions are born from the learning process, which can have theoretical and practical aspects and can appear as specific tangible products.



*figure 3 The process of knowledge construction, edited by the author*

In the course of digital learning, the educator helps the student to recognise, articulate and elaborate the solution in the stages as follows (figure 4):

<b>Creation-based learning ITEC project <a href="http://itec.eun.org/web/guest">http://itec.eun.org/web/guest</a></b>	<b>Research-based learning Pedaste et al. 2012, 2015</b>	
<b>What is the problem?</b>	<b>Orientation</b>	
What is your preliminary knowledge about the problem? Recall that.	Creation of concept	Determining the question
What is the unknown to be discovered? What is the question to be answered? – Discover it.		Proposing a hypothesis
What possibilities are available to answer the question?–Dream it up.	investigation	Exposure
What do you need to create, make? – Create. Act. Cooperate.		Experiment
What can / needs to be changed? – Think it over.		Data analysis
Test what you have created. – Reflect on it.	conclusion	
Present it.	Discussion, interpretation	Publication, communication

*figure 4 Stages of creation and research-based learning*

Several essential basic principles can be deduced for digital education from the problem-solving paradigm of the constructivist approach to learning. We review here some of them.

## *2. The principle of goal-orientation*

Both pedagogical and psychological theories of learning recognized the importance of goals in cognition and learning as early as the 20<sup>th</sup> century.

The pedagogical instruction theories have accorded great significance to goals since the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. On the one hand, the compliance of pedagogical activities with social requirements motivated the emphasis on goals; on the other hand, the motivation was the appearance of the learning approach of psychological activity theory in the theory of education, according to which learning is an activity, and human activity is goal-oriented. The role of goals in cognition can be understood if deduced from the central theorem of the goal theory, according to which the goal guides all human activities. (Latham–Locke, 1991; for the summary of the theory, see Fejes, 2011).

Due to our finite capacity for accommodating and interpreting (our attention), and interests, we need to select the knowledge coming from the different channels of information-rich networks surrounding us by importance, usefulness, and relevance. Thus, goal orientation makes it possible for us to select the essential problems and operate with information and information processing strategies that are most helpful in problem-solving.

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The two aspects, namely the social aspect and the psychological learning theory, often posed a challenge for school cognition in which the goals of education and learning necessarily differed. The goals of education are the socially defined human ideal and the requirements thereof broken down into levels, fields, and years of education, in the form of knowledge to be acquired, skills to be developed, and attitudes. However, the student's learning activity is rarely equated with those goals and only at the highest level of their development. Instead, their goals are linked to the specific learning activities: solving problems in biology, literature and history, etc.

Goal orientation, neither in psychology nor in pedagogy, automatically entails a conscious activity. The student's goal is not necessarily the improvement of their own learning activities; their goal instead is to achieve the result of the learning activity in the specific learning situation. For example, if the student is working on a mathematical exercise, and we ask them what the goal is, they will answer that they want to find the correct answer to the mathematical problem. The educator, however, knows that the real goal is the development of the student's formal mathematical way of thinking.

Goal theory points out that performance has a linear connection to the problem's level of difficulty: well defined and unambiguous goals positively affect performance, as opposed to general goals (such as "Learn logically") (Locke és Latham 1999). Furthermore, "the short term (immediate), specific goals of a reasonable challenge increase motivation levels better than long-term (distant), general goals that pose too big a challenge." ("The 20 most important basic psychological principles of instruction in primary and secondary schools' team for psychology in schools and education p. 22 <https://www.apa.org/ed/schools/teaching-learning/top-twenty-principles-hungarian.pdf>.)

Thus it is not incidental from the pedagogical point of view, who names the goals (the educator or the student), and in what detail, how they are presented (e.g. they put them in the copy-book) or how feedback is given about the performance of the tasks at the end of the learning process.

Selecting the goals and forming them into activities is a complicated process and requires developed cognitive and volitional activity. In pedagogy, providing support in learning means that the educator assists in identifying, setting and articulating the goals, and supports the planning and implementation of the activity necessary to achieve the goals. By supporting the students' self-knowledge and self-image, the educator can assist the students in choosing authentic and achievable goals; on the other hand, they can make them dare to articulate long-term and more challenging goals, being aware of their competencies and skills (Latham–Locke, 1991).

Articulating exact and definable goals related to the contents to be acquired makes the learning process transparent, predictable and adjustable for the students. It is vital to make the students aware of the different exercises' goals, even with exercises on digital platforms based on algorithms, but during problem-solving, the educator needs to make students articulate the overall and partial goals.

In specialized literature, researchers mainly differentiate between mastery goals and performance goals (Harackiewicz–Linnenbrink, 2010; Ryan–Pintrich–Wolters, 2003).

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The mastery goals help the students to focus on their learning and the efficiency thereof, concentrating on understanding the task and the teaching material and developing in the meantime. Students that need help can ask for it more easily. Most research attributes a more efficient pedagogic role to mastery goals than to performance goals (Senko-Miles, 2008) since those serve the development of competencies, knowledge, skills and abilities, and facilitate a deeper understanding of the tasks and exercises. (Pintrich, 2003; Wolters, 2003). The performance goals encourage the students to compete, to be better than others and to gain acknowledgement.

The mastery goal makes self-regulation of learning possible: students setting such goals apply deeper and more efficient learning strategies, they ask themselves questions while learning, and if they feel they do not understand the teaching material, apply a different strategy, or try to approach the problem from a different angle; that is, they regulate their cognition (D. Molnár 2016).

The motivating effect of goal-setting is seen in the fact that the learning person compares their actual performance to the result articulated in the objective. Thus, the goals regulate the identification of the appropriate activity, the direction, intensity, and duration of the learning activity, and also the amount of energy and power the learning person will mobilize depending on the difficulty of the task and the time available (Latham - Locke 1991). If the objective becomes a permanent characteristic of the individual, it will establish a lifelong learning attitude. The attitude towards achieving goals is called goal orientation in the specialized literature, which includes the approach to and implementation of the exercise and evaluating the achieved performance (Pintrich, 2000).







Goal orientation is a significant principle for digital pedagogy. On digital interfaces, at the beginning of the individual learning units, the related goals and learning results are to be indicated because the student can realize the point in the activity and the result of the activity. It is also important that the interface visually display partial achievement of goals to motivate students for further activity. Finally, at the end of the activity, it is also worthwhile to make the student realize what they actually learned during the activity and what learning outcomes they achieved. Learning outcomes are statements that indicate what the student will be able to perform due to a specific learning activity (Jenkins –Unwin 1996).

According to Adam, learning outcomes are to be articulated so that they include the goals and the requirements deduced from the goals: knowledge, skills, attitudes (figure 5). Unclear learning outcomes do not function appropriately; they will not fulfil their motivating and regulating function (Adam 2006).



*If the student performs the task correctly, they recognize the learning goals that presume a “knowledge” level operation activity.*

Examine the typical task performance wordings appertaining to Bloom’s “knowledge” level operation activity. Then, find the tasks below that articulate the pupils’ knowledge level activities. <https://www.teachthought.com/learning/what-is-blooms-taxonomy>

BLOOM'S TAXONOMY DIGITAL PLANNING VERBS					
REMEMBERING	UNDERSTANDING	APPLYING	ANALYZING	EVALUATING	CREATING
					
Copying Defining Finding Locating Quoting Listening Googling Repeating Retrieving Outlining Highlighting Memorizing Networking Searching Identifying Selecting Tabulating Duplicating Matching Bookmarking Bullet-pointing	Annotating Tweeting Associating Tagging Summarizing Relating Categorizing Paraphrasing Predicting Comparing Contrasting Commenting Journaling Interpreting Grouping Inferring Estimating Extending Gathering Exemplifying Expressing	Acting out Articulate Reenact Loading Choosing Determining Displaying Judging Executing Examining Implementing Sketching Experimenting Hacking Interviewing Painting Preparing Playing Integrating Presenting Charting	Calculating Categorizing Breaking Down Correlating Deconstructing Linking Mashing Mind-Mapping Organizing Appraising Advertising Dividing Deducing Distinguishing Illustrating Questioning Structuring Integrating Attributing Estimating Explaining	Arguing Validating Testing Scoring Assessing Criticizing Commenting Debating Defending Detecting Experimenting Grading Hypothesizing Measuring Moderating Posting Predicting Rating Reflecting Reviewing Editorializing	Blogging Building Animating Adapting Collaborating Composing Directing Devising Podcasting Wiki Building Writing Filming Programming Simulating Role Playing Solving Mixing Facilitating Managing Negotiating Leading

<input type="checkbox"/> Characterize verbs based on subjective and objective conjugation.	<input type="checkbox"/> What conclusions can you draw about the characteristics of nouns related to their role in the sentence?
<input type="checkbox"/> Characterize the bald eagle based on its physical characteristics.	<input type="checkbox"/> How did different social processes appear in the outbreak of World War II?
<input type="checkbox"/> Enumerate the sentence elements besides verbs.	<input type="checkbox"/> Explain the difference between verbs and other sentence elements (such as nouns, adjectives, numerals, and pronouns)

*figure 5 Learning outcomes as requirements in the task of a student with a teaching major*

Requirements articulated and visually presented during digital learning:

- help the students learn more effectively
- make it evident in what the students can further develop
- help the educators plan learning activities more consciously (learning units, learning strategies, learning methods, students’ exercises, ways of work, etc.)
- help the educators clearly define requirements and select the appropriate methods and contents of assessment.

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### 3. *The Principle of Instructional Design*

Besides goal orientation, design is also generally characteristic of human activity since the plan is elaborated in order to achieve the goal. It is not different in the case of the teaching-learning activity either.

One of the best-known instructional design models is the model of Gagné, Briggs and Wagner (1992), who reflected on the planning of didactic activities as “instruction design” and meant it primarily as the precise preliminary planning of the teacher’s activity. According to their concept, didactic planning includes the elaboration of the system of objectives, the specification of the instruction material, the didactic process of learning contents, the definition of lessons or modules, the identification of methods, techniques, accessories, tools, resources to be applied, and the measuring and assessment of performance.

Gagné, Briggs and Wager (1992) suggest utilizing eight general stages in the design of didactic activities:

- stating the instructional goal;
- identifying learning stages to achieve goals;
- entry behaviour and learner characteristics;
- performance objectives;
- identifying instruction methods;
- organization of instructional materials and tools;
- elaboration of formative evaluation procedures;
- elaboration of summative evaluation procedures.

In another model, Morrison, Ross and Kemp (Morrison- Ross - Kemp - Kalman 2010) describe the instructional design in nine stages:

1. Identifying instructional problems and stating instructional goals
2. Learners’ characteristics
3. Adjustment of contents and tasks to the goals
4. Determining the students’ learning objectives
5. Logical arrangement of instructional contents
6. Designing instructional strategies
7. Designing the message
8. Instructional delivery (designing tools to support instruction)
9. Performance evaluation to determine whether the goals have been achieved

The above models present instructional design primarily focusing on the teacher’s activities, in which the well-designed learning path is the guarantee for the development of the student. If we interpret learning as a process of problem-solving in the constructivist approach, then the design means the mutual planning of the process of problem-solving by the teacher and the student, in which the educator facilitates the student’s design activity. In the course of digital learning, design is no more than, , the scheduling of the problem-solving process, the design of overall and partial goals and the adjustment of goals to milestones, using the possibilities provided by digital interfaces, then the design of contents, the scheduling and design of tasks and methods of control.

During complex problem-solving, the stages of design map the stages of problem-solving, and in the design, the student has a leading role, while the educator supports design and implementation according to the steps as follows (figure 6):

1. What is the problem? What is the unknown in the problem? How can we define the problem?
2. What is the purpose of problem-solving? What do we want to achieve, solve, or implement? What competencies will we need?
3. What are the overall and partial subjects, the subproblems? What contents will we need to solve the problems (text, picture, moving picture, etc.)?
4. What creative tasks are expected to be solved individually or in teams?
5. What results are expected (tests, products, performances, etc.)?
6. How can we test the achieved results? How can we apply the results of problem-solving in our everyday life?

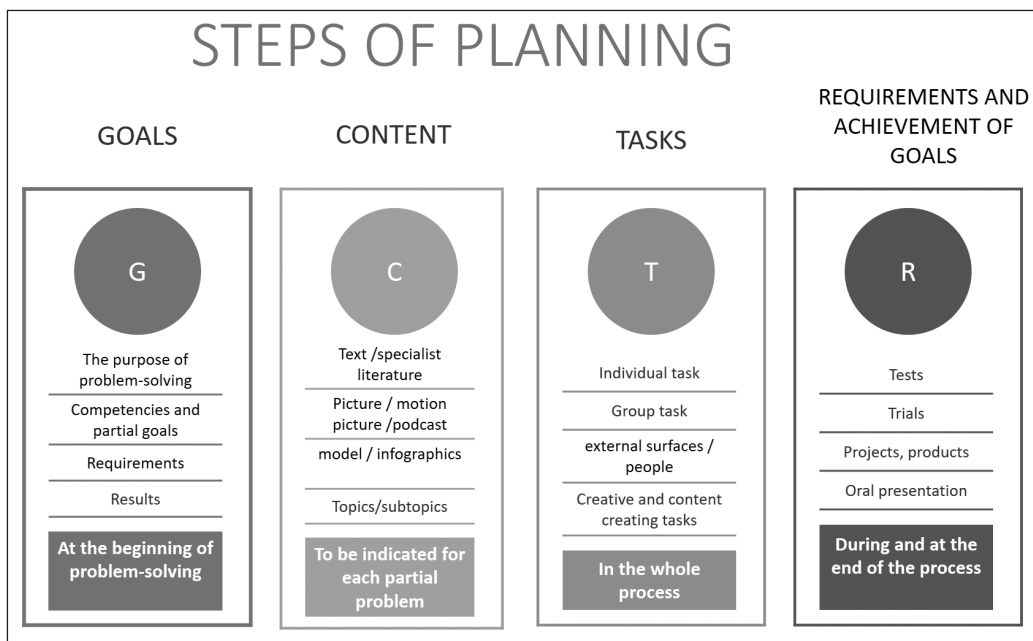
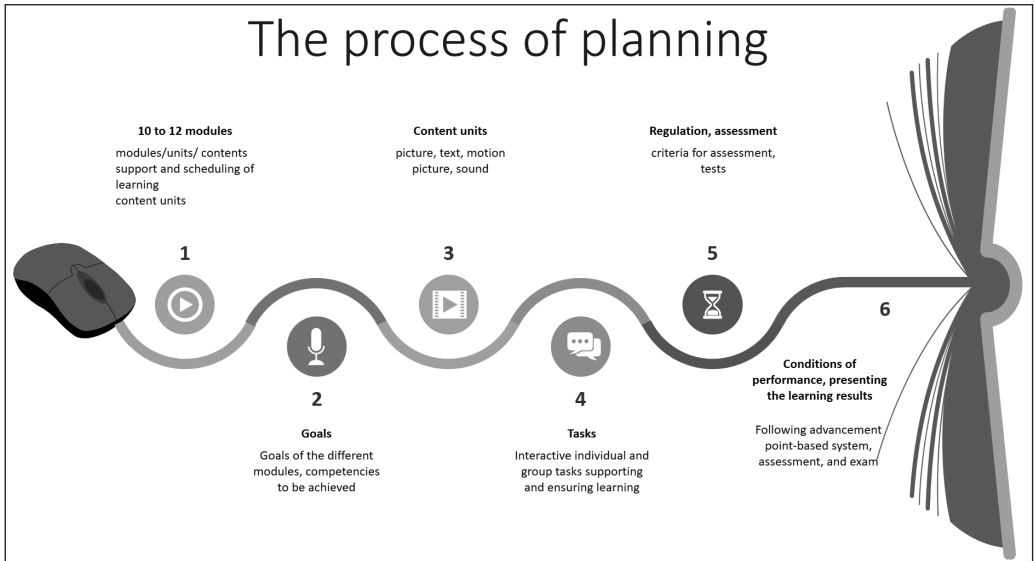


figure 6 Design of digital learning (edited by the author)

When designing content, the psychological principles of learning are also important to consider.

- **multiple representation principle:** from an efficacy point of view, it is expedient if the information is presented to the student through several channels, because the student can construct two kinds of representation (e.g., a verbal and a visual one) and can also create a link between the channels

- **simultaneity principle:** information is worth being presented on different channels together (simultaneously), not separately, because two pieces of information must simultaneously be present in the working memory to create the knowledge construction.
- **split attention principle:** do not overload any channels while the other is out of use.
- If we use Moodle for the so-called operant conditioned instruction of the students, then the design will evolve by sequences as follows (Figure 7):



*figure 7 Instruction design on a digital platform (edited by the author)*

#### 4. The principle of differentiation – ensuring individual learning paths

##### 4.1 Differentiation as an adaptation to individual differences

Differentiation in instruction in its narrow sense means the organization of differentiated activities adapted to different levels of skills and development and personality characteristics and the application of different developing methods. During differentiation, cognition and knowledge processing complies with the individual differences in teachability and suitability for development. The objective of differentiated instruction organisation is to make students reach the level of cognition achievable based on their personal abilities. (Lappints 2002, Nádasi 1986).

According to Árpád Lappints, differentiation has two pedagogical functions:

1. All students independent of their state of development and personal faculties have to be forwarded to a uniform basic level of education (that is, the minimal requirement level defined in the National Core Curriculum)

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2. With the help of differentiation, students' personality is to be developed to the top level of their faculties (Lappints, 2002).

#### 4.2. Differentiation as an approach

Ferenczi and Fodor (1996) consider differentiation a basic principle, a paradigmatic category that carries a fundamental instructional approach. The way we should think about education in a given time and space will fundamentally determine basic pedagogic principles and, within those, the principle of differentiation. The notion of differentiation can be found as early as in the pedagogy of Comenius, but at the time, it meant merely taking into account the characteristics of the age group, becoming tangible in the demonstration; the compliance with personal particularities found their way into pedagogical thinking only due to constructivist learning theories at the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Ferenczi – Fodor 1996; Nahalka 2002). The compliance with age group characteristics and personal particularities is described in pedagogical literature with a new technical term, the notion of adaptivity.

If differentiation as a pedagogical approach appears in pedagogical thinking, it apparently affects pedagogical practice. According to Báthory, the differentiation approach expresses the sensitivity of the educator towards the students' differences, while the practice of differentiation applies adaptation to differences (Báthory, 2005).

In schools operating based on the reform-pedagogical approach, and in the approach and everyday practice of alternative pedagogic trends, an attitude can be traced suggesting that schools and education are to be better adapted to students instead of adapting students to education goals. Thus, tailored development, individualized education, targeted development of abilities providing a sound basis for the individual path of life and the related differentiated system of requirements and monitoring receive a part. According to Gábor Halász, during differentiated learning, the key to success is the students' motivation, as they learn what and how they like learning or what they think they might need in the future (Halász, 2002).

Adaptivity is a consciously constructed pedagogical process, which comprises the application of varied methods, but that is not enough in itself. It is an adaptive development that equally considers the aspects of homogeneity and differentiation, whether or not we examine it from the perspective of individuals, teams, or institutions, and supposes the mutual adaptation of those involved to one another and the circumstances (M. Nádas 2010). Thus, it comes down to a flexible pedagogic activity system that simultaneously considers the needs of all participants of the education system (Dávid 2015).

Nóra Rapos and Sándor Lénárd distinguish adaptivity from differentiation. As they see it, adaptivity and the learning organization procedures around it are characteristic of preventive pedagogic approaches, while differentiation is characteristic of pedagogies which try to find and then improve deficits and deficiencies and focus on catching up and compensation (Rapos–Lénárd 2008).

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Differentiation is viable on different levels of institutional education. It can be performed on the school system level related to the definition of input requirements, with the criteria for classification and the application of specific instruction organization procedures. Differentiation as a pedagogic (basic) principle should appear on different levels of the education system so that it becomes viable in practice: from the differentiation of education goals (national curricula, local curricula) and the differentiation of the content (compulsory and supplementary contents) to preparing the educators for a differentiated learning organization.

Whether we speak about differentiation or adaptivity, they are indispensable pedagogic practices and approaches for the learning organization of generation Z. As the cognitive load theory describes it, the youth of generation Z demand support, cooperation and creative participation during their cognition and memorizing processes (Schweller and colleagues 2019).

Accordingly, the coding process is organized to transform stimuli into forms readily accepted by the memory. Coding may be performed visually, in images, in psychoacoustic forms, in sounds, and semantically based on meaning and sense.

Memorization, however, has individual characteristics: the efficacy of information comprehensible by the different sense organs varies by individuals.

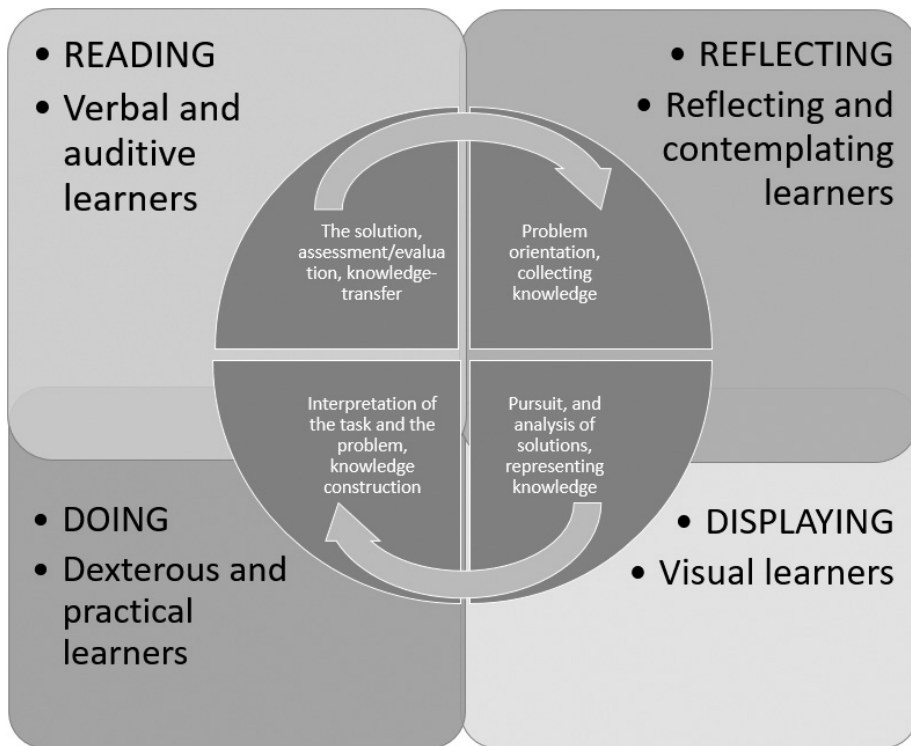
The imprinting of information depends on the type of the task (during creative tasks, information imprints better), the number of repetitions, personal characteristics (motivation, emotion, mood, will, interests, etc.), collective sense organ impressions (e.g. audio-visual learning), preliminary knowledge and experience. The support of the students' working memory with visualisation and other techniques adjusted to the cycles of exhaustion and rest is an outstanding educational task (Oberauer – Eichenberger 2013).

Imprinting and retrieval will be more effective if the student receives information broken into smaller units, thus preventing the overload of the working memory; if the educator applies strategies that promote deeper processing in order to facilitate a more effortless information transfer (to long-term memory); if the educator makes information available in different ways to support processing and transfer to long-term memory (Ally 2004). Teaching material should be offered to generation Z in a differentiated way adjusted to those individual characteristics.

The R2D2 model created by Curtis J. Bonk and his co-author Ke Zhang (2008) is related to that, in which they integrate student types most frequently referred to in specialized literature. However, those types fundamentally differ from one another in the type of information most accessible for them. The model is significant because research into learning styles has unambiguously proven that different types of information and different learning activities bear fruit for different learning styles (Kolb's learning cycles 1984; McCarthy's 4MAT system 1987; Fleming's and Mills VARK's learning style model 1992 – quoted by Curtis J. Bonk and Ke Zhang 2008).

According to the model, some students like to listen to the teaching material, others instead read, and some students learn and cognize through practice, while some learn through contemplation and meditation. The arrows indicate that the four student types

are not isolated, that is, all types in different learning phases characterize most students, and at different ages, still there is always one that has a higher emphasis in each learning activity. The co-authors do not consider R2D2 an instruction model (figure 6), but rather a frame based on which learning environment, primarily the online environment, can be organized. For that, they collect and present 100 characteristic learning activities, which ensure an optimum learning environment for each learning type.



*figure 8, R2D2 model edited by the author adapted from the idea of Curtis J. Bonk and Ke Zhang*

According to the model, verbal-auditive students prefer oral and written explanations, visual students prefer visual information and images, such as diagrams, concept maps, flowcharts, timelines, images, films, presentations, and infographics. Kinesthetic learners prefer tactile and kinesic learning, while reflective, contemplative types like expressive, reflective, observer and visible learning forms. They prefer to look at things from several perspectives, including their own observations.

The learning environment organizes and connects information, therefore the environment we create for the students is not at all indiscriminate. The actual task, the information and tools available, the cooperative partners, the educator, and the information-carrier internet sites (people, libraries, wiki-sites, etc.) are all to be included in the learning environment. Whether we work in face-to-face instruction or assume an online learning

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environment, it can be stated that the learning environment determines the individual learning within, it marks out their thinking and behaviour (Salomon - Perkins, 1998).

At the same time, cognitive abilities determine the relation with the learning environment since we relate to the tasks, resolutions and partners' net based on those abilities (Dunbar, 1993). Tasks requiring creativity create a particular learning environment because the existing knowledge is to be used in a new way: the different types of information, representation stored in different places are to be reused, reorganized and connected (Szóke-Milinte 2020).

From the pedagogical point of view, it is wrong to create a uniform learning environment for children with different learning styles since there will always be students for whom the goal, the task type and method in question are not accessible. The approach of differentiation has its roots in that realization, that is why all educators endeavour to make students process the teaching material through more varied tasks with more varied methods. According to the authors of 'differentiated development in the first phase of primary school' development plan: "Differentiated development based on an early diagnosis can be the most effective means of preventing failures at school, learning setbacks and backlogs, and early drop-outs without qualifications, and could outstandingly contribute to the overall improvement of performances at school." (2017). The plan elaborated the substantive framework, methods and means of differentiation, and the framework and methods of differentiated performance evaluation. The document makes it unambiguous that performance inequalities in education can be remedied only through differentiated instruction organization.

### **4.3. Possibilities of digital education in a differentiated learning organization**

The purpose of the Digital education strategy (DOS) prepared in 2016 (Government decree No. 1536 of October 13, 2016) is to "make the education system able to perform instruction and education tasks meeting the requirements of the digital society and economy". The strategy intends that "nobody should leave the education system without the basic digital skills required by the labour market". DOS "expects all education organizations to provide the student with an online interface for learning; ensure equal access and the possibility of inclusive education through digital devices and services;" (Government decree No. 1536 of October 13, 2016, p 27).

The principle articulated in DOS, that is, equal access and ensuring inclusive education through digital devices and services, could not be fully realized in Hungarian schools. In many cases due to the lack of devices and internet access and in other cases due to lack of basic digital skills, but in most cases, the lack of education methodology and digital pedagogy skills hindered differentiation and adaptivity in digital tele-education.

There are more possibilities for learning organization in an online environment for different learning types. Though by no means exhaustive, here are some activities by learning types as presented by Curtis J. Bonk and Ke Zhang (table 1):



<b>Reading</b>	<b>Reflecting</b>	<b>Displaying</b>	<b>Doing</b>
webinar online conversation with an expert on the topic virtual presentation in class editing /reading wikis, e-book libraries, online readings online sync and asynchronous assessment, etc.	getting to know and evaluation of web web-portals personal and professional blogs self-testing activities, questions, exams social networking professional groups/ observations in the laboratory online source directories museum visits	videoblog infographics professional popular education backed by videos collaboration animations diagrams, flowcharts, tables concept map timeline virtual spaces/ tours	web-based research videos audio materials prepared by the students digital storytelling online thesaurus games (e.g. Kahoot) online role-play online tutoring, mentoring simulation game online role-play

*table 1 adapted from Curtis J. Bonk and his co-author, Ke Zhang (2008)*

Whichever form of differentiation, content and learning organization adjusting to whichever learning type in question, the practical implementation will always depend on the professional skills and attitudes of the educator.

### *5. The principle of feedback, assessment, and regulation*

Assessment, by its nature, is an organic part of human activities. In everyday life, the goal set at the beginning of an activity is always compared to the result achieved at the end, and if the set goal and the achieved result coincide, we consider the activity successful. Assessment is the result of feedback based on measured or estimated performance, and comparing performance to goals ensures the regulation of the activity.

That is the same in learning as well, especially if we consider the learning process with a constructivist approach and assume that the student will construct their own knowledge. As active actors, they set a goal at the beginning of the activity then at the end of the activity, reflect on the result based on the set goal, examining what they could implement of the goal, that is, giving feedback to themselves and, if necessary, correcting the activity.

In pedagogy, the assessment and feedback on the learning process are considered a micro-level assessment. In the beginning, the educator helps the student articulate the goals and evaluates the achieved results depending on the goals – that is what different forms of assessment are for –, later, the student will be able to perform self-assessment. During the whole period of the activity, the continuous regulation thereof is performed depending on the set goals, that is, not only the outcome is compared to the set goals, but the partial results are also revised, and we regulate the learning activity based on those revisions. Assessment is a didactic task in the instruction activity – as it is a significant step in cognition according to the traditional logic of epistemology –, furthermore it is also a method if we intend to find out about the quality of performing a specific instruction task (Golnhofer 2003; Báthory, 1987; Szőke-Milinte 2013). According to Tyler, assessment is

an organic part of education and a relatively separate activity occurring at the end of the single phases of education. It plays a role in design/planning, in the process itself, and in the final phase of the process (Tyler, 1970 quoted by Golnhofer 2003).

It is about the macro-level of pedagogic assessment when we examine the system's operation at the level of public education. For example, suppose in the systematic approach we consider social expectation as a goal to achieve to be the input of public education. In that case, we can learn about the system's operation and success by comparing students' results with the final examination to the social expectations. Assessment, therefore, is a central, system-regulating element of instruction that gives educators feedback on students' success on national, regional, and local levels. Thus, assessment has regulating, feedbacking, and confirmatory functions (Báthory, 1992). Whether we speak about micro- or macro-level assessment, it facilitates improving productivity and effectiveness, diagnosis, development, grading, and selection (figure 9).

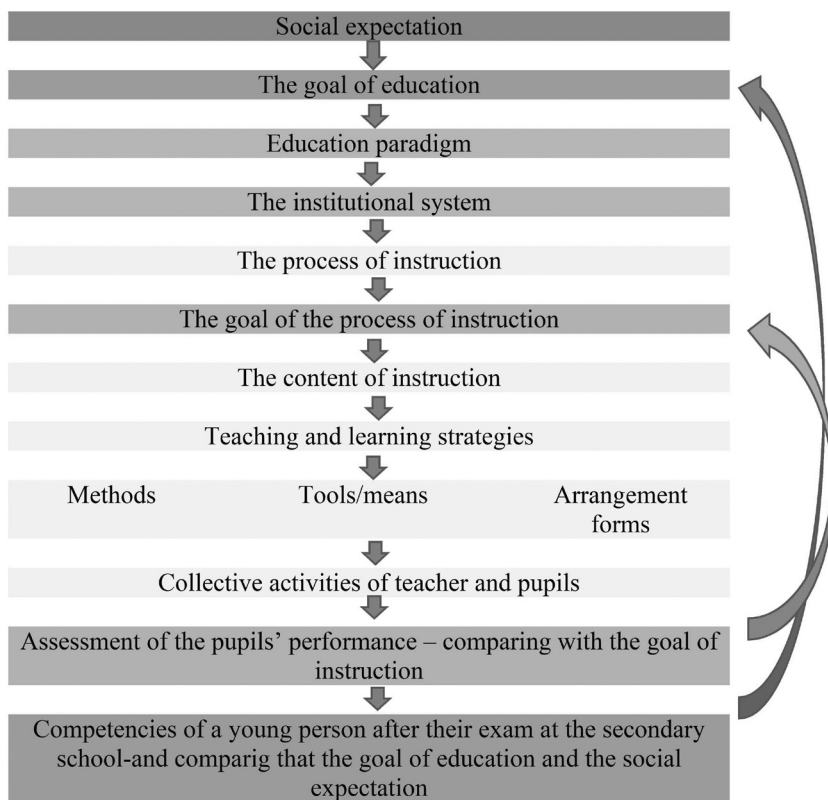


figure 9 Macro- and micro-level of pedagogical assessment (edited by the author)

Using digital technology for education purposes enables the educator to continually assess and regulate the students' learning activity. The result of the above presented online differentiated activities (Curtis J. Bonk and Ke Zhang 2008), but the activities themselves

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are appropriate for the educator to assess the students' work in a differentiated way. At the beginning of each learning unit, during learning, and at the end, the educator can prepare a series of tasks for the students on varied platforms, which inform both the educator and the students about the current learning results in real-time. Or the educator can design the following learning activity for the students, offering the students teaching material in a differentiated way, and the students can be exposed to their performance and can plan their learning activities in a self-reflecting way. The advantage of assessment using digital platforms is that both the teachers and the students can get immediate feedback about the current learning results in real-time. The condition of that is that the educator should be familiar with appropriate digital platforms and should be able to prepare professional tests, question sheets and exams.

## 6. *The principle of genesis*

The constructivist learning theory chosen as the theoretical basis of digital pedagogy and the cognitive load theory considers learning as knowledge creation, putting the learner into a so-called scientist's and discoverer's position. (*Spronken-Smith-Kingham, 2009; Keselman, 2003*). The driving force behind knowledge creation is the learner's curiosity, their observation, critical information processing, and the creation of new information. We need to create new information from time to time in cases when nobody else is in possession of that information. We can generate new pieces of information during problem-solving and test their efficacy by applying a generating and testing procedure. It can be stated that creation and productivity are central categories of 21<sup>st</sup>-century learning.

The Encyclopaedia of pedagogy distinguishes two forms of creation:

1. reproductive application (practice), which serves the development of skills
2. productive and creative applications which result in a complex and intricate solving of problems and tasks.

Both forms have a reason for existence in the learning process if we consider learning as an "open-ended, creative process at the end of which something is born that we can show each other" (Seymour Papert 1990). All products carry the cognitive constructions, creativity, and personality of their creator and also a possible answer to a question arising in a problem. Papert redefined education as an organic process, where subjects do not separate strictly: "children learning programming create an image of movement, get acquainted with the basics of technical engineering, and above all, learn that knowledge is not for itself, the scientific and mathematical knowledge cannot be separated from their passion for playing, the things that they have been doing happily since their early age." Papert and Harel described that still valid and complex approach to learning in 1990.

### 6.1 **The goals of 21<sup>st</sup>-century learning and creation**

Based on cognitive load theory and the constructivist learning theory and concerning the principle of genesis, the goals of 21<sup>st</sup>-century learning can be defined as follows:

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- pupils/students should be able to develop and adapt their knowledge in the process of problem-solving; that requires expertise and a high level of creativity
  - pupils/students should be able to create, to produce new and innovative products
  - pupils/students should be able to create products that integrate models and practical procedures generated in the process of theoretical and practical problem-solving
  - pupils/students should be able to have an adaptive attitude to new information through creating new products and new knowledge
  - pupils/students should be able to form the school and other scenes of learning into communities of knowledge construction, where they can prepare for the world of knowledge-based work, characterized by a shared creation of knowledge products, systematic knowledge development and the division of expertise (Lakkala and colleagues 2005).

School and university can become scenes preparing for knowledge-based work if, as an organization of knowledge construction, the pupils, students and the teachers can participate in problem-solving and research creating expert research-teams, through shared activities and creating collective knowledge. To that end, scientific research culture should be considered a model, and its structure, mechanisms and different methodologies should be closely studied (Hakkarainen and colleagues 2004).

In the 21<sup>st</sup>-century digital education environment, the role of creation rises in value because the creative use of digital devices can reform the learning process into a particular 21<sup>st</sup>-century knowledge in all learning situations (substitutive, reinforcing, reshaping) (Szóke-Milinte 2020). The more the use of digital devices can reform the traditional learning environment, the more complex digital pedagogical practice it can result in, in which the knowledge creation occurs. Knowledge construction requires creative and productive participation in community activities, for which the mere acceptance of community activities is not enough. However, it needs an innovative discovery-centred approach, in which new ideas, new devices and new activities can come into existence. In that process, not only the original knowledge can be enriched, but new knowledge can be born through the activities and devices (Hakkarainen and colleagues 2004).

Let us examine that in an example.

In the 8<sup>th</sup> form, during 20th-century history, pupils get the task of finding survivors of the 1956 Revolution and making video interviews with them. A particular requirement is that they collaborate with the 8th-form pupils of another settlement and share the collected information with each other. Finally, as separate classes, they must prepare their respective documentaries, in which the leading characters are the interviewees, and the reporters and those responsible for the technical tasks are the pupils of the 8<sup>th</sup> form. To perform the task, they must collaborate on digital platforms and with their classmates and the pupils of another school. The initiative of collaboration, preparing its framework, and performing cooperation require particular learning competencies. Additionally, they need to form a strategy for finding and convincing the interviewees to commit to the interviews. Furthermore, they must prepare and elaborate on the interview questions

that allow them to compare the events of 1956 from the perspective of the survivors. Documenting the interviews, the subsequent editing and finalizing also require special skills and professional collaboration. There is a chance that information not included in textbooks may surface during work, which means new knowledge emerged for the children. Internet culture based on sharing makes the pupils' work more presentable, which is important not only from the point of view of recognition but also significant as far as motivation for learning is concerned.

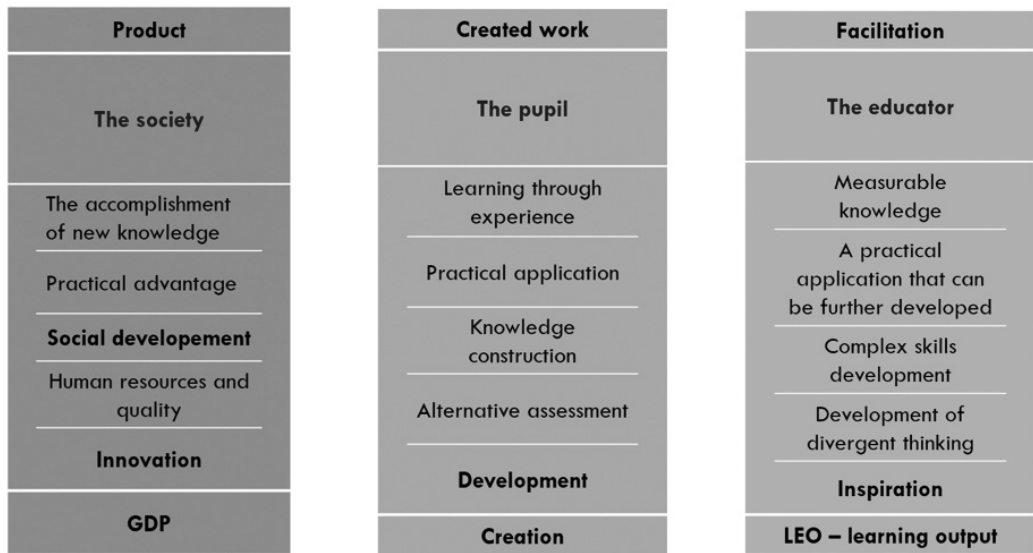


figure 10 Benefits of creative work (edited by the author)

Creative learning entails advantages for the pupil, the teacher and society (figure 10). Creative learning benefits society in terms of the birth of new knowledge, innovative solutions, qualitative development of human resources, and profits measurable in GDP. The educator will be able to plan and implement observable knowledge and learning results that can be evaluated alternatively; the educator's methodology-culture will be determined by the aspects of creating an inspiring learning environment, complex development of skills, the development of divergent thinking and practical applicability. Finally, the pupils will perform a creative activity, participate in an adventurous learning and knowledge construction, solve practical exercises and problems, and the result of all that is tangible for them while they constantly develop. Dron, J. and Anderson, T. (2014) emphasize the significance of an authentic environment and lifestyle from the perspective of 21<sup>st</sup>-century learning. They think learning is substantive and meaningful if it is valuable and motivating for the pupil, which in most cases can be achieved if learning is performed in an authentic environment and the pupil perceives learning as exciting and useful. The example presented above complies with that demand by encouraging the inclusion of actual figures in the learning process.

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## 7. The principle of activating and motivating

A central element of Bruner's learning approach is discovery: the pupil will discover phenomena during learning, including the experience of their own interiorized, culturally determined world. In discovery-based learning, the greatest reward and motivation for the pupil is the possibility of discovery itself and the confidence it ensures (Takaya, 2008). Discovery-based or research-based learning occurs in problem-solving situations, in which the pupil asks questions, articulates problems and discovers facts and the association and structure of knowledge to acquire, relying on their former experience and existing knowledge. "Wanting to learn is an internal motive, the source and reward of which is in its practice". Bruner (1974, 184) In Bruner's learning approach, motivation and activity as discovery are ontologically and organically linked.

From a learning organization point of view, Bruner considered necessary:

- (1) pupils' predispositions as preliminarily given motivating factors, on which the learning process can be built,
- (2) structuring the information and knowledge and the method of portioning information,
- (3) the sequence of contents to be acquired (he suggests a spiral arrangement, that is in increasing quantities, deepening in complexity and on an ever-higher level of abstraction),
- (4) and the method and timing of feedback and reinforcement.

In digital pedagogy, both motivation and discovery-based activation are of central importance in the learning organization. Ally M. (2004: 8-17) derives the necessities that ensure active and motivated learning from cognitivism and constructivism:

1. We must ensure that the pupil/student's perception should occur so that it is transferred in the easiest possible way into working memory (to that end, the use of graphics, colours, sounds, animation, videos, etc., are recommended to optimize perception). At the same time, he warns against overloading the pupil with too much information because that is counter-productive. finding the optimum quantity and quality of information is crucial.
2. Retrieval of information from long-term memory is to be supported; thus, the process of new information may be more effective (e.g. the teaching material activates the knowledge of pupils with preliminary questions).
3. Information should be broken down into small units to avoid the overload of the working memory. (During online learning, a pupil can process five to nine new elements at the same time, if they need to work with more than that, it is worth offering teaching material in the form of information mapping (e.g. models, figures, etc.)
4. Strategies that facilitate deeper processing help easy information transfer (into long-term memory). (During content-processing, the operations of the pupils, like analysis, synthesis, evaluation or putting something into context, and application will facilitate deeper processing and longer-lasting learning.)
5. It must be ensured that education should comply with different individual learning styles – in all respects. (Those pupils who like specific experience will prefer team-

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work, reflective students will prefer observation and global inquiring, the active and experimenting pupils will prefer practical projects and learning in teams, and finally, the pupils in favor of abstract style will prefer symbolic learning methods.)

6. Besides learning activities, appropriate support is to be provided for pupils with different learning styles (e.g. some of them might need the more intensive presence of the teacher, others are, on the contrary, require more self-reliance. Moreover, in different digital learning situations, the educator should ensure continuously accessible online and real teacher support as required).
7. Information is to be made accessible so that it supports processing and transfer to long-term memory.
8. Pupils need to be motivated for learning (e.g. exciting and maintaining attention; the relevance and usability of the teaching material; ensuring the feeling of competence through providing a sense of achievement to the pupil and giving feedback on performance, etc.).
9. The pupils need to be encouraged to use their meta-cognitive abilities because that facilitates the learning process (e.g. the pupils should have the opportunity to reflect on what they learn, collaborate with others, share their experience and discoveries, and give feedback to each other).
10. The applied learning strategies should also facilitate making information applicable in different lifelike situations.

Problem-solving during digital learning can be organized using the opportunities provided by the digital space and, within that, the different platforms and including them in the cognitive process. The digital space broadens the traditional problem-solving process; therefore, it allows for knowledge construction in real and virtual community activities. During knowledge construction, new ideas, new devices and new activities can be created, the original knowledge can grow richer or transform. (Hakkarainen 2003).

According to the socio-cultural approach to motivation, social interactions have outstanding significance in developing learning motives. Its representatives emphasise that motivation, similarly to learning, is primarily the result of a social process (Miyake, Kirschner 2006; Walker, Pressick-Kilborn, Arnold, Sainsbury 2004). During digital learning, the real or virtual cooperation with partners rises in value, not only because there is a need to clarify the tasks and make up for missing information, but because it excites and maintains motivation.

## *8. The principle of networking*

J. Bruner suggests that pupils should help each other learn during problem-solving according to their abilities. Cooperation and the formulation of social- and knowledge networks are the optimum environments for problem-solving. The knowledge generated in those social and knowledge networks is contextualized and becomes relevant and solid from the relevant network's perspective. The possessed knowledge may rise in value in the network during sharing, repeated recalling, use and application (Dron and Anderson, 2014).

Nonaka and Konno, co-authors, dealing with knowledge management, grasp the essence of the learning environment in the complexity of learning processes (figure 11). The most important thing for them is to create a learning environment in which, besides explicit knowledge, tacit knowledge can surface and get integrated into the cognitive process. As they see it, it can only occur if cognition is organized as a process of spiral-like, ascending cycles, where socialization, externalization, combination, and internalization processes are simultaneously ensured (Nonaka – Konno 1998). Projected to a school environment, learning assumes a form of communal activity, where individuals with the most varied socialisation backgrounds interact and share their personal and tacit knowledge. While each team member can share their tacit knowledge, they must perform a complex formalization and structurization activity to convert their tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge, thus externalizing it. As more and more authors in literature draw our attention to it, shared and formalized knowledge means durable knowledge. It is the interest of participants in cognition to acquire experience and knowledge in interaction, which the others possess and externalize. The combination of mutually shared knowledge results in new knowledge, which has innovation potential. The broader framework we ensure for combination, the more interesting new knowledge can be created. The new knowledge is internalized and adapted to their needs by the participating so-called knowledge communities.

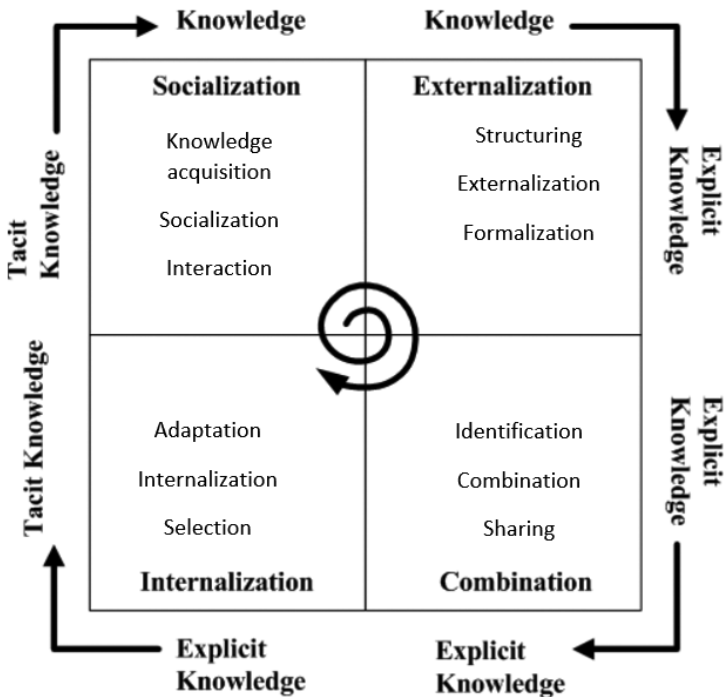


figure 11 – Learning processes in organizations adapted from Nonaka and Konno



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The co-authors examined cognitive processes primarily in organizations putting into centre stage learning and development. They state that people not only adapt to ongoing knowledge processes, but they also shape them, therefore countless knowledge spirals partly overlapping with each other can be identified within an organization. Knowledge management aims to increase the number of knowledge-spirals and accelerate the spirals' ascending (Orna 2004). In the 21<sup>st</sup> century, schools can be considered a knowledge-creating organization where the pupils and the educators are collectively interested in generating new collective knowledge from the former tacit and explicit knowledge, therefore the knowledge spiral theory described by Nonaka and Konno can be well adapted to the learning environment in schools. Nonaka and Konno describe the scene of cognition with the notion "Ba" (Japanese for place), which is a physical, virtual and mental space that is the combination of all those providing possibilities for the creation, arrangement, putting into practice, communication and sharing of knowledge (Nonaka – Konno 1998).

So-called practice communities or knowledge communities can come into existence in those scenes in which the real possibility for innovation is created. According to János Tomka, the most successful practice or knowledge-creating communities can be formal organizations. However, informal groups are even more frequent within the formal organizations, which does not mean that they are invisible for the organization, but rather that they are comprised of people in informal relations with each other connected by their commitment to expertise and common activities (Tomka 2009).

Interpreted in a school environment, knowledge communities are groups of pupils and educators forming around a practical problem, which does not necessarily mean that it involves the pupils and educators of one school but crossing the boundaries of the organization and also larger geographical areas it may mean involving the pupils and teachers at schools in another country. (The Internet-based community organizing platforms like Edubase or Edmodo are destined to support that kind of activity.) Knowledge communities are connected by common activities, the commitment to problem-solving, and the existence of competencies necessary for problem-solving; knowledge and experience flow freely and creatively, resulting in a new approach and attitude in problem-solving (Tomka 2009). The legitimization and identity of practice or knowledge-creating communities at schools are provided by current practical problems and fundamental problems of human communities in a narrower or broader sense, such as halting the climate change, waste management, transport planning, urban development, healthcare and disease prevention, etc. The problems, by nature, require a wide range of competencies, so the participants, the teachers of different subjects and different-minded pupils of different age groups, could be interested in solving the problem. The basic conditions for the operation of the knowledge community are mutual respect and trust; only in such a community is it possible to make socialization, externalization, combination, and internalization serve the purposes of problem-solving and knowledge creation. If the knowledge communities can answer the emerging questions with a specific and practice-oriented solution, it can further reinforce and legitimate the knowledge community.

Digital pedagogy is the scene of networking and the creation of practice and knowledge communities, where anybody can be part of a community, share their experience

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and tacit knowledge, process the experience and knowledge of others, and participate in making knowledge explicit. In that scene where knowledge is produced and created, information will be the unit which cognition and cognitive construction are about.

Though by no means exhaustive, the primary digital pedagogic principles presented may contribute to the success of instruction organization during digital education. Putting the basic principles into practice is a tremendous challenge for 21<sup>st</sup>-century educators and can be mostly implemented in teamwork. The team needs to involve not only educators but also members with IT and teaching material development experience.

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# **Drama-Based Pedagogy in Hungarian Public Education and in Institutions of Higher Education**

## **by Júlia Eck – Katalin Ágnes Schmidt**

### *1. The Usefulness of Drama-Based Pedagogy in Education*

The impact of drama on the learning process has been in the focus of attention for a considerable time now. If we look at international literature on the topic, it can be seen that in the past 25-30 years research and analysis in numerous countries has proven that the integration of the arts in teaching students of different ages has remarkably positive results. “One promising arts integration method is drama-based pedagogy” (Lee & Patall & Cawthon & Steingut, 2014). Research has been carried out (among others) in Texas (USA) (Cawthon & Dawson, 2009; Dawson & Lee, 2018), Turkey (Ormanci & Ören, 2010; Akin, 2014), Japan (Donnery, 2009) and Hong Kong (Shu, 2011). These researchers examined the effect of drama on education and essentially reached the same favourable conclusion concerning the benefits of drama in the learning process. As a meta-analysis from the year 2014 conducted in the United States points out, drama-based pedagogy (DBP) “has a positive, significant impact on achievement outcomes in educational settings, it is expected that DBP will better support students’ engagement in tasks, persistence toward goals, and academic interest compared to the traditional classroom” (Lee et al., 2014).

There are a number of advantages to integrating drama in public education. Research has shown that students working within an “as-if” dramatic world achieved greater cognitive gains than students in a traditional classroom environment (Winston, 2013). According to Dawson and Lee (2018), drama is unique in the sense that “texts are resurrected as they come to life in voices and moving bodies” (p. 5). Therefore “it makes an effective learning environment, improves students’ engagement, increases student collaboration and participation and supports the development of a critical way of thinking and creativity in every student” (p. 5). It is additionally pointed out in the text, as will also be argued extensively in this current paper, that drama techniques are not only of use for certified drama teachers who work in the field of drama and theatre education, but are equally beneficial for teachers not directly involved in the field but who are in need of a variety of techniques to optimise the learning outcomes of their respective subjects. A similar idea is expressed in the previously mentioned meta-analysis from 2014. After much deliberation over the gathered data, the text comes to the conclusion that existing evidence may not be enough to hail drama-based pedagogy as the answer to all educational challenges, but it can certainly be seen as a significant addition to already taught methodologies (Lee, et al., p. 41). This statement clearly places drama-based pedagogy among the necessary tools not only of certified specialist of the field of drama education but also among that of all educators, regardless of subject.

This paper, through assessing the development and current status of drama-based pedagogy in Hungary, will argue for the absolute necessity of options for both paths: a high

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quality education for specialised drama teachers as well as available opportunities within general teacher training for learners to get acquainted with the ideas and methods of drama-based pedagogy.

## *2. The Expression Drama-Based Pedagogy*

Before moving further along this line, there is one phrase in international literature on drama that we have to take a moment to examine: drama-based pedagogy. While in content it encompasses ideas present in Hungary, the term itself has not made it into Hungarian terminology.

Extensively described by Dawson and Lee, “Drama-Based Pedagogy uses active and dramatic approaches to engage children in academic, affective and aesthetic learning through dialogic meaning-making in all areas of the curriculum” (Dawson & Lee, 2018). It “offers teachers a dynamic way to help every student become more engaged in learning” and operates on the basic tenet of “no child left behind” (Lee et al, 2014). Often emphasized is the key difference between DBP and theatre, since “drama is process-oriented, and theatre is production-oriented. Drama-based Pedagogy privileges the process over the product. This is not to suggest that there is a fixed dichotomy between theatre and drama” (Dawson & Lee, 2018). In other words, the main difference is not in tools but rather in the primary focus of the work done, in which DBP highlights the processes that facilitate the learning process independent of the artistic merit of possible products. The main objective and benefit of “integrating the arts into other subject areas is that the arts enable learners to express their opinion, make meaning and reflect in a variety of ways. Using drama techniques help in better facilitating the creativity, communication, critical thinking and collaboration that are a part of the process of doing DBP” (Dawson & Lee, 2018).

The aims, objectives and methods described by the term drama-based pedagogy denote a collection of drama-based teaching and learning strategies to engage students in the learning process. The website Drama-Based Education (2021) by Katie Dawson and Dr. Stephanie Cawthon notes that these strategies are defined by The American Alliance for Theatre and Education (AATE) as “an improvisational, non-exhibitional, process-centered form of drama in which participants are guided by a leader to imagine, enact, and reflect upon human experiences”. It is also pointed out that drama-based pedagogy is a concept known under a wide range of other terms, which “include: creative drama, informal drama, creative play acting, improvisational drama, educational drama, role drama, and process drama”. In their 2018 paper Dawson and Lee list the following examples of alternative names for drama and theatre works in educational contexts: “drama in education, theatre in education, applied drama, applied theatre, educational drama, dramatic inquiry, role-play, creative drama, improvisation and Theatre of the oppressed Techniques.”

The important conclusion to be drawn from this is that the wide range of different strains of drama and theatre tools in the education process may easily lead to confusion as to the proper denotation of certain practices, particularly across countries and



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languages. The term drama-based pedagogy seems to aim to encompass as many of the different approaches as possible, offering a collective term for a variety of different methods that all share a number of the same root ideas. A variety of texts simply use the term drama pedagogy for this general purpose, which in terms of translation is a more literal equivalent of the Hungarian term *drámapedagógia*. However, both English terms seem to denote the same ideas, approaches, emphases and methods as the Hungarian term does. Whether one ought to be favoured over the other or, ultimately, whether they can be used interchangeably doesn't seem to have been addressed so far. From a Hungarian point of view both are adequate to express the very heterogeneous field that the Hungarian term denotes.

### 3. *Drama in Hungarian Education*

Within this diverse and multifaceted field there has been lively debate over terminology and self-identification. Certain representatives would not even term all aspects of it as belonging to their definition of drama (L. Kaposi, 2008), while others follow a broader, more open definition of what may be termed as such. While most internationally known fields of drama exist in the Hungarian structure – e.g. theatre in education (Kerekasztal TIE Group), applied drama (when the tools of drama are applied to other subjects), applied theatre (e.g. Káva Group), educational drama (e.g. lesson plans published in DPM), improvisation (e.g. Momentán Group) – the different working groups have little connection with each other and the exchange between them is limited. This is particularly sadening, since if we were to follow international example, our joined forces could result in more significant assertion of interests in public education (J. Kaposi, 2017). This is a particularly important aspect, since despite its continued inclusion in the National Core Curriculum (arguably the most important document of public education in Hungary) ever since 1995, the role of drama as a subject, or as methodology, has not strengthened significantly in the past 25 years.

#### 3.1. **History of Drama-Based Pedagogy in Hungary**

It was from the end of the 1960s that innovative attempts significant for the later development of drama-based pedagogy in Hungary began to gain ground. In 1969 a so-called “experimental school” was founded in the city of Szentlőrinc, led by László Gáspár. Their major innovation was changing the educational timeframe and creating complex new subjects. For instance, the subject of Artistic Education included elements of literature, music, film, theatre and movement (Gáspár, 1984). It is also important to mention József Zsolnai, who developed a complex pedagogical programme block in 1971, which from 1984 onwards became an alternative curriculum. From the very beginning, he used among his methods dramatization, theatre and role-play (Zsolnai, 1995, Torgyik, 2004).

What we today call drama-based pedagogy, first set foot in Hungary in the 1970s. Interestingly, educational methodology was not the primary concern of the Hungarian ed-

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ucators that first imported these ideas mainly from England (Éva Mezei) and what was then Czechoslovakia (Tibor Debreczeni). The first significant event took place in 1974, in the city of Pécs. A school acting competition was initiated by Tibor Debreczeni. Even though most director-teachers taking part were primary and secondary school teachers, since the new approaches were first linked to acting, most of them automatically assumed the new tools were primarily to be used in free time activities (Gabnai, 2001). Thus, the participants were astonished by several basic tenets of the methodology, for example the crucial idea that “performance is only one possible outcome” of the work (Gabnai, 2005, p. 111).

Invaluable assistance to further general acceptance of drama and its inclusion among the subjects of the secondary school leaving examination came from secondary schools offering drama specialisations. It was in 1977 that based on the innovative idea and assistance of Zoltán Várkonyi (a famous actor and director, and between 1974 and 1979 the rector of the Academy of Drama and Film in Budapest) that the first specialised secondary schools were created. The original intention behind this step was the introduction of students to the tools of acting at a significantly younger age, however, this aim became less relevant over time and today the work done in these institutions is significantly more layered. Using the methods of drama-based pedagogy their intentions are twofold: to give specialised/field specific knowledge and to enhance skills like creativity, communication skills, and the skills of speech, movement and music – in other words to provide the chance to learn a variety of everyday and artistic forms of self-expression (Keresztúri, 2016). This can be achieved by a practice-based education, which aims to enhance the aesthetic perception of students, develop creative imagination, and draw attention to societal-historical aspects of the development of the arts, in particular performing arts since it combines the tools of all branches of art. In addition, a variety of subjects aim to develop general skills by using the tools and forms of drama and theatre (Keresztúri, 2016).

Another significant step forward was the birth of theatre and puppet-theatre specialisations of Elementary Arts Educational Institutions. The need for the inclusion of these expressed by students and parents, met the educational reform processes of the time and together they made change happen. Important role models for these new types of specialisations were the music schools that had been created before as part of the work of the famous Hungarian composer Zoltán Kodály. This new form of education in Elementary Arts Educational Institutions is optional, fee-paying, and from a very early age students are involved in drama-based skill development for ten years. Normally these institutions are connected to general elementary schools or music schools, or occasionally just share spaces with elementary or secondary schools (Keresztúri, 2016).

### **3.2. Drama in the National Core Curriculum**

The next station in the advancement of the field was its inclusion in the National Core Curriculum (NCC). This crucial document of Hungarian education first appeared in

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1995 and it already included drama as an individual subject by the name of Dance and Drama. The subject (the content of which was developed by Katalin Gabnai) was part of the Arts cultural area, along with Music and Visual Culture and Media Literacy subjects, just like in later editions. The general development areas (from 1<sup>st</sup> to 6<sup>th</sup> grade, and 7<sup>th</sup> to 10<sup>th</sup> grade) were Expression (in movement and speech), Improvisation, Analysis, Traditions.

In the second edition of the NCC, in 2001, Dance and Drama was allocated one lesson per week in 9<sup>th</sup> grade. The subject was to be taught either as an individual subject or integrated into other subjects but the material indicated was obligatory for all schools.

In December of 2003 key competences were introduced to the NCC. Drama was referenced in several places of this document, for instance, the key competency called aesthetic-artistic consciousness and expression (NCC, 2003, p.12), the cultural areas Literature of the Mother Tongue, the Earth and Our Environment, or Music (NCC, 2003, pp. 26-58, 79, 95). In this edition the name of the cultural area was changed to Drama and Dance and, based on the work of László Kaposi, fundamentally reworked the curriculum of 1995. There were no significant changes made to this in the 2007 edition.

A new version of the NCC was conceived in 2011. A key element of this version was the explicitly emphasized aim of the active participation of students in the learning process (NCC, 2011, p. 37), and the need for general artistic education. In the case of drama, there was once again a change in its place within the curriculum. Throughout the 12 grades of education, drama could appear twice in the curriculum, in the form of one lesson per week, as an elective subject. In 5<sup>th</sup> grade the other alternative was Local and Folk History, and in 9<sup>th</sup> grade Visual Culture and Media Literacy. In addition, however, a new obligatory subject was determined for the 11<sup>th</sup> and 12<sup>th</sup> grade. In line with the general aim of artistic education, a new obligatory Arts subject appeared. In its objectives it said “For the success of artistic education it is indispensable to visit cultural institutions (cinemas, theatres, puppet theatres, classical concerts, museums and exhibitions (NCC, 2011, p. 88).

The latest edition to date, the NCC 2020, originally surfaced as NCC 2018, developed by the Education 2030 Research Group. For the first time since the existence of this document, drama would not have been represented as an individual subject. However, after professional and societal reactions, during the reworking process the subject was once again added to the curriculum. This time under a new name, called Drama and Theatre, since representatives of the field of dance saw more options for self-representation within the realm of physical education. This also meant that for the first time theatre explicitly appeared as the name of a subject within public education. In this latest edition, the subject continues to be part of the cultural area of Arts, and is allocated one obligatory class per week in one of the upper grades. In addition, it can be chosen as part of the obligatory Art subject (once per week) in 11<sup>th</sup> grade and as an obligatory elective subject (once per week) in 12<sup>th</sup> grade.

These changes show a number of positive and worrying tendencies at the same time. Without doubt the main positive change is that all these documents in some shape or

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form make note of drama, however, the number of lessons devoted to this area is very low in all editions. It is crucial to note, though, that the development aims and suggested tasks of the subject can be linked to all other subjects, especially when learning content is processed in epochal or project-based ways, where in the processing of content from different subjects drama can excellently serve interdisciplinary objectives (Eck, Golden, L. Kaposi, 2020).

### **3.3. Drama in Public Education and the Qualifications of Drama Teachers**

The constant inclusion of drama as an independent subject from 1995 till today within the National Core Curriculum (albeit as a result of ceaseless struggles), might suggest a strong place for drama in public education. But taking a closer look at daily practice the current state of affairs is far from satisfying. Based on a study conducted in 2015 (Szabó, 2016) out of all 2,325 elementary level education institutions only 687 employ any teachers in possession of a drama qualification, that is, just 29,54% of the institutions. In the 687 elementary schools, altogether 992 trained drama teachers are employed, which is only 1,31% of the 75,697 educators in elementary schools. Moreover, this does not imply that all 992 drama teachers have the opportunity to teach drama as an individual subject, merely that they have the degree to do so. The situation is even more worrying when we look at secondary schools. Out of 654 such institutions only 161 indicated that they employ a trained drama teacher, that is only 24,61% of schools. The number of secondary school drama teachers is merely 203, which is only 1,13% of the altogether 17,881 teachers. Considering that drama is treated as an obligatory requirement by the NCC, this is a rather low number.

Another important aspect is where these currently active drama teachers acquired their degree. This is particularly important, as it may indicate not just what options exist in Hungary to acquire a degree in drama, but also indicates what options in-service teachers or prospective teachers are aware of. This has been examined by several papers (Szabó, 2016), (Körömi, 2015). These texts represent decidedly different aspects and accuracy or even relevance, however, they reached a similar conclusion concerning the question of degrees: most drama teachers acquire their certification in post-graduate specialisations.

Szabó's research stated that, in addition to these specialisations, a number of drama teachers were enrolled in programmes that were not able to give full degrees due to their nature or lengths. The other research by Gábor Körömi had a more useful approach and looked at what types of degrees those educators held that had enrolled in the specialisation programmes. The conclusion was that most of them came from the varying fields of the humanities.

A number of crucial conclusions can be drawn from all this in terms of the state of drama teacher training as of 2015. First of all, not all institutions required to integrate drama-based pedagogy in their curriculum employ certified drama teachers trained in the field. Secondly, a number of teachers familiar with drama-based pedagogy may not have received any kind of certification due to the nature of the programme where they

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encountered certain techniques. And thirdly, even certified drama teachers evidently acquired their knowledge in a number of ways (workshops, festivals, professional exchange among colleagues, or the mentioned specialisation programmes) *outside* of pre-service teacher training. In other words, a large variety of options for getting acquainted with drama-based pedagogy existed, but none of those programmes were integrated into the full training process of future drama teachers. Nor was the methodology of drama-based pedagogy considered an integral part of general teacher training for prospective teachers of all subjects.

## *4. Possibilities of Learning Drama in Hungary*

### **4.1. Drama in Higher Education**

In order to provide public education and Elementary Arts Educational Institutions with trained drama teachers, appropriate, good quality teacher training is indispensable. A crucial step forward was when in 2012 the first MA course in drama teacher education was launched at the University of Pannonia in Veszprém. At the time it was unique in the entire country. A year later (concurrent with the restructuring of the education system that returned to a pre-BA/MA undivided system) emerged an undivided long programme for teachers of drama, admitting students in possession of a secondary school leaving degree (Eck, 2017b).

This programme was revolutionary at the time since it allowed students to embark on a 5-year teacher training programme based on the combination of two majors: drama on the one hand and one of five other subjects available at the university at the time (Hungarian Language and Literature, English Language and Culture, German Language and Culture, Chemistry and Information Technology). Thus, the programme was built on three equally represented areas of education: alongside a full drama teacher education, students received a full education of their other chosen major, as well as of the pedagogy and psychology material. At the end of the programme a degree equivalent to a Master's degree was awarded in both chosen majors as well as a teaching degree for both fields, which would be accepted equally in primary and secondary schools, as well as in Elementary Arts Educational Institutions.

An interesting aspect of this programme was its initial integration into the structure of the university. As previously pointed out, until then the focus of drama education lay mainly on postgraduate specialist training courses; there had been no precedence of a drama teacher programme fully integrated into university structure and formed in accordance with other majors. Unsurprisingly, it was the Department of Theatre Studies that provided a docking point for the new programme. The excellent educators of the department aided the development of the programme's curriculum, primarily in the fields of history of theatre and drama, or theatre and drama theory. Certain key courses (like various Drama and Theatre History courses, Contemporary Drama and Theatre, Performance Analysis, Creative Writing, Theatre Management and others), featured both

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in the Theatre Studies programme and the newly introduced Creative Drama and Theatre programme, thus allowing students from both approaches to sit in courses together and form connections across programmes. In addition to these more theoretical courses, roughly two-thirds of the curriculum included practice-centred courses, where students acquired both theoretical and practical knowledge through active, participation-based learning. This way the methodology to be acquired was both witnessed and actively experienced by the students of the programme. This approach required highly skilled and experienced instructors from a variety of fields, which necessitated the involvement of several educators and other professionals from outside the existing university structure and teaching body. Significant emphasis was placed on skill development exercises and communication skills, on the introduction to dramatic forms and different aspects of creative drama, on aspects of drama and theatre in education, just to name a few. A crucial aim of the programme was to introduce students to a variety of different approaches to drama-based pedagogy by educators active in those fields and thus to allow students to get to know the highly heterogeneous nature of dramatic work and to form connections with notable professionals of a variety of fields (Eck, 2017b).

This philosophy in many ways clashed with existing university structure. In addition, while the programme's integration into the Department of Theatre Studies provided great opportunity for cooperation, it has to be pointed out that in terms of self-identification (even in the eyes of university administration) it may have had a few drawbacks, as many onlookers seemed to struggle with the differing objectives and methods of the two programmes and failed to see the specific philosophies of the Creative Drama and Theatre Programme. In the long run this may have aggravated certain issues and differing viewpoints that eventually culminated in a fundamental reorganisation of the programme at the end of 2018, along the lines of drastically different viewpoints, with changing structures and mainly employing non-specialised educators working in different fields at the university rather than specialists in the different areas of drama as was the case before.

Around this time, in 2018, the University of Szeged launched a programme offering the same degree but with somewhat different emphases than the original programme at the University of Pannonia. In Szeged the programme is part of the Comparative Literature Department and in its self-definition seems to focus somewhat more on drama and theatre history and theory, rather than practical teaching skills. Possible majors with which drama can be paired in the undivided long programme are: Teacher of English Language and Culture, Teacher of Media, Visual Arts and Communication, Teacher of Hungarian Language and Literature, Teacher of German Language and Culture, Teacher of History and Civic Studies. Most educators are from various fields of the humanities and theatre history, while the programme also offers collaboration with the Szeged National Theatre and other theatre/performance groups. Thus, based on the description on the university's website and the available curriculum, the emphasis seems to be on the theatre and performativity element in this programme.

It was in 2019 that the concept for a new programme was developed at the Vitéz János Teacher Training Centre of the Pázmány Péter Catholic University. This newly conceived

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drama programme, both in its objective and structure is very similar to the original programme in Veszprém launched in 2013. Many of the educators that once taught there, came to be employed in this new programme. Full and part-time teachers are among the educators of the programme, but invited guest teachers too, since the programme is conceived in a way that necessitates specialists of different sub-fields to add their differing viewpoints to the programme. In addition, in the first four semesters, workshops are offered too, which allow an additional ground for meeting with specialists of different aspects of theatre life, or excellent drama teachers with unique approaches to the field.

The programme was launched in 2020. Just like the original programme, this is based on two majors for students in possession of a secondary school leaving degree. Pairs can be: Teacher of Hungarian Language and Literature, Teacher of English Languages and Cultures, Teacher of History, Teacher of Media, Visual Arts and Communication, as well as Teacher of Religion. Here too, the bases of education are the two chosen majors and the pedagogy-psychology education. All three areas are equally represented with 100 credits each. A new element is that the practical entry exam can be substituted by a successful secondary school leaving exam in the subject of drama (either at base or advanced level). (In addition, a single-major night school programme version of this has been developed for students already in possession of a secondary or primary school teaching degree.)

The programme is as thematically multifaceted as the original programme in Veszprém was. History of Drama and Theatre and Theory of drama and theatre are taught mainly in the first half of the programme, treating the specifics of Hungarian and World History separately (Origins of Drama and Theatre Until the 17<sup>th</sup> Century, Plays and Theatrical Innovations in Europe in the 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> Centuries, 20<sup>th</sup> Century Modern Drama and Theatre Across the Globe, Hungarian Drama and Theatre in the 19<sup>th</sup> century, Hungarian Drama in the First Half of the 20<sup>th</sup> Century). In addition, representing the identity of the university, special emphasis is placed on courses dealing with folk culture, liturgical tradition, and the introduction to the special significance of school drama in Hungarian theatre history (Special Days: Celebration, Commemoration, Tradition; Mystery Plays, School Drama, Narrative Poetry and Folk Songs).

Our programme places key significance on teaching theoretical knowledge in practical ways requiring active participation from students. This allows educators to teach through active involvement and showcase how drama-based pedagogy works in practice. Some examples of courses marrying theory with dramatic practice are: Introduction to the Theory of Drama and Theatre; Introduction to Drama and Theatre Pedagogy; Introduction to Aesthetics: Analysis of Works; Analysis of Works with Dramatic Techniques; Contemporary Drama and Theatre, Performance Analysis; Analysis of Plays, Dramaturgy Through Dramatic Play.

Equally important are those courses that deal specifically with the key material of drama pedagogy, once again placing emphasis on practice. Some courses focus of general aspects of drama pedagogy (Introductory Training for Dramatic Play I-II; Drama Pedagogy, Types of Dramatic Play I-II; Drama in Education), others introduce specialised fields (Creative Music Training; Movement and Dance Training; Exercises in Organisa-

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tion, Dramatization and Directing; Theatre Pedagogy, the Form and Schools of Theatre in Education; Puppet Theatre Training; Audio Narration – Drama Pedagogy Programme of Visually Impaired Children).

Moreover, this programme once again places special emphasis on general skill development (Speech Techniques; Recital of Poetry and Prose in Practice; Dance and Folk Dance Training), as well as the improvement of acting skills (Improvisation Training; Training for Productions). The importance of theatre in this programme is shown by the fact that in addition to obligatory teaching practices for both majors, it is also required to spend a semester at a theatre gaining practical experience in some form being involved in the practicalities of the life of such an institution.

### *5. Possible Goals for the Future*

Regrettably, it has to be said that despite the decades-long attempts of drama professionals, drama methodology has not been integrated into the curriculum of general teacher training – neither as a teaching method, nor as an extension of future educators' tools. Most teacher training institutions only offer a meeting point with certain elements of drama in elective courses or special programmes. Ultimately it can be said that drama-based pedagogy is still something future educators have to seek out for themselves (either committing to specialised drama-teacher education, or learning it merely as an additional training, likely only in postgraduate form), in addition the number of trained professionals in higher education remains limited. All this proves that despite best efforts drama-based pedagogy is not a method treated as essential (or even recommended) for every future educator's array of tools.

This is particularly saddening, considering the ever growing number of international and Hungarian research concerning the countless benefits of the integration of drama-based pedagogy. The previously mentioned 2015 research about drama methodology in public education also points out that those educators who had been trained in drama-based pedagogy use the methods in their respective fields with more confidence and success (Körömi, 2015). This conclusion was also supported by views expressed by students enrolled in drama teacher training in the University of Pannonia up until 2017 (Eck, 2017a). Crucial achievement has been the subject's representation in the National Core Curriculum, even if the number of obligatory classes has been limited. Moreover, despite difficulties, drama teacher training based on a two-major, undivided system has been existent for almost a decade in some shape or form and as of 2021 (admittedly with vastly differing objectives and emphases) can be learned in three different higher education institutions of the country.

The next step (concurrent with gaining more ground in the previously detailed aspects) must be a move towards the general acceptance of the importance and beneficial quality of drama-based pedagogy in education and its inclusion in the training process of teachers of all subjects. In order to prove the necessity of this step, it is useful to examine what happens to university students of drama once they enter the teaching profession as



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well as how the teaching practice of in-service teachers changes once they have graduated a postgraduate specialisation course. One possible way of looking at the impact of drama-based pedagogy is to analyse the thesis papers written at the end of these courses. A 2016 research paper on thesis papers (Eck 2017a) tried to appraise what percentage of educators graduating in previous years in the available drama teacher programmes chose topics directly usable in public education for their papers and what subjects these were connected to. The research cannot be seen as representative due to the relatively small number of papers and the fact that it does not include data from the whole country; however, it still gives some interesting insight into the variety of ways in which students integrate drama into their teaching personas and their general ideas about teaching as a profession. Thematic choices indicate in what ways students (among them numerous in-service teachers with significant experience) feel justification and need for the tools of drama and the use of a dramatic viewpoint. It can also be seen what subjects lend themselves most readily to these approaches according to them, and where the dramatic method may be the most successful.

Out of all the thesis papers considered, a significant number (38%) were about drama in the framework of a variety of other subjects, which supports the validity of the claim that drama-based pedagogy ought to be introduced in general teacher training. As expected, the most papers were connected to Hungarian literature (39% of subject specific papers, 15% of all papers). Less than half of this, but still a significant number (16% of subject specific papers) were thesis papers in the field of foreign languages. Not surprisingly, English and German were the two most prominently represented languages (as these are the most common taught in Hungarian public schools as first languages), but Italian and French were among the papers too. Some of these were written in the target languages. We can also encounter papers in the category of Physical Education (12%), Hungarian Language (6%), and Music Education (6%). Only a little lower, 5% was the number of papers in Ethics, a new subject introduced by the National Core Curriculum in 2012. However, there seemed to be a surprising lack of papers about the subject of History (4.5%), which is particularly unexpected considering its significant role in education. It has to be pointed out, though, that there was an added 3% of papers dealing with Civic Studies, which could raise that number. In both Drawing and Visual Culture (4%) and Media Literacy (3%) the considerations were mainly connected to the practical aspects of the subject curriculum. It is particularly positive that there was at least one Biology paper representing the natural sciences, its focus was on zoopedagogy.

Though it wasn't the objective of the research, it can be clearly seen that these papers treat a variety of subjects and span all 12 years of public education. What is also important is that the papers are prepared to deal with students of varying experience both in subject specific content and dramatic forms. Thus, they use a wide variety of work structures, starting from simple games, through in-role tasks, to improvisation or even performance work. Some implement theatre in education, others use the tools of three-tier performance analysis. One particularly interesting factor of all the observed papers is that they all took the current educational framework as a starting point, in other words,

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that they were thinking in existing subject structures, classroom spaces, and 45 minute lessons. This is particularly important, considering that one of the most commonplace doubts raised in connection with drama-based pedagogy is that it can't possibly work in the confines of the education system as it is more time consuming with particular space or equipment requirements. All these papers prove, that drama-based pedagogy can be implemented in the existing educational frameworks and that "there is practically no subject the material of which could not be made more colourful by dramatic play" (Gabnai, 2005, p. 112).

And finally, one additional factor has to be examined in light of the past two years. Commonly, drama-based pedagogy tends to be defined primarily in terms of social interaction and the key role of interactivity, often in physical ways. All this presupposes that at least two participants, but usually the whole group, are in the same physical space.

However, the difficult situations caused by the Covid-19 pandemic have in fact proven that the methodology of dramatic play can work in a digital environment, and most games either in unchanged or adapted forms can fulfil their pedagogic aims on online platforms as well. In fact, these drama games have taken on a crucial role in periods when students otherwise only used to communal education were inevitably forced to take part in the learning process alone or only in their family's company. Surpassing the already complex methodological aims of drama games, in many cases they served purposes that transcended the boundaries of education: they had to provide playfulness, joy, and a communal experience on online platforms, just as they would have in traditional, in-person educational environments.

To ensure the continued presence and success of dramatic play even in distance learning, specialists of the field have devised a multitude of exercises. The Hungarian Drama and Theatre in Education Association, which is a national organisation of Hungarian drama teachers, posted some of these new initiatives on their website too (The Hungarian Drama and Theatre in Education Association, 2020). The goal was to aid as many of their colleagues as possible. Teachers around the world faced a number of similar difficulties and attempts to engage students in new ways during distance learning seems to have been a central focus for most. A paper from Greece points out that previous research on online education generally prioritised aspects of effectiveness and continues to add: "only now amid COVID-19 do we have the opportunity to explore students' emotional engagement in a fully distance learning context" (Kosma, 2021, p. 2). The focus of the paper is specific (the effects of the mantle of the expert paradigm in EFL distance learning) rather than general, but the author concludes that the experimentation with dramatic play was successful and through it students were "involved in learning activities that are productive, engaging and enjoyable". In addition, the methods used promoted "active self-regulated learning", and required "from students to take responsibility for their learning" (Kosma, 2021, p. 13). Similarly, in a paper from the United States recounting the experiences of a group of educators during the pandemic, drama-based pedagogy and its possibilities are mentioned. The main focus here are the ways in which educators can support each other during hard times, but one of the conclusions states a crucial idea: "Our commitment to

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support each other is matched by our commitment to become better teachers. The pandemic gave us a unique opportunity to leave our comfort zones, reimagine ourselves as educators, and grow professionally, whether we liked it or not” (Jettplace et al., 2021, p. 131).

It seems that the unavoidable increase in the importance of distance learning has resulted in many teachers opening up to new methods to reach their goals. Beyond this unexpected chance to extend the methodology of several school subjects, drama-based activities involving project work, and pair or group activities, had an increasingly crucial character building and social aspect. Moreover, many colleagues have reported an extraordinarily valuable result of these efforts: during online classes involving drama games, many family members joined the students, mostly as spectators, but often even as players, and occasionally whole families took part in these games together.

Naturally, we hope that in-person education can remain the main platform of drama-based pedagogies, yet the experiences of these past years are invaluable. They not only provide important proof that this methodology works in an online setting as well, but also demonstrate the significant personal and social benefits of dramatic play.

## *6. Conclusion*

In conclusion, it would be important to integrate the tools of drama-based pedagogy as an educational method and methodological requirement into the process of teacher training, as using these tools could lead to a number of significant successes in teacher-training. The students involved in such programmes, prospective teachers, are the ones who formulate the advantages best. Just to name a few common reactions, drama-based pedagogy helps future teachers to build confidence and certainty, as well as the variety of tools at their exposure. Teacher training is unique in the sense that it does not (should not) only involve theoretical introductions to material, but has to give the opportunity and tools for building a successful teacher persona, who is versatile in dealing with challenges arising in the classroom. Drama-based pedagogy offers a unique opportunity to focus on several aspects of this. On the one hand it offers a strong methodological base (in addition to theoretical courses, there is a huge emphasis on observing in-service teachers in drama classes, as well as classes of other subjects that make use of dramatic tools, and in addition workshops opening up to specialised fields taught by experienced professionals), on the other hand it is equally important to consciously focus on personality development (thanks to a number of skill development courses, communication seminars, situational improvisations skills etc.). Due to the intense and multi-layered connection between these two factors, drama could be an invaluable tool in teacher training. In addition, there are certain situations in schools that the current teacher training barely prepares teachers for, like preparedness for performing in public and developing tools to help and organise various productions in schools (like remembrance celebrations or class performances). Courses like Recitation of Poetry and Prose, Improvisation Training or Organisation, Dramatization and Directing just to name a few also cover these aspects of common situations in public education, allowing teachers to be more prepared.

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While specialised drama teacher education is crucial and every step in that direction has to be valued, it cannot be emphasized enough just how important the dramatic approach would be in general teacher training. All teachers, regardless of leadership style or preference for certain methods could greatly benefit from a chance to look at common situations, events, challenges and decision from angles made possible through the tools of drama. Moreover, for an informed educator it is absolutely indispensable to be familiar with methods that facilitate student-centric, experience-based learning, since motivating and involving students in meaningful work is a prime task in today's schools not to be trifled with. Hence it is invaluable to have a methodology that not only preaches these values but embodies them in every stage of the teacher training process.

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# Trends and Dilemmas of Changing History Teaching and Teacher Training

by József Kaposi

## *Introduction*

History is permanence itself, as it is the set of past events and phenomena. Different ages take different perspectives of the past, making ever-changing historical adaptations of the permanent. Despite the fact that the contents to be taught have been reflecting stability and tradition for decades, subject materials are nevertheless constantly changing, as it is necessarily enforced by social expectations, a more complex approach to history and the changes in the perception of learning.

History teaching transmits a shared but changing remembrance of humanity from generation to generation. In preceding centuries, this “remembrance” most often appeared in the narratives and teaching about the past (Halbwachs, 2018; Assman, 2004). The narrator, or later the teacher, was in most cases the sole source of information and therefore had a prominent role for a long time in education. This role was inevitably altered by the changing perception of knowledge in the new millennium and the information technology revolution. As a result, a new “balance” is being established reinterpreting the traditional role of teachers as “storytellers” transferring knowledge and putting more and more emphasis on activities of students like self-studying, creative and interactive tasks, studying in pairs, groups or networks as well as presentation with the help of information technology.

### *1. Historiography and the view of history*

The question of “what actually happened” (Ranke, 1994) was in the center of the classic positivist historiography in the 19th century, that interpreted history as the politics of the past and narrated the events of politics from a top-down approach always highlighting the major deeds of people in high position (statesmen, generals, church leaders). It steadily supported the sense of historical continuity, integrity and completeness. Even though the facts and historical documents it considered important were used for the presentation of the past, it constructed simple and unifacial historical narratives and explanations from the one and only true “understanding of the world”.

It was in the second half of the century that in emerging industrial societies and particularly empires, simultaneously with the spread of mass education and concurrently with the dominant ideologies of the era (liberalism, nationalism), history became a compulsory subject in schools. At the time, the dominance of the classical positivist historiography was indisputable. In this period, the theory of history was fundamentally determined by the influence of various linear development models and by the dominant position of national narratives, as, for many nations, the theory of history was linked to the estab-

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lishment of the nation-state, or the attempt to establish it. In this context, enhancing and preserving the national remembrance and educating the people to become citizens and patriots of the new nation-states were essential tasks.

From the end of the 19th century, classical historiography faced various challenges. First, the spread of subdisciplines (the history of ideas, economic and social history), then the emergence of sociology broadened the framework and form of traditional historiography in terms of content and method. At the same time, based on medieval traditions, some models of interpreting history viewed the history of mankind as a cyclical development of cultures.

In contrast to positivist historiography, all human acts were included in the scope of interest of the Annales School's "new historiography" (Gyurgyák & Kisantal, 2006). Based on the tenet that, "everything has a history", by applying a bottom-up approach, historians turned towards ordinary people and folk culture. Representatives of the School were interested in the analysis of social changes and structures instead of events. They processed new types of historical documents (commercial and demographical data, electoral registers etc.) and deliberately aimed to present conflicting viewpoints and "polyphony" in their works.

The main goal of the Annales journal was to surpass nation-based historiography because "its function, that originated in the 19th century, was to create and constantly support the sense of continuity, integrity, completeness and the illusion of uniqueness in the readers, in other words, everything that is simultaneously the requirement and result of establishing any kind of national history" (Gyáni, 2000).

The new historiography that set sail at the beginning of the 20th century was engaged to "utilize all the results of anthropologists, economists, psychologists and sociologists that revolutionized our concept of the origin, development and prospects of human kind over the last fifty years" (Robinson, 1912).

The profound paradigm shift of the science of history became undeniable in the 70s with the appearance of the postmodern (Pritz, 2005) standing on the grounds of epistemological relativism. At the same time, historiography broke away from theories in general, making way for the interdisciplinary approach. The subdisciplines were further divided, for example, factory history separated from economic history and social history gave way to the history of mentalities and gender studies.

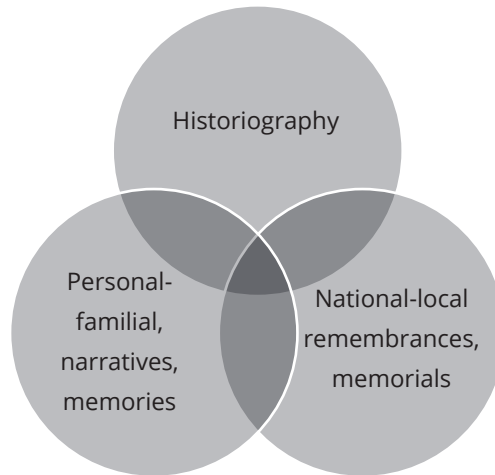
The social and intellectual changes of the second half of the 20th century made it unavoidable to redefine the traditional scientific concept of history as to avoid an equivalence between concepts like past, memory and history, despite the fact that these words often appear as synonyms in everyday discourse. Memory, "is life borne by living societies. It remains in permanent evolution; it is a version of the past kept in the personal or collective memories in either written or oral form. So-called history is based on personal or collective remembrance, it relies on recollections (Nora, 2009). All of this indicates that what we commonly call history today is actually a creation of historiography and as such, it is a construction consisting of interlaced subjective elements. In other words, history is the narration of one element of the past.



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This initiated various theoretical studies that lead to the following: “Memory and history: far from being synonymous, appear now to be in fundamental opposition. History is the reconstruction, always problematic and incomplete, of what is no longer” (Nora, 2009).

New historiography with all human acts in the scope of its interest, placed the presentation of “history from a bottom-up approach” at the center of its subject and method, and aimed at creating a more complex culture of memory through oral history, the image of ordinary people of their own past.



*Graph 1: The elements of the culture of memory, the components of historical recollection  
Source: made by the author*

The problem attracted the attention of other scientific fields (cultural anthropology, psychology). The great cultural anthropologist, Jan Assmann, dedicated a whole volume to the question of cultural memory. In his theory two forms of collective memory are distinguished: the communicative and cultural memory. While the former recalls memories from the recent past, memories that are shared with contemporary peers, the cultural memory is based on fixed points in the past. With respect to cultural memory, that is attached to fixed forms, it is the memorable history that matters not the factual one (Assmann, 2004). However, biographical memory is always built on social interactions, even in written societies.

It has become increasingly apparent in the past decades that the accomplishments and improvements considered important in the modern era, such as Eurocentrism, liberal democracy, industrial development, women’s empowerment or urbanization are, in fact, changes that lose their value over time. Meanwhile, the achievements that are seen as clear and lasting developments, for example the increase in life expectancy or decreasing distances, are limited to the narrow area of lifestyle and living.

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That is why the contemporary view of history and historiography assume that “history [...] is an imperfect reconstruction of what is no longer” (Lukacs, 2005). Furthermore, the following approach dominates: “What is at issue here is not, What are the facts? but rather, How are the facts to be described in order to sanction one mode of explaining them rather than another?” (White, 1978). Consequently, the evaluation of sources as building blocks of the past have also transformed: “the meaning of historical data, sources, texts and facts is not evident, it is not enough to put them together as they are rather the witnesses of the past and will not speak unless they are asked” (Bloch, 2006).

It can be concluded that “[...] problem sensitivity and ‘the ability of asking questions’ separates the good historian, from the bad one”, furthermore, the work of a historian is “not only to see but to consider what they see. As in one way or another, consideration is always interpretation” (Lukacs, 2005). Historiography broke away from the long-standing dominant teleological view of history, from the thesis that history has one single, evidence-based truth. The view that history is progressing in a certain direction and has a meaning that can be decoded, stands very far from the main intellectual trends of our age (Lukacs, 2005). This is the reason why it has become accepted that there is no single “valid history” that can reveal the past in its entirety.

Following this change of approach, historiography, that formerly relied on a specific explanation or theory of the world, broke away from theories in general and the formerly dominant teleological concept of history became marginal. The broadened and plural horizon of historians allowed previously “invisible social groups” (women, children, minorities) to become the centre of interest. While the place and role of political history decreased, the main focus shifted towards the changes concerning the basic structures of society as well as economic, cultural and mental developments. The analysis of contemporary social phenomena became a priority and completely new topics emerged (e.g. women, children, people at the bottom of the social hierarchy etc.).

The formerly dominant meta-history was replaced by different fields of history (e.g. social history), new fields of study (e.g. social psychology) and new approaches (e.g. statistics, theory of communication). As a result, various viewpoints of processing and interpreting history emerged and the multiperspective approach and method of analyzing the past became accepted (Stradling, 2003).

<b>Viewpoints</b>	<b>Traditional Historiography</b>	<b>New Historiography</b>
General objectives	Primarily concerned with politics.	All kinds of human acts are in its scope of interest.
Topics/contents	“History is past politics, and politics present history.” (SEELEY (JOHN), quoted in BÓDY - Ö. KOVÁCS, 2006)	“Everything has history.” (HALDANE (JOHN BURDON SANDERSON) quoted in BÓDY - Ö. KOVÁCS, 2006)
Point of view	Focuses on recounting and interpreting political events.	Focuses on the presentation and analysis of social, economic and cultural structures.
Documents	“Top-down approach”: emphasizes the great deeds of great people (statesmen, generals, church leaders).	“Bottom-up approach”: the perspective of ordinary people and their experience regarding social changes (e.g. history of folk-life and culture).
Field of processing	Relies on legitimate remembrance and official documents (e.g. memoirs, laws and materials preserved in archives).	Processes a wide range of diverse personal and public recollections and documents (e.g. statistical data, various visual and oral sources).
Characteristics	Characterized by mono-perspective approaches, questions and explanations of historians.	Characterized by complex and multiperspective approaches, questions and explanations of historians.
Theories, ideologies	Presents facts, develops a framework for interpretation, suggests consensual explanation, in other words, records “what actually happened” (RANKE)	Processes a wide range of diverse personal and public recollections and documents (e.g. statistical data, various visual and oral sources).
Characteristics	Characterized by mono-perspective approaches, questions and explanations of historians.	Characterized by complex and multi-perspective approaches, questions and explanations of historians.
Theories, ideologies	Presents the facts, develops a framework for interpretation, suggests a consensual explanation, in other words, records “what actually happened”. (RANKE)	Presents the multiplicity of facts and figures, opposing positions, does not seek consensual explanation, accepts “polyphony”.

*Table 1: The comparison of traditional and new historiography  
Source: made by the author*

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## 2. Perception of knowledge

From the end of the 1950s, in connection with scientific and technical developments, the former perception of human knowledge began to change. As a result, the curricular concept in public education transformed and the volume of the earlier required content was significantly reduced. Additionally, in the course of the 1960s, it was also realized that it can no longer be reliably decided what will be important in a few decades, and as a result, teaching content started to be viewed as a tool for achieving educational goals. For this reason, the main focus of education was placed on skill development, and during the 1980s, the concept of the curriculum of thinking emerged. Hence, the past decade saw two main changes of approach in terms of the perception of knowledge: first, content became secondary vis-à-vis skills; second, the general skill of knowledge acquisition overrode the importance of specific skills (Csapó, 2002/a).

As a result of the changed perception of knowledge, competency has become the most widely used concept in educational policy during the past decades, a term, that was previously applied by cognitive sciences (linguistics) to describe complex skills. The background to this was that “our ability and willingness to transform what we learn (knowledge, skills and attitude) into a successful problem-solving act” (Halász, 2006) became increasingly decisive in all aspects of life. This means that during the institutional and informal learning processes, students need to acquire complex skills that will enable them not only to reproduce what they learn, but also to solve unforeseen problems. As the conditions for this “capacity” to function in practice, key competencies were identified that enable individuals to adapt to change.

The spread of information technology around the millennium and the social, economic and cultural changes related to this, have fundamentally changed our former perception of knowledge, “the illusion of lifelong knowledge vanished [...], and information management, in other words, know-how, became important instead of the know-what” (Vágó, 2000). The application of problem-solving activities in the classroom has become the key element of competency-based development in many countries of the world during the past decade. Instead of reproducing what they learn, these activities expect students to be open-minded, creative and to apply comprehensively analogical, analytical, and combinative thinking. This has led to a different understanding of cognitive competency, and of the relationship between personal, social, and special competencies.

<b>Viewpoints</b>	<b>Traditional learning-teaching</b>	<b>Learning-teaching of the 21st century</b>
Source of knowledge	The formal education of school system is the primary field of learning and acquiring knowledge.	Relies on different sources of knowledge, informal and non-formal learning.
Learning setting	Mainly in the classroom, “in front of the teacher”	Diverse frameworks and settings – arrangements enhancing cooperation
Processing	The teacher is in the center, he/she manages and organizes the learning process of students	Student-centered, problem-oriented, research-based and personalized
Curricula	Centrally (e.g. by the state) determined contents and timeframes	Pedagogical programs and timeframes locally adopted with the cooperation of the concerned parties
Development goals I.	Teaching centrally determined content and goals of education	Considers the varying interests, learning pace and socio-cultural background of students
Development goals II.	Knowledge-based, focusing mainly on reproduction and “expert knowledge”	Competency-based, focusing on productivity and “literacy”
Methods I.	Frontal instruction in the classroom, based on presentation	Differentiated, interactive, discovery- and experience-based
Methods II.	The dominant method is explaining by asking	Activity-centered, ICT-based, wide range of methodological practices
Evaluation I.	Periodic and mainly summative evaluation	Continuous formative evaluation, diagnostic assessment
Evaluation II.	Competitive, enhances enforcement of personal interests	Based on the principles of solidarity, encourages cooperation

*Table 2: The comparison of traditional learning-teaching and that of the 21st century*  
*Source: made by the author*

It has become increasingly accepted that learning is no longer equivalent to the understanding of knowledge developed by science and transferred by the teacher; instead, the active participation of the student plays an important role in the acquisition and processing of information. Moreover, pedagogy has also accepted that, in order to achieve the personality development expected by the modern economy and society, the educational potential of students’ active participation, mainly in the form of individual, pair or group activities, needs to be utilized. Therefore, the sources of development are those student activities that consist of complex, cognitive, affective or psychomotor sequences of tasks (steps) (Bábosik, 2006), and serve the improvement of emotional and volitional factors, instead of supporting exclusively the cognitive and intellectual acquisition. Hence, students’ activities and solutions – as key tools for processing the curriculum and personality development – took over the major role and gave way to new organizational learning procedures, such as the portfolio and project.

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However, competency-based education, the spread of constructivist pedagogy and the broadening understanding of knowledge pointed to a paradox: there are indeed facts and data that are only to be learnt and not be understood. “One of the most widespread superstitions of modern times is that we only need meaningful learning and meaningless memorizing can be completely avoided. However, the truth is, that a large part of our knowledge can only be acquired by memorizing due to the lack of correlation. Learning is not possible through meaning if there is no meaning.” (Csapó, 1992). The concept, previously known as subject knowledge, was replaced by a new perception of knowledge that consisted of literacy, special skills and competency. In this context, literacy means a kind of orientation, navigation in everyday life, an applicable knowledge and the understanding of correlations. Special skills cover the knowledge of basic principles, concepts, research methods and schemes of a certain field of study (e.g. history) and the ability to apply these in different situations, while competency refers to the parts of knowledge that is acquired in a natural setting through the experiences of everyday life (Csapó, 2002/b).

The far-reaching changes in technology, culture and society significantly modified the former concepts of knowledge. The need to acquire transferable, universal competencies became increasingly important. The competencies and their elements, that provide the basis of a competitive knowledge able to meet the challenges of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, were described in various ways. The main skills summarized in different studies and international documents include: the so-called basic skills (writing, reading comprehension, numeracy), the so-called transversal competencies and technical skills.

The world of work designed the so-called 4-C model to describe those skills they valued as the most competitive ones (critical thinking, cooperation, creativity and communication). The role of knowledge acquired through non-formal and informal learning, the use of ICT tools and the application of knowledge-sharing platforms and learning networks are increasingly important in the process of developing these skills. This requires the spread of learning technologies in the teaching practice that put the particular individual needs of students in the focus, thus accelerating the personalization of learning and knowledge-sharing through networking (Bodnár et al., 2015).

Due to the significant changes in the perception of knowledge a competency- and output-oriented educational paradigm, that focuses on learning outcomes has become dominant. This paradigm-shift in the learning process changed the role of key actors in pedagogy. Teachers became the supporters of learning, and instead of being the distributors of knowledge, they rather take the role of navigating, explaining, mediating and correcting (facilitators).

### *3. History teaching in transition*

By the 1970s, it was widely understood, that history had become a diverse field of study and as a result of the radical changes in the social, intellectual, religious, ethical and economic principles – as well as the altering educational expectations and the changing perception of knowledge – history could not and should not be taught in schools in the same way it

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used to be. In this regard, mainly in Western European countries, the focus of curriculum content, that almost exclusively centered around political history, shifted towards social history, the history of lifestyle and culture; also, it began to incorporate contemporary issues, materials for the education for democracy and active citizenship and such innovative practices that require active student participation and productivity. Additionally, the need to contest the monopolistic narrative of national history and its expansion with other viewpoints was articulated (Chapman, 2016; Akkerman et al, 2018).

With regard to the trends of development of the curriculum of history that took place prior to the millennium in Western Europe, it can be concluded, that the chronologically structured curricula remained dominant in most countries, but the focus was placed on skill development. The changes mainly centered around the development of knowledge acquisition and processing skills as well as topographical and chronological skills. Although several new elements were integrated into the curriculum (social and civic studies), traditional history continued to be decisive as the role of the subject in shaping identity remained unchanged. In general, all curricula determine the share of national and international history, aim to be neutral in terms of ideologies and seek the balanced presentation of national and international issues. The most important differences between the curricula of different countries derive from the historical traditions of content regulation. The British curriculum, for instance, formulates the requirements of development and can therefore be described as performance-based. On the other hand, “the German one represents another type; it is usually dubbed as activity-based or didactic. Here the activity is recommended but no details are given about what development is expected as a result” (Csala, 2001).

One of the changes that took place in the Western European curricula and textbooks during the 1990s was that instead of the political history of the European nation-states, history teaching started to focus on the common history of humans living in different societies, on different continents. Since the number of history lessons decreased in (almost) all countries, it was not possible to add new topics to the classical canon of knowledge, instead, the curriculum was restructured and, in many cases, the volume was reduced. The changes in the perspective influenced content selection and this resulted in the integration of new emphases (non-European regions, the history of women and children and the environment), new approaches (the reduction of political history and the history of events, the appearance of social and cultural history and the history of mentality) into the curriculum and textbooks as well as into the practice of everyday teaching.

In addition to the chronological approach, new approaches were introduced (thematic, synchronic etc.), but the primacy of the chronological principle remained untouched. In several countries, instead of the quantity of topics, an extended, in-depth exploration of one topic became emphasized. As a result, the so-called study of depth approach (Knausz, 2003) became accepted in terms of content selection, in other words, the requirement of restructuring, not only receiving the information. “They should not teach too many topics, [but] what they do teach, should be taught thoroughly, grabbing those comprehensive ideas that enlighten the whole issue and the secondary facts shall continuously be built around these” (Chambliss & C. Calfee, 1998). In order to achieve this,

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children need specific and unique examples that bring theory to life for them and that they can perceive, turn, twist or play with.

Even though the enhancement of subject integration, the inclusion of knowledge and skills from other subject areas into history instruction was stressed in the curriculum and textbooks of many countries, it was hardly transferred into the area of everyday teaching practice. In some countries, multiperspectivity (different approaches to the topics) and controversy (concurrent presentation of conflicting approaches) appeared as novel tools for the studying of history during the 1990s (Stradling, 2003). These tendencies – the multiperspective principle in particular – have surfaced in the Central European region as well in the past decade, and many see the practical implementation of these as possible new interpretations for the historical reconciliation of this region (F. Dárdai 2002/a; Vajda, 2008).

In Western Europe in this period, there was a growing acknowledgment among both public and educational policy makers that the subject of history and the historical consciousness of society play a role in maintaining democratic systems as well as contribute significantly to the understanding of the relations between different nations, religions and states. Furthermore, they can also play a part in battling social deviances (aggression, exclusion). As a result of this, the perspectives of history teaching gradually expanded. Thanks to the emergence of new approaches and developing European integration, apart from comparing the textbooks of different countries, many conferences of history teachers were held, where historical knowledge could be mapped out and teaching practices of the various countries aligned. (F. Dárdai, 2002/b; Wobring, 2014; Roszak, 2018).

#### *4. History didactics – the science of learning history*

The most multifaceted studies regarding the theoretical and practical aspects of history teaching were carried out in Germany, where pedagogy has its roots in philosophy, and as a result, the theory of education primarily focused on theoretical questions: the components of historical thinking, the question of reconstruction and deconstruction, the principles of retrospectivity, perspectivity or particularity, and the question of selectivity and partiality (Quandt, 1991; Jeismann, 1991). New perspectives have opened up, when, in relation to the interpretation and processing of the German past, scholars formulated that the theory of history teaching should not be limited to the study of the practices of everyday methodology but should be expanded to a broader context.

As a result, the function of the field of expertise, traditionally called the subject methodology, was re-evaluated. Two main theoretical concepts of history teaching were formulated. According to Joachim Rohlfes, who represents a traditional approach, history didactics, the new theoretical basis of history teaching, functions as a “bridge” between history and pedagogy and its focus is the practice of everyday history teaching (Rohlfes, 1986, as cited in F. Dárdai, 2006). On the other hand, Jörn Rüsen, representing the general theory of history, placed “general historical consciousness” and then, “historical culture” in the center of history didactics, thus separating the field from pedagogy, from general didactics. Based on his definition “history didactics is the science of learning history” (Rüsen, as cited in F. Dárdai, 2002/b).



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Due to the complex socio-political changes and shifts in approach at the millennium, it became generally accepted in several European countries, that learning history does not only – and not primarily – mean learning the traditional historical facts, it also requires knowledge acquisition and data processing skills as well as the application of a differentiated historical thinking for the processing of specific problems of history and the knowledge of social norms.

In most western European countries in the past decades the goals of history teaching have undergone a continuous transformation. The development of “narrative competency” became the most important didactical requirement. “This competency means that an individual possesses the ability to interpret and manage his/her life experiences and is able to use them as a navigating basis for life, while they also contribute to his/her personality development, historical identity and communicative capacity” (F. Dárdai, 2002/b). On the basis of these developments and changes, the general goals of history teaching were transformed: apart from knowledge acquisition; the ability to think about alternatives, the willingness to debate or to form and shape opinions independently, along with the development of problem-solving thinking became high priorities (Chapman, 2016).

The most important objective of history teaching was to make students realize that people’s thoughts and actions are dependent on their time, context and interests, and that historical changes do not evolve by themselves, but are the results of human actions. Therefore, the processing of the past helps to detect the long-term developmental trends leading from the past through the present towards the future, and to understand that changes of the present are also due to active deeds. That is why it is important that education equip individuals with the ability to ask why and how a social problem of the present or an issue that is important for any specific social group, has arisen. History teaching as a result of this new perspective, prepares students to ask whether the problems of the present have their roots in the past and whether there have been any attempts to solve these. This way of teaching supports students in understanding how differently people felt, thought and acted in the past than their descendants in the present (Benziger, 2017).

The international literature of history didactics in the past decade placed the establishment of historical key competencies in the focus of history teaching. Key competencies are the multifunctional and transferable units of knowledge, skills and attitudes, that are essential for personality development, for social inclusion and employability. They need to be acquired during mandatory education and training. Later, these competencies provide the basis for lifelong learning. Key competencies are transferable, they can be mobilized and therefore applied in several situations and contexts. They are also multifunctional since they can be used to achieve different goals and to solve different problems or tasks. Key competencies are prerequisites for adequate personal performance, work and learning in life. In general mandatory education, where a shift in emphasis is taking place, instead of the “codified” or “explicit” knowledge, the “tacit or passive” knowledge embedded in the personal or social competencies of the student were brought to the forefront (European Commission, 2007; OECD, 2019).

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In the framework of the above requirements, “[...] in the development of historical key competencies, the acquisition of the basic skills essential for critical thinking and for the interpretation and processing of historical documents (written, oral, primary, secondary, textual, audiovisual etc.) was encouraged [...]” (Stradling, 2001). By acquiring the key competencies “students are able to [...] flexibly adapt data, facts, concepts and the schemes of history in the three-dimensionality of past, present and future, as well as to apply historical research methods (to detect and define a historical problem, to formulate criticism and interpretation)” (F. Dárdai, 2006), in other words, a framework of historical thinking is shaped in students that supports not only the understanding of past events but also the interpretation of changes in the future.

Key concepts (key ideas) are essential tools for expanding knowledge and important elements of meaningful learning. The significance of specific conceptual knowledge and the use of concepts connected to specific historical topics is primarily determined by their ability to facilitate the understanding of key concepts, and whether they are able to provide an adequate set of experiences and information for the application of key concepts with adaptive knowledge. Key concepts are therefore the junction points of a network of concepts for a specific set of knowledge and can be connected to several other concepts. They necessarily reappear in various different contexts. Additionally, key concepts are able to organize into structures and networks the block of concepts and facts which surface at first as an uncoordinated set in the learning process, and, therefore, once applied, can facilitate the interpretation of new information and experience.

The significance of key concepts (Stradling, 2001) is that they provide the means for students to process and organize historical knowledge, to recognize connections, similarities and differences between historical events, and to identify repeated historical patterns and generalities. Possessing knowledge related to the key concepts is the basis of modern historical literacy, because, due to their transfer effect, these concepts effectively contribute to the development of adaptive historical thinking and to its application in different situations. Organizing the curriculum on the basis of these key concepts resulted in new frameworks of content and solutions in several countries (e.g. Great-Britain).

As a result, the focus of history didactics shifted towards the motivation of students and to the realization that an emotional approach to history helps to raise the interest of students. Additionally, it was also understood that “knowledge gained through an experience (with the feeling of flow) is acquired more effectively and it is easier to mobilize. If the requirements are too low, we get bored. If they are too much, we are distressed. Flow (the experience) is created in the fragile zone between boredom and distress” (Csíkszentmihályi, 1997). In terms of effectiveness, historical content can be approached emotionally and, therefore, it has to be processed in a way in which students are emotionally involved: the motivational phase of history teaching plays a significant role in the effective learning of students. This requires an innovative assessment of “emotionality”. “The most important category at the moment in terms of the examination of history teaching and learning is involvement, the question of emotions. Emotions are inherent and useful in history. Their impacts on historical processes can be investigated, while their evaluation

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can also contribute to emotional learning. They can also serve as a bridge that connects students emotionally to the content of history (events, structures, processes) and can, in principle, facilitate historical thinking” (Uffelmann, 1999).

It has become accepted in the discourse over history didactics that the most important goal of history teaching is to prepare for historical thinking, and this realization is, in fact, as old as civilization. The myths describing the lives of different communities and people, apart from serving as the basis for community identity and inherited common social norms, served as a framework of interpretation, as “history is not only to see but to analyze what is seen. And in one way or another, analysis is always interpretation” (Ortega, as cited in Lukacs, 2005). In other words, analysis and interpretation as well as the dimensions of present and future are closely connected to the processing of every story about the past, because “if we write or talk about the future, we do it so by remembering”, that is, “we live our lives forward, however, we can only think backward” (Ortega, as cited in Lukacs, 2005). All this leads to the question of what should the subject of history really teach. Most probably, the subject can only teach historical facts, that were once recorded by someone throughout the centuries and that gained the mutual acceptance of a community (Carr, 2006), in other words, the facts that were integrated into “the mental form in which a culture gives an account of its past” (Huizinga, as cited in Lukacs, 2005).

It has become generally accepted in more and more countries that the key objective of learning history in school is to build up an adaptable framework of interpretation, with which “events that have been processed and trends that have been learnt can be effectively applied in well structured, new situations to support the understanding of the past or the present, and interpret changes in the future” (Lee, 2004, as cited in Kojanitz, 2013). Furthermore, studying history contributes to the understanding of what is historically and culturally divergent, different or dissimilar, and “the application of such knowledge, skills, abilities and values make the individual capable of effectively participating in an everyday life that is based on democratic values in a civil society” (Hoskins & Crick, 2008). This type of approach to teaching practice holds “that the development of student’s competencies to act (learning by working) is prior to the mere interpretation of the events of the past (frontal instruction)” (F. Dárdai, 2006/a).

The international organizations of history teaching, the ISHD (International Society of History Didactics) and Euroclio (European Association of History Educators), are both committed to the renewal of the theory and practice of history teaching. The ISHD, which was established in Germany in 1980, promotes academic research on the main issues related to history didactics with a special focus on historical thinking, historical consciousness and history teacher training. It organizes annual conferences and issues a yearbook and other publications. The society considers the introduction, examination and assessment of curriculum and textbooks of national or international history a priority. It also promotes new theoretical concepts, researches, teaching methods and models. Its purpose is to advance the integration of personal history into the culture of memory as well as to study the differences and similarities between scientific and everyday language. The Euroclio endorses the dismantling of historical myths and stereotypes, pro-

notes the multiple dimensions of the study of the past and encompasses a student-oriented approach, as reflected in one of its new projects: Learning to Disagree<sup>2</sup>. The project analyses contested and divisive contemporary historical events in 12 sets of content. The key methods of the contents are dialogue, debate and discussion and the main goal is to provide a guide on how to process controversial and divisive issues, sensitive questions in the classroom.

<b>Viewpoints</b>	<b>Traditional history teaching</b>	<b>History teaching in the 21<sup>st</sup> century</b>
General objectives	Strengthening national identity and building civic consciousness.	Processing the mutual cultural code-system and preparation for active citizenship.
Content selection	Comprehensive introduction of the events of national and international history, the presentation of the “development”.	Processing stories, topics and phenomena relevant to the history of civilization, global problems and citizenship education.
Structure	Chronological structure, overall approach and process-oriented, “processological” demonstration.	Problem-oriented, “depth-principled” research-and, experience-based, differentiated processing based on documents.
Focus	Presentation of facts, data and concepts, teaching texts from the textbook.	Development of knowledge acquisition, processing and communication skills.
Viewpoint	Provides centrally accepted explanations of a single viewpoint.	Multiperspective viewpoint, the development of critical thinking by processing different explanations.
Development goals	Development of reproductive skills.	Development of productive and creative skills.
Focus of activities	Frontal instruction of the teacher, visual demonstration, presentation.	Diverse and creative activities of students, interactivity, differentiation.
Working methods	Individual processing and teaching enhancing competition.	Cooperative techniques (project, problem-solving, groupwork etc.)
Evaluation I.	Periodic and typically summative.	Continuous and typically formative.
Evaluation II.	Recitations, tests in writing and knowledge-based essays.	Presentations, projects, problem- and competency-oriented assignments.

*Table 3: The characteristics of traditional history teaching and that of the 21<sup>st</sup> century*  
*Source: made by the author*

To conclude with the changes in the theory of history teaching, it should be pointed out that, during the past two decades in most Western European countries, based on the development of a more complex approach and practice, history didactics has become accepted as an independent academic discipline for the study of learning history and is recognized as part of the applied social sciences.

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The dominance of such objectives and contents of development have been accepted in several countries that focus on the establishment of so-called historical literacy. The topics of history to be processed became more and more complex and current (e.g. the increase of the aspects of civilization and the importance of the present age, the emphasis on improving democratic attitudes). The development of historical key competencies and, in particular, the narrative skills, historical thinking and the application of multiperspective approach became increasingly wide-spread.

With regard to schools, international practice of the past two decades has shown an increase in the professional independence of local institutions in terms of the selection of subject content and methods (e.g. Finland). Additionally, the intention to establish the systems for measuring learning outcomes and for providing feedback in respect to all schools and students strengthened, along with the need to professionalize the work of the teacher. Regarding the everyday practices of history teaching, instead of the conventional frontal instruction of teachers, the developmental pedagogical practices of activity-based methods that support meaningful learning and cooperation and often cross the framework of the traditional lesson (e.g. projects), came to the forefront. In the process of the transformation, the importance of content was reduced and replaced by the processing of different historical documents (sources), the application of digital tools and technologies and many novel – mainly experience-based – methods (drama pedagogy, gamification, portfolio).

### *5. Changing history teaching – goals, pillars and tools*

As a consequence of the changing culture of memory, perception of knowledge and diverse historiography, new goals, tasks, tools and methods can be defined for modern, future-oriented history teaching. This also led to efforts to place the improvement of historical literacy as a general development goal at the center of history teaching.

But what does it mean? It is a complex and flexible set of knowledge that is based on the acceptance of general human standards and basic civic competencies (e.g. democratic rules of conduct), relies on transversal skills (critical thinking, problem-solving, creativity, cooperation) and includes the inductive/deductive and narrative method, the ability to explore alternatives, the transfer of knowledge and analogical and adaptive thinking. It involves the ability to analyze and apply specific historical knowledge and a framework of interpretation in order to understand the events of the past and present, and to interpret changes in the future. The system of goals for development takes a complex social sciences approach and includes the transfer of the traditional cultural code system as it is an important element of intergenerational relations. It also expects the establishment and application of historical key competencies described by international history didactics in the beginning of the 21st century. The latter places a great emphasis on the complex interpretation of the culture of memory, on the improvement of critical thinking, on communication and on the so-called linguistic codes as well as on the application of productive and creative presentation. Consequently, history didactics, apart from knowledge

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acquisition and skill development, also considers the forming of attitudes very important, especially in terms of social skills and civic consciousness.

The pillars of the development of historical literacy:

- Narrative learning – stories, cultural code system, identity formation
- Understanding the perspective of a historian – processing and evaluating documents
- Historical thinking – cause and effect thinking, analogies, schemes, patterns
- Problem-solving – application of student-centered methods

## 6. *Narrative learning*

Cultural psychology distinguishes two aspects of learning. One of them is paradigmatic learning that works with abstract concepts and relies on logic to study cause-and-effect relationship. This form of learning typically deals with either confirming or contradicting different theses or statements. The other type of learning is particularly important in terms of the study of history, because it is based on known stories, in other words, narratives. It deals with specific stories with people involved instead of the cause-and-effect relationships that works according to specific rules.

Research on narrative learning has pointed out that “historical narrative is the result of a social construction that employs the narrative as a cognitive tool having its own laws” (László, 2003). Therefore, history teaching transfers a technique of processing information, on the one hand, with the help of narrative structures (time, events, actors, perspective, intentions), and on the other hand, with the help of schemes and patterns. It follows that, when processing a story, our own former experiences and existing knowledge is added to it and through this projection of former experiences, it also gains new meaning. This, of course, re-arranges the original story in a way, but its essential elements will not be lost, and by contributing to the net of former schemes, it could provide a framework for the interpretation of another story in the future.

In view of the above, it should also be noted, that “the narrative approach creates productive relations through the study of life stories, identity and social representations. The analysis of personal biographies is closely linked to the study of developments in public history and collective psychology. Connecting the phenomenon of collective memory, formation of identity and narratives could contribute to the application of this general effort” (Pataki, 2003). It has become more and more apparent from the research of the past decade that collective narratives, constituted and passed on as the common memory of a community, have a significant role in the process of socialization. “The function of narratives in sustaining identity and group formation is outstanding in terms of big national narratives (mythologies, legends, creation myths, symbolic events – positive and negative – of national history). A new member of the community – either coming from outside or growing into it through the socialization of new generations – will be able to integrate into the community’s world of traditions and experiences by adopting these narratives: he/she will share the content of group identity through these” (Pataki, 2003).

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With regard to the development of collective identity and the consequences of globalization, the introduction of the local (national and regional) cultural code system has become increasingly important in history teaching in primary and secondary schools. “One of the most important goals of education is to introduce the world of national narratives to new generations. It is hardly a coincidence that history teaching and the image it shows about us and others have always been a sensitive issue in the Central European region.” It has also become accepted that “by the means of the narrative method we are able to construct our identities and to find our places in our culture” (Kinyó, 2005). Processing common national narratives in school plays an important role in the formation of the collective identity. Moreover, the narrative schemes provide a learning technique that has a significant transfer effect and contributes to the acquisition of general learning skills as pointed out by research in cognitive psychology (Molnár, 2002).

In light of the above, the building blocks of the narrative approach and thinking can be established by learning and processing specific stories. Such building blocks are: the dimensions of space and time, the relationship between historical actors, the context of stories (e.g. preliminary events, conditions, consequences). These can already be identified and acquired by processing stories in the lower grades of primary school and can therefore be the basis for narrative learning. However, along the broadening perspective of students, it is also important to distinguish between reality and fiction during this process. As result of processing the background of the stories, a system of concepts can be established in the upper grades. These concepts include identifiable social categories, the understanding of the basic structure of socio-economic features in specific historical periods as well as the interpretation of different historical perspectives.

International experience has shown that the selection of stories to be processed during education must break with the tradition of presenting solely centrally determined stories (through the curriculum). According to changing concepts of learning, one of the key criteria for effective education is meaningful learning which is closely related to the interest and motivation of students. This means that history teachers, upon selecting the stories, must take both the interest of their students into consideration and perceive the theory based on knowledge transfer, which says that “the knowledge acquired in a certain setting can be applied in a different situation” (Molnár, 2002). This may result in the consideration of the study of depth (Knausz, 2003), the multifaceted and extensive study of a particular topic, instead of the “width” of content, the brief study of countless facts. In terms of teaching practice, it means that the processes and phenomena of history can be effectively interpreted through the creation of a motivating learning environment, multiperspective approach and active student participation, even if the traditional content is significantly decreased.

Accordingly, the designation of historical content processed in the framework of schools must be made more flexible, allowing to organically connect the purpose of passing on the traditional national cultural code system with the motivating power of students’ interest. Increasing the weight of the modern and present era and finding a new balance between global and local topics appears to be unavoidable. It is also increasingly apparent

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that the professional autonomy of history teachers regarding the selection of events and phenomena to be processed in school should be strengthened as this would give teachers the ability to design their classes based on the interest of their students. Experience-based stories that can capture students' interest and contain the building blocks for establishing a narrative way of thinking should be at the center of school study.

### *7. Understanding the perspective of a historian*

It also appears to be necessary to incorporate into the historical studies the coordinate grid in which the documented past and the past reflected alone in the personal and collective memory is constructed. The role of the general principles of understanding in the processing of the past need to be stressed. This includes, on the one hand, retrospectivity, a backward-looking approach in historical narratives, and, on the other hand, perspectivity, an approach based on the present and on the processed sources (the perspective of the person studying the past) together with considering the perspectives of the analysis that is taking place at the present. It follows that all acts of processing include the principle of partiality, which means that every narration is inevitably fragmented and selective since they describe only one part of the past based on a selected set of viewpoints. Partiality is unavoidable in historical processing because information about the past is always limited. However, the principle of constructivity is also part of the processing as historical narration is a result of a constructive process and its goal is to find meaningful connections, hypotheses, to record generalizations and to formulate ideas and – maybe – judgement. The combination of these principles (retrospectivity, perspectivity, partiality and constructivity) entails the application of multiperspectivity allowing the identification of different cultural practices, system of symbols, norms and mentalities.

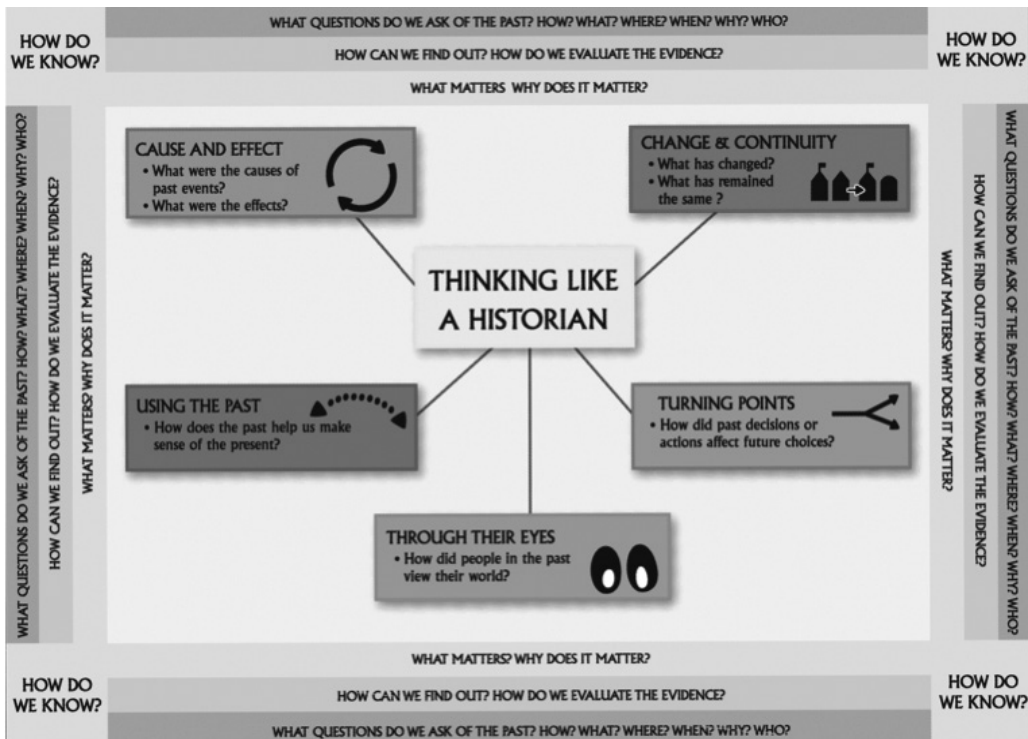
Inductive thinking has a defining role in the transformation of past events into history (the transformation of facts and events into historiography), since history is formed by the generalization of an individual phenomena. Inductive thinking is basically the process of drawing general conclusions from a set of specific observations: “When general rules and analogies are drawn from the comparison of different events and these experiences are applied in new situations. It is based on the establishment of differences and similarities by comparing the characteristics and the relationship of things. Inductive thinking basically creates new knowledge” (Sinka & Kalivoda, 2001).

The analytical framework and schemes essential for processing a historical structure is constructed by inductive thinking (Gyurgyák & Kisantal, 2006). The identification and analysis of processes and phenomena of the present and the future is based on deductive and analogical thinking, therefore, these are also important parts of learning history. While it definitely encourages meaningful learning, with the help of this scheme, the ideologically controlled and simplifying practices of history teaching can also be overcome. Moreover, it can develop methodological, intellectual, personal, social and communication competencies (Molnár, 2002). Consequently, in relation to the processing of the past the development goals for establishing empathy, tolerance and the acceptance of



diversity grow more acute. In parallel with this, the similarities and differences apparent through the various perspectives of processing historical events and phenomena can also be explored to a great extent.

The center of the chart below demonstrates the key aspects that determine the framework and characteristics of historical interpretation: exploring the causes and effects, highlighting the turning points, considering the events through the eyes of the people in the past, the relation of change and continuity and the way the past can help to understand the present.



Graph 2: Thinking like a historian

Source: Eric V. Franco: *Using Graffiti to Teach Students How to Think Like Historians*  
<http://www.societyforhistoryeducation.org/pdfs/Franco.pdf>

The frame of the chart shows the basic aspects of the method of a historian's work. By repeating the questions of "How do we know?", "What matters?" and "Why does it matter?" four times, it draws the attention to the importance of examining the reliability of sources and also to the background of the selection of the facts to be processed. The other questions in the frame, e.g. "What questions do we ask of the past?" or "How do we evaluate the evidence?" highlight other elements of historical research. To sum up, the chart illustrates how scientific norms and protocols are identified in the work of a historian, from the basic methods of research and interpretation to the contextualization of a

phenomenon or a topic. This is the expertise that is gained through the multi-perspective and thorough processing of many specific historical events and has the potential to develop transferable knowledge in the long run. These professional skills and the application of the protocol enable the individual to distinguish between a scientific and pseudo-scientific work and also to process a new phenomenon or event based on this system.

An important element in the processing of historical documents/sources is to stress the fact that our knowledge of the past, in other words, history, is based on a certain group of sources (original documents, contemporary or recent historiography) and that there might be other types of evidence or documents and interpretations of the history we know.

<b>Groups and types of documents (sources)</b>	
<b>Textual documents</b>	<b>Visual documents</b>
Legal sources (law, regulation, resolution etc.)	Maps (historical, geographical)
Political texts (proclamation, speeches, party platform etc.)	Pictures (paintings, photographs)
Personal documents (letters, speeches, memoirs, journals etc.)	Films (document and fictional)
works of historiography (Gesta, annals, chronicles of historians etc.)	Television recordings
Textbooks	Billboards (political, artistic, business)
Literature (poetry, prose, drama)	Drawings, caricatures
Everyday texts (newspaper, census paper)	Comic books
<b>Auditory documents</b>	<b>Objects</b>
Speeches, interviews	Archeological findings
National anthems	Buildings (public and private)
musical compositions	Weapons
songs (public, artistic, general)	Old or contemporary furniture and other commodities

*Table 4: Types of documents (sources)*

*Source: made by the author*

With regard to the processing of documents, unfolding the historical context and the background as well as identifying the author (and the recipient in case of letters) or determining the genre (text, picture etc.) and its main characteristics are considered general criteria. It is also necessary to collect all the data from and in relation to the document (names, dates, concepts) and to investigate the underlying purpose of its creation. Additionally, gathering and systematizing the statements, opinions, explanations apparent in the document, along with identifying the author's point of view and investigating the authenticity and reliability of the source, for example, by comparing the author's purposes with other documents, sources or historical works, are also fundamental (Szabó & Kaposi, 2006).

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In order to understand the interests, prejudices and subjectivism of the author, students need to apply critical thinking when processing a historical document. In other words, they have to identify the perspective of that specific source through the context. It would also be important for the students to see that “documents by themselves do not ‘make’ history in fact, it is history that creates the documents” (Lukacs, 2005). Therefore, they need to examine how these documents support the historian’s construction of the events, because through the understanding of this process a specific competency is developed enabling students to improve a better perception of history.

The proliferation of historical documents of the present era is a defining characteristic of the past decades. While it is true that due to communication culture and information overload historically significant documents are created every minute in the world, this abundance makes it increasingly difficult to reach, process and evaluate these. Furthermore, the accessibility to historical documents has widened to a great extent thanks to the broadening availability of public archives allowing a more open and extensive investigation. The expansion of mass media and digital culture has resulted in greater public exposure and made it easier to obtain documents about significant political affairs or simple, everyday events. A very detailed picture evolves of the different aspects of everyday life thanks to the spread of personal (oral) histories and the visual, acoustic recording of everyday human activities.

## 8. *Historical thinking*

Multifaceted research has developed in international history didactics in the past decades over the question of historical thinking. Apart from criticizing students’ lack of knowledge that is apparent at all ages, the research centers on two competing principles of history teaching: substantive history, that focuses on the acquisition of historical knowledge, and disciplinary understanding, which aims to understand historical thinking. Diverse research has been conducted in several countries: The Schools Council History Project (SCHP) in the United Kingdom, The Historical Thinking Project in Canada, the History Standards in the United States (Kojanitz, 2013), or the projects of the University of Amsterdam in the Netherlands (Kojanitz, 2014).

The research and development formulated a number of interesting conclusions, for example: “It is important to understand the approach of history in order to have agency over our natural tendency for prejudices, historical self-justifications or the formulation of simplifying opinions. Historical thinking doesn’t evolve in the course of psychological development, it is not a natural process [...], in fact, it is in contrast with the way we usually think” (Wineburg, 2007). “Learning history requires understanding history as a discipline and the evidence of this process is the increasingly accurate interpretation of key metaconcepts” (Lee, 2004, as cited in Kojanitz, 2018). This means that the deeper understanding of the concepts “historical change”, “historical cause and effect”, “historical significance”, “historical fact” or “historical source” have a greater significance in the process. These concepts contribute to the creation of a coherent interpretation of information about past events (Lee et al., 2001).

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With regard to the current teaching practice, a paradox situation can be diagnosed in terms of the development of historical thinking. Although subject teachers claim that the development of historical thinking is the most important goal of their pedagogical practices, secondary school students – and even university students majoring in History – report the lack of such practices throughout their studies. There are probably several reasons for this contradiction. For example, there is no professional consensus on the elements and content of a definition and on the steps and phases of preparation. Furthermore, there is no consensus on the meaning of historical thinking in a specific learning situation: exactly what competencies prove the comprehensive acquisition of historical thinking and what competencies show the partial or total lack thereof. However, this is not by chance, since historical thinking was traditionally understood as the quantity and complexity of acquired knowledge, while it is a complex set of knowledge with a complicated structure.

While it is true that national and international history didactics have substantially surpassed the traditionally simplistic interpretation of historical thinking in the past decades, it is more challenging to put the steps of development into operation than to formulate the goals, and therefore, there is still room for improvement regarding teaching practices. It does not mean that general standards were formulated but that the main building blocks and the methods of development are being outlined.

There is probably no need to prove that the dimensions of past, present and future are parts of the nature of human thinking – from childhood – and therefore we can say that thinking in history is the inevitable form of human thinking (Lukacs, 2005). However, historical thinking does not develop automatically. It assumes several specific methodological competencies beyond remembrance, and therefore requires specific preparation and the application of a complex methodology.

Some elements of historical thinking (the dimensions of space and time, the relation between actors and events, the identification of preliminary events and explanation of consequences) can be established in the lower grades of school by processing specific stories. However, the development of the ability to distinguish between reality and fiction is crucial in this process (Kratochvil, 2014). In the upper grades of school, the processing of the background of stories establishes causal thinking. This means that students will understand that one event or phenomenon can have several causes and effects and that these causes are not always based on rational decisions. Additionally, the system of concepts that consists of identifiable social categories and enables students to understand basic socio-economic, cultural and religious structures of specific periods as well as to detect different historical approaches and perspectives can also be developed at this age.

In the process of developing historical thinking, it is certainly of great importance for students to realize how an “ordinary” event becomes an inevitable historical fact in the context of collective memory and historical interpretation and what causes and effects can be attached to this historical event. It is equally important to identify the perspective from which a certain historical event is interpreted, to understand that our knowledge of the past is based on a certain group of sources (e.g. original documents, contemporary or recent

historiography) and that there might be other types of sources, evidence or interpretations of the history we know. Thus, presenting various viewpoints through the application of multiperspective and controversial perspective is of great significance. It is inevitable for the students to realize the paradox during their studies of history that historical events demonstrate the continuous presence of the past (e.g. the living conditions or mentality) and at the same time, indicate its constant changes (e.g. technical development, approaches to nature).

Historical thinking develops through the practice of complex, extensive and diverse learning activities, through the specific relationship of many building blocks that are interconnected and constantly changing. Due to its complexity, historical thinking consists of intellectual competencies that are connected to historical contents and topics (historical perspective) and contains elements connected to the general methodology of knowledge building. The goal is to acquire the professional and methodological competencies essential for historical consciousness in the framework of a planned and systematic process of development. By employing individual and group work in class, a motivating environment can be created that encourages students' emotional, intellectual efforts and advances the application of higher-level cognitive skills. As a result, students explicitly develop their historical knowledge while their ability to interpret history (analogical thinking) is implicitly improved.

The new approach to history teaching highlights the significance of the development of transversal skills (critical thinking, problem-solving, cooperation), relies greatly on the potential of knowledge transfer and on the development of a flexible set of knowledge essential for the interpretation of history. In this process, the generalizations drawn from the various specific stories and phenomena play an important part, because these will contribute to the establishment of the basic structures of historical thinking.

<b>Methodological competencies</b>	<b>FLEXIBLE CONTENTS:</b> From the history of human civilization and national history, from the current global and local challenges and citizenship education	<b>Intellectual competencies</b>
Observation and investigation, comparison, grouping, classification and systematization		Orientation in time and space
Data collection, calculations, systematization, planning, modeling. Processing and management of information, the use of ICT tools and technical devices.		Narrative approach, causal thinking, recognition and application of alternatives
<b>Personal and social competencies</b>		Multiperspective approach, analogical thinking, recognition of patterns
Open-mindedness, empathy, social cooperation, creativity, reflective attitude.		Critical thinking, problem-solving
Social sensitivity, responsibility, positive thinking, ethical sense		<b>Communication competencies</b>
		Oral and written expressiveness, the use of digital information sources, audiovisual approach, the use of presentation techniques, interactivity (connectivity).

*Table 5: The competency domains of historical literacy*

*Source: made by the author*

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During the analysis of history, inductive, deductive and analogical processes are realized. However, an advanced correlative reasoning is also necessary in order to understand historical processes and the interconnections between them. This would enable individuals to detect and identify analogical historical events and to decipher underlying patterns that can be interpreted as “hidden schemes of story-structure”, for example this scheme: peaceful life → attack by foreign forces → crisis, suffering → heroic struggle → victory over the foreign forces → peace (Pataki, 2010), is applicable to detect underlying communicative intentions, tools of manipulation and deeper historical correlations. The new type of history teaching involves the acquisition of a differentiated historical thinking enabling students to “flexibly adapt data, facts, concepts and schemes of history in the three-dimensionality of past, present and future, as well as to apply the methods of historical examination (to detect and define a historical problem, to formulate criticism and interpretation)” (F. Dárdai, 2006). In order to achieve this, the ability to apply specific historical knowledge and to form an adaptable framework of interpretation is essential. With this framework “the processed events and known trends can be effectively applied in well-structured new situations” while it also supports the understanding of past and present as well as the interpretation of future changes (Lee, 2004, as cited in Kojanitz, 2013). As a result, a more complex history teaching is required that also includes the basic components of civic competency, “the combination of such knowledge, skills, abilities and values that make the individual capable of effectively participating in an everyday life that is based on democratic values in a civil society.” (Hoskins & Crick, 2008). A comprehensive development of these contributes to the establishment of modern historical thinking allowing students to realize that human action always depends on time, space and interest, and that with the help of history, present events can be “framed” and better understood.

Following progressive international examples, the 2012 version of the National Core Curriculum (NCC) of Hungary also included in the Man and Society cultural domain, the requirement for deepening the knowledge connected to key concepts that contribute to the understanding and interpretation of history. The document lists these concepts: historical time, change and continuity, causes and effects, historical sources, facts and evidence, interpretation, significance, historical perspective. Based on this, the objective for the development of these key concepts was also included in the detailed requirements of the framework curricula that supports the implementation of the NCC (NAT, 2012).

## *9. Problem-solving*

Traditional teaching practice viewed tasks (especially in the case of subjects requiring oral participation) as supplements for processing the curriculum. The defining method of this processing was presentation and explanation of the teacher or perhaps a joint discussion with students. Students’ individual work was inevitably overshadowed in this context as the dynamics of the class were determined by the intensity and depth of the subject teacher’s explanation.

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As a result of the paradigm shift in education, learning is no longer the understanding of the knowledge developed by science and transferred by teachers but the active participation of students in the acquisition and processing of information. Consequently, many international documents on educational policy urge the application of individual and group work of students for efficient learning. It is also emphasized that “students don’t have the same abilities and neither their needs nor their working style is the same [...], something that is optimal for one student will not be so for the other” (Halász, 2005).

During the past decade, the use of problem-solving activities in the classroom has become the key element of competency-based development in several countries. Instead of the reproduction of what has been learnt, problem-solving means the solution of mentally and emotionally challenging tasks and problems that require students to be open-minded and creative as well as to apply analogical, analytical and combinative reasoning. In this new form of education, activities became the ultimate resource of development, consisting of complex, cognitive, affective or psychomotor sequences of tasks (steps) (Bábosik, 2006). In other words, these are active student tasks in the form of problem-solving as the processing of the material with the help of information sources (e.g. text, image, graph) requires students to work actively in groups or by themselves. This approach also highlights the fact that tasks do not only develop intellectual understanding but, through volitional-emotional factors, for instance, they support personality development. In this regard, tasks can convey a wide range of functions (norms, practice, forming of habits, management, development of skills and abilities) as during the process of solving a task, students are required to use several actions and operations.

Problem-oriented processing is described under the concepts of problem-based learning, discovery learning or inquiry learning in the professional literature. This approach moves away from the mechanical learning of information, instead, it is based on the “recognition that students’ activity and authentic context play an important role in the efficiency of learning (Hmelo & Silver, 2004; Jonassen, 1997., 1999). The problem that arises from their lack of knowledge makes students more motivated and focused when solving the tasks (Brown, Collins and Duguid, 1989. 10; Gordon, 1998. 11; Newman et al., 1996. 12; VanSickle and Hoge, 1991. 13)” (as cited in Kojanitz, 2010).

Problem-oriented history teaching centers around the question of “WHY?” and its multiperspective exploration, instead of the questions of “Who?”, “When?” and “Where?”. It seeks to encourage students to explore a problem from various perspectives by connecting different historical documents and issues and to come up with an explanation or interpretation (Stradling, 2003). It aims to develop an approach that encourages the broadening of existing knowledge and the achievement of a new perspective that questions even what is obvious. It motivates students to apply the acceptable answers of history to their own worldviews and actions.

In the practice of problem-oriented learning there is a carefully selected problem or motivating question in the focus of processing. The multiperspective examination and analysis of this problem or issue provides the basis for the mutual work of teacher and students. Depending on the complexity of the problem, the processing might be carried

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out within the framework of one lesson, a course (subject, semester) or project-teaching. The process of problem-oriented learning consists of three phases: the first one is the so-called motivational phase, when a problem is identified in relation to one or more historical documents that are capable of attracting students' interest. Apart from motivating students, this problem should be able to encourage the formulation of a hypothesis, a thorough consideration of the causes and the investigation of tools for interpreting and solving – even in different ways – the question. The second step is the phase of solution. Here, students confirm or contradict the hypothesis, interpretation or explanation they constructed with the help of analysis and investigation of information and documents they previously collected in various types of learning forms (pair work, group work, simulations, role play, discussion). During the third and closing phase, students discuss and organize the results they collected (data, facts, statements, doubts, conclusions) and, if possible, try to connect these to their own lives. Furthermore, students can also determine the possible individual and social actions to be taken regarding the processing of the problem. This type of work may stimulate thinking processes (e.g. reasoning, critical thinking, creativity) and develop different types of thinking skills (classification, comparison, analogy, extrapolation etc.) because during the processing of the tasks (discussion, debate etc.) solutions may be reached that are different from the preconceived ideas.

Competency-based teaching and problem-solving practices have changed the status of activities carried out in the classroom. As the main tools for processing the curriculum and achieving personal development, activities and the dominance of active student participation during the lesson play a key role in securing the efficiency of education. At the same time, the changing objectives of development has underlined the importance of interaction between the teacher and students and required the application of novel organizational learning procedures (lesson blocks, project etc.), tasks (portfolio, presentation etc.) and methods (drama pedagogy, storyline, gamification etc.).

Among the individual and cooperative methods of learning, the project-based method should definitely be highlighted. The pedagogical application of this method is connected to the United States, to reform pedagogy and to the principles of John Dewey. This method mainly covers those forms of organizational learning where students work together, in cooperation with each other in order to create a certain product. Its application in pedagogy is based on the concept that “curricula are rooted in science and not in everyday life, therefore they decontextualize knowledge. Thus, knowledge is detached from the problems it should solve and set into a disciplinary logic. However, the project is interdisciplinary and the knowledge to be acquired is always closely connected to a practical problem” (Knausz, 2001).

The word “portfolio” comes from the business world, where it was used for a certain type of briefcase carrying all the elements of a specific product, a real or a fictive “file”. In pedagogy, the term is used for the documentation of the learning process, the collection of experiences gained during learning. Its pedagogic function is to provide a picture of the main stages of the learning process making the evaluation of learning outcomes easier. The learning activity is reflected in the portfolio, which may contain the questions,



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conclusions, activities and experiences connected to the processing (Kaposi & Száray, 2009). A possible structure of the portfolio is the KWL, or Know, Want to know, Learn.

Applying the practices of drama pedagogy, on the one hand, may support the deepening of formerly processed curriculum, but on the other hand, they are also capable of launching the exploration of the characteristics of a new era or examining a historical situation from another point of view. The tools of drama pedagogy include: role cards - when fictional or real historical figures are presented; problem-solving drama - presents a decisive moment, in which students participate along the lines of given values and interests; simulation game - that supports the understanding of a certain institution or custom (e.g. manor courts, general assembly of the county, or the stock market); court hearing - when students have to discuss and give their judgement on historical figures and the deeds of certain historical figures along with their underlying motivation and responsibility; freeze-frame - when students (using their own bodies) provide a visual representation of a typical event or scene of an era; tableau - students present all the characters of a historical event, sometimes even presenting different moments in time. Through these tasks, students are able to take part in certain historical situations and they can try to imagine what they would do in a similar situation. Thus, the processing of the material requires not only a higher-level cognitive activity but a certain level of emotional identification as well, and therefore knowledge becomes a personal experience. The key concepts are role and identification. A new form of drama pedagogy - an independent method according to some - is the Storyline method. This means that the subject is processed through a frame story, for example, the members of a fictional family and the events and problems related to them are used to maintain motivation and provide diverse learning situations.

One of the most recent interactive methods is gamification. In this method, the mechanisms of an online or offline game are employed as a strategy. The objective is to motivate and activate the participants; "it is based on the strategy of applying the elements of the game in a non-gaming environment in order to change the behaviour of the users in a positive way" (Pusztai, 2018).

A wide range of innovative tasks are available that require meaningful learning from the thought-map to code-switching activities (describing a picture in text) and visual aids (drawing diagrams, tables) or disputes (structured debate). The learning process has an inductive/deductive/analogical basis in these activities but the steps of development require thorough planning, as "there are phases in the didactical process when students are not yet ready for individual work or for the application of their knowledge. In this case, the goal is identification and classification and preparation for the next productive step" (Einhorn, 2012).

The priority requirement of history teaching is the development of key competencies. Therefore, the application of comparative tasks is particularly useful: for example, the varying description of the same concepts (vassals, familiars), ages (Middle Ages, Modern History), regions (center, periphery), historical actors and events in different types of documents. The tasks focusing on contextualization, in other words, on the demonstration of how a certain local or regional event is connected to continental or world events,

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is also essential. The investigative types of activities are also inevitable, for example, the examination of different codes (verbal or visual) or the description of arguments and evidences, analogies and schemes and the identification of the author's prejudice in a document. Creativity and communication are developed by activities that require students to prepare some kind of product such as a presentation, poster, fictional dialogue, film, interview, comic book, argumentative essay or the basic structure of a new website.

One of the most distinctive characteristics of problem-solving activities is that "the path to a solution is not obvious at the beginning, (...) the cultural domains and curricular contents that could be used, cannot be found in any area of science" (Halász, 2006). The contents of these tasks are often related to interdisciplinary and special development areas and their application requires innovative organizational learning methods (drama pedagogy, project etc.) and developmental assessment. The motivational base of these tasks induces interest and surprise in order to enhance intrinsic learning (Réthy, 1998) therefore making the process of studying a real activity.

Active student participation is at the center of these new types of activities. The goal is to motivate students and to pique their curiosity thus contribute to their meaningful and experience-based learning. It is also important to support their attempts to find solutions and create hypotheses and models, in other words, to help them experience the joys of learning. In the process, the teacher can best support his/her students by providing a diverse learning environment, by being empathic and by employing the tools of formative assessment.

### *Summary*

The complex interpretation of the culture of memory (historiography, memorials, personal history) and its connection with personal and collective identity is of great importance. The past needs to be distinguished from processed history, the characteristic of the historians' approach and work has to be outlined along with the controversial and multiperspective approach to an event or phenomenon. Efforts should be made to overcome the former practice of history teaching that is characterized by simplification, "fact fetishism", ideologically-driven and "processological" nature. The understanding of the local (national) cultural code system – following the global trends – is becoming increasingly important in terms of the establishment of collective identity, "education should introduce students to the world of national narratives. (...) We can only build our identities and find our places in our culture through these narratives. Schools should not consider it natural but should maintain and nurture this method" (Kinyó, 2005).

The historical key competencies described in the international professional literature are basically designed to facilitate the processing and understanding of historical documents (written, oral, primary, secondary, textual, visual etc.), as well as to enhance the acquisition of the basic skills of critical thinking and their application in different situations (Stradling, 2001).

<b>Interacting effectively and constructively with others</b>	<b>Thinking critically</b>	<b>Acting in a socially responsible manner</b>	<b>Acting democratically</b>
Self-confidence	Multiperspectivity	Respect for the justice	Respect for democracy (and the fundamental principles of democracy)
Responsibility	Reasoning and analysis skills	Solidarity	Knowledge of the political institutions
Autonomy (personal initiative)	Data interpretation	Respect for other human beings	Knowledge of political processes
	Knowledge discovery and use of sources	Respect for human rights	Knowledge of international organizations, treaties and declarations
Respect for different opinions and beliefs	Media literacy	Sense of belonging	Interacting with political authorities
	Creativity	Sustainable development	Knowledge of fundamental political and social concepts
Cooperation	Exercising (careful) judgement	Environmental protection	Respect for the rules
Conflict resolution	Understanding the present world	Cultural heritage protection	Knowledge of or participation in civil society
Empathy	Questioning	Knowing about and respecting other cultures	
Self-awareness		Knowing about and respecting religions	
Communication and listening		Non-discrimination	

*Table 6: Development of attitudes, conveying of norms*

*Source: Citizenship Education at school in Europe 2017. Eurydice Report.*

*[https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/national-policies/eurydice/content/citizenship-education-school-europe-%E2%80%93-2017\\_en](https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/national-policies/eurydice/content/citizenship-education-school-europe-%E2%80%93-2017_en)*

The long-term social policy goals (national and European identity, social solidarity, commitment to democracy) induce history teaching with a complex approach that highlights the importance of Judeo-Christian, Greco-Roman values, humanist principles, the basic ideas of the Enlightenment and the formation of attitudes based on the dominant ideas of the 19th century. With a view to present and future challenges, it is important to maintain the connection of the subject of history to social studies and to include the basic elements of civic competency.

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In order to find answers to the new challenges, history teaching has to focus on stories (the development of narrative competencies), on the multiperspective processing of historical documents and the establishment of a cultural code system. The narrative method “plays an important role in the creation of personal and collective identities through the application of stories and a common cultural code system” (Pataki, 2003). The stories, in other words, the narrative structures (time, plot, actors, perspective, intentions) and the known schemes, scripts or templates are capable of conveying techniques of data processing and learning.

To conclude, the main building blocks of historical literacy are the following: knowledge of narratives, establishment of collective identity, understanding the historians’ point of view, recognition of analogies and patterns and the acquisition of adaptive historical thinking. In this process, citizenship education that is based on democratic attitudes, critical thinking, specific stories focusing on the interest of students and the multiperspective and diverse processing of various historical documents plays an important role. Furthermore, the establishment of a common cultural code system based on national traditions, the processing of local, regional, national, European and global issues as well as the application of a wide range of interactive pedagogical methods that enhance students’ active learning, are likewise of great significance.

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# Compass to New Paths in History Teaching

## by Richárd Fodor

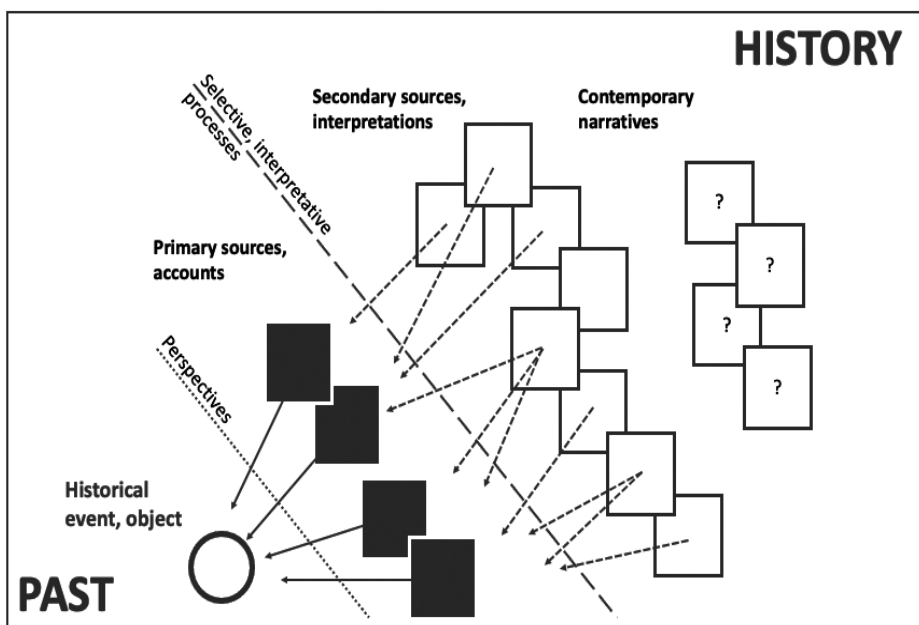
### *Abstract*

The world is constantly changing, a new generation appears in the classrooms, new challenges arise and educators do not have the luxury of providing the same answers and solutions to the upcoming debates and questions. This paper aims at introducing and summarizing new approaches, strategies, and methods of history teaching. First of all, I summarize the roots and approach of a multiperspective history view. Secondly, I introduce the most significant concepts and definitions of history didactics. Thirdly, I suggest new methods for the history classroom based on international practices, and I recommend a practical scheme for promoting learning tasks which potentially develop historical thinking in face-to face education and the online world as well. Finally, the paper includes an example activity module of a blended learning activity collection.

### *1. Multiperspective history view*

The English word perspective (just like the German *Perspektive*, Polish *perspektywa* or Hungarian *perspektíva*) can be traced back to the Latin word *perspecio*. The compound word of *per* (through) and *specio* (look) means *viewing through* something. The expression refers to the fact that every participant or witness of an event detects and perceives the same happenings from a unique angle. Their experiences, opinions and standpoints are highly likely to be different from those of the others. The historical evidence, accounts and narratives are later found and read by professional and laic researchers, leading to the process of selection and interpretation which leads us to the essence of history.

History is not restricted to the description of a single truth; it is not rigid, but fluid and it is changing constantly (Chapman, 2011). Its dynamic nature is the consequence of discourse and debates about parallel evidence, accounts, narratives, and interpretations. Different themes and events are frequently revisited and reinterpreted, creating a new understanding based on the same set of evidence. Restricting textbooks, history lessons or news to a single narrative about a complex historical issue is a grievous error or an act of manipulation. Students should be educated to view history in its complexity, use frameworks of interpretation similar to the methods of historians and, as a consequence, improve their critical historical thinking.



1. *relations of past and history, own diagram*

Students should be thoroughly introduced to the concepts of history, memory, past, perspective, interpretation, and selection. As the diagram suggests, teachers must make time for introducing the complex mechanisms and processes which lay beneath the interpretative and selective nature of history. They should make it clear that historical evidence, interpretations and their background motives should be carefully observed, analysed, scrutinised and questioned.

## 2. *Short History of Multiperspectivity*

The history-teaching approach introducing multiperspective thinking appeared in the discourse of New History at the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. The New History distanced itself from positivist national political history, which focused on data and acts of historical characters. The new approach of history teaching moved towards social sciences. New viewpoints, new social layers, and groups entered the professional discussion. The New History affected history teaching as well. The new aim became a balanced view including historical knowledge, chronological perspective and historical thinking, working with primary sources (textual, visual, and audio-visual) and historical interpretations. In South-East Europe new history teaching objectives arose after the collapse of the Soviet bloc. New curricula, courses and teaching materials were developed promoting new structures and new approaches in primary and secondary education. The reform process was supported by seminars and courses of the Council of Europe. The primary didactic aim became changing students' activity level: to motivate students to become involved in

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the teaching and learning process instead of participating passively. According to Robert Strandling, advisor, and researcher of the Council, this is only possible by acquiring a set of abilities, skills, and competencies, such as autonomous understanding, categorising, and evaluating of historical sources and multiperspective thinking (Strandling, 2001).

The first declaration of the importance of multiperspective and controversial history views occurred in 2000, when two important societies organised public conferences on history teaching.

First, EuroClio - European Association of History Educators organised an event in Lisbon entitled 'Remembering and Commemorating History'. The conference highlighted the significance of multiple perspectives in history education, including national and European viewpoints. (Euroclio Annual Report 2000)

Second, the International Society for History Didactics also had an important session about multiperspectivity at the World Historian Congress in Oslo (F. Dárdai, 2002). The participants of the conference promoted the inclusion of multiple and controversial historical sources, methods, and tools in history lessons. The lectures concluded that the primary objective of history education was establishing the idea that there is no universal truth and solution to historical questions and everybody must find their place and role in the world by learning and integrating different views and arguments. Source analysis was identified as the primary apparatus to adopt the multiperspective approach. Ágnes F. Dárdai, a participant at the conference, highlighted that, although essential, analysis of sources is insufficient for competence development without considering sources that take different views.

### *3. Methodology of the History Classrooms*

#### **3.1. Who do we teach?**

In the third decade of the new millennium, educators find themselves in a complex situation, which is further complicated by the needs of the digital generation.

In Hungary, we witness an aging society of educators. According to the latest OECD data on Hungary, only 3.2% of secondary school teachers are younger than 30 and 43.6% are older than 50 (OECD, 2020). This data indicates that most of the teachers belong to Generation X, sometimes labelled as the MTV Generation, or the last before the digital revolution (McCrinkle, 2018). Globally this generation was the first to have computers as working tools. They represent a gap between the Boomers and the digital age.

On the other hand, students of primary and secondary school belong to Generations Z and  $\alpha$ . They were born after 1995 and 2010. The latter group is also characterised as Gen Tech, referring to the fact that the last two generations are not learners, but acquirers of digital technology, also labelled as millennials or digital integrators.

Most of the teachers are migrants to the digital world organised by the internet, while students are digital natives which leads to extreme differences among their everyday experiences and attitudes toward life. Hungarian researcher Enikő Szóke-Milinte notes that

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the digital generations are frequently said to be addicted to web-based platforms which no longer require users to acquire or absorb information and content, but permit them to create, share and advertise it as well (Szőke-Milinte, 2020).

Szőke-Milinte suggests a difference between the cognition of Generation X and Generations Z and  $\alpha$  based on the different activities causing different learning styles. Gen X and those born earlier used the language and memory-oriented regions of their minds during acquisition of information from books, while digital natives use and develop their prefrontal cortex during browsing. This activity, involving clicking on links and collecting information, creates a high volume of decision-making and problem-solving situations. The task of searching the internet is made more difficult by a wide range of textual and visual distractors.

In conclusion, Szőke-Milinte advises that the most important aim of education should be the development of information selection which can be improved by methods involving (1) critical thinking, (2) long-term information storing (3) cooperation and (4) a problem-oriented approach (Szőke-Milinte, 2020).

### **3.2. How Should We Approach Teaching?**

The first condition or requirement of the change of pedagogical culture is the modification of roles in the classrooms. Educators can no longer follow the traditional Herbartian role of information mediators as they have not been the only source of data for a long time. Teachers should become facilitators of education, they ought to be aware of the new cognition and learning styles of their students, and they should motivate and involve them in the learning process. Students should be at the centre of the teaching process, and the basis of cooperation should be mutually established clear classroom rules and frameworks. This approach not only requires an advanced didactic view but also a democratic type of leadership.

Learning strategies and teaching methods are often seen, in a metaphor, as different parallel paths to the same mountain peak which stands for new knowledge and improved competences (Oxford, 2003). There are a lot of paths which can lead the students to improve their historical thinking. Iván Falus, distinguished expert of didactics, established a two-level category system for the activities conducted in the classroom which are the methods and strategies. In this system, methods are elemental classroom activities involving students and teachers while strategies include a complex system of previously planned and deliberate use of methods, tools and ways of organisation to a well-defined aim (Falus, 2003).

Szőke-Milinte supplements the definition of Falus and adds the dimension of time-defining strategies as long-term plans including the design of leadership, coordination, processes and instructions. She also established three types of strategies: empirical, problem-solving, and programmed and modelling (Szőke-Milinte 2020: 116).

The empirical strategy is built on sensory perception, involving activity-based inductive thinking, and includes five steps of (1) data collection (2) conceptualization (3) revision,

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organisation, categorisation on higher level of abstraction (4) adaptation, establishment of skills (5) evaluation. This way, students not only read and recite, but also reconstruct and adapt the data in new circumstances.

The core of problem-oriented strategies is the insufficient amount of information available for the answer to a question or resolution to a problem. Students need to adapt to a new approach, new ideas, and new cognitive activities.

Programmed learning can be traced back to behaviourist theories. Strategies of programmed learning are based on the sequencing of tasks, breaking it down into smaller steps, logical structure, and personalised progress.

Finally, modelling strategies are the result of constructivist pedagogy theories. A modelling strategy starts with mapping the new learning materials on the basis of previous concepts.

### 3.3. New approaches

New approaches emerged in the methodology of history classrooms in the last two decades which reflect the research methods of historians, inquiry-based teaching strategies with special attention to oral history sources.

Inquiry-based learning is built on the idea of John Dewey claiming that active participation and authentic environment are important factors of successful learning (Wineburg, 2001; Kojanitz, 2021). The OECD 2030 Learning Compass identifies **student agency** as a main factor of learning as a response to social challenges fulfilling ‘the need for students to learn to navigate by themselves through unfamiliar contexts and find their direction in a meaningful and responsible way, instead of simply receiving fixed instructions or directions from their teachers.’ (OECD, 2019). Inquiry-based learning improves students’ agency, the ability to take action by providing them with the tools and techniques of investigating authentic sources and creating their own narratives. The strategy includes higher-order and extended cognitive thinking skill-improvement (compare, contrast, synthesize, evaluate, use) which reflects the modes and practices of professional historians. The lesson planned and organised according to the approach is built around a question (e.g. *Who was the winner of the second world war?*) which is followed by a structured system of tasks involving primary textual, visual and audio-visual sources, interpretations, and the support of the educator. Inquiry includes the thorough and professional scrutiny of the sources. Students should find out the reasons, arguments, motives, and intentions of selection and manipulation. A significant motivating element of the strategy is the incorporation of **oral history** sources. Primary sources from witnesses of a historical event can lead to the spark which triggers the curiosity of students to learn more about a given theme. However, watching and listening to the sources does not lead to real improvement of skills. Learners of history should analyse, compare, and evaluate the sources in order to gain a set of critical transversal skills which enable them to implement the approach to other fields of studies and to their everyday life decision-making.

Euroclio, Association for History Educators, established in 1992, is dedicated to support history and civic education teachers with innovative teaching practices and methods. One of the most recent intriguing documents developed by the association, entitled **Learning to Disagree**, promotes a multiperspective view based on a triple methodology (EuroClio, 2020). EuroClio facilitated a project with the same title between 2019-2020 to develop a project investigating the background and methods of multiperspective thinking. The project resulted in a set of workshops, seminars and a teachers' guide summarizing the findings.

The teachers' guide aims at developing multiperspective thinking through the methods of dialogue, discussion, and debate. The three terms differ in their level of rules, organisation, and the strength of opposition and the capacity to change their views.

Teachers' definition to DDD		
Dialogue	Discussion	Debate
“Between two or more people sharing ideas. People in a dialogue are willing to change viewpoints. It is freer of rules and organisation. However, there is a Socratic meaning that involves a guided dialogue. Someone in dialogue could be trying to find a definition of a problem. Therefore, dialogue could also be very structured. Dialogue is not necessarily around a contentious issue. It could be seen to be more values based.”	“Feels to be more about informal and circular and back and forth conversation. People in a discussion are more willing to change viewpoint. Many issues can be part of a discussion. It is freer of rules and organisation. Discussion in Spanish has different connotations – a colloquial struggle. More controversy is likely than is the case with dialogue.”	“Seen more as a difference of viewpoints, a sharing of ideas with sides to be taken. Debate is something where the parties are defending their viewpoints and therefore may be less willing to change their viewpoint at the time, although their views may shift later. Perceived as mostly two sided with the goal being to win a one-issue controversy. Debate means preparation, rules, organisation, and presentation. It has a more established procedure that may have to be learnt. Debate can also be broadened out into something more dialogic in the classroom.”

*2. Definitions of the key concepts of learning to disagree, (Euroclio, 2020)*

The short summaries of the three pillars define the framework which is supported by the didactic aim of multiperspective history view and the active and motivated participation of the learners. The framework also provides a thorough and precise set of methods which take advantage of the concepts of dialogue, discussion, and debate.

The innovative methods are adaptable to the digital-learning environment as well. They build on questioning pre-existing narratives, stereotypes, contrasting controversial opinions and synthesizing parallel interpretations.

<b>Method</b>	<b>Participation of students</b>	<b>Details</b>
<b>Dinner party table</b>	Engaging in discussion about the relative similarity and difference of specific viewpoints.	Practising discussion. Identifying nuance and complexity of views concerning a topic. Analysing degrees of connection between viewpoints.
<b>Balloon debate</b>	Engaging in debate about the relative importance of a factor to a topic.	Practising researching and constructing an evidence-based argument for debate. Practising refutation, with evidence, of an argument during a debate.
<b>Speed-dating</b>	Dialogue in pairs in sequence leading to whole class discussion of perspectives on a topic.	Practising listening and persuading in dialogue with one other person. Amending and reforming ideas and opinions. Identifying and analysing points of connection between people and perspectives.
<b>Boxing Match</b>	Debating in pairs focusing on use of factual evidence and not assertion or style.	The importance of substantiating assertions with a verifiable evidence base. How important it is to be well-briefed and how much careful work is required to become knowledgeable.
<b>Becoming a picture</b>	Purposefully and literally taking a position in order to better understand a perspective.	How a wider event was experienced from a particular perspective. To empathise with the variety of valid and informed viewpoints on topics.
<b>Fishbowl</b>	In depth discussion on one aspect of a topic and listening to an in-depth discussion.	How to gain knowledge to discuss in depth. The ingredients of a successful discussion. Varied perspectives on a wider topic.
<b>Four Corners</b>	Expressing and justifying an opinion by moving into position for discussion.	Forming, expressing and justifying an opinion. How opinions can change as a result of discussion and gaining further knowledge.
<b>Silent placemat conversation</b>	Giving thoughts and opinions and raising questions in writing.	How to be attentive to the thoughts and opinions of everyone in the class. Steady focus upon a variety of perspectives to form opinions. How to discuss in written form.
<b>Role-playing</b>	Taking on a character or role in order to discuss/debate a topic/issue.	The complexity, plethora of perspectives and overlapping positions that exist in relation to a topic or issue.
<b>All-stand consensus</b>	Working together to explore common ground and articulate an answer or position.	The extent of common ground on a topic, or a widely acceptable answer to a question. How to build consensus. How difficult it can be to build consensus.

### *3. methods of motivating DDD (EuroClio, 2020)*

The methods are bare ideas, hints to start the process of creative thinking and adapt the overarching concept to the history lessons, even in the online learning environment.

The students participating in lessons and projects designed according to the essence of DDD are inclined to develop their historical and critical thinking skills and consequently improve their social and civic key competence.

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### 3.4. Visual content

Creative and innovative methods are essential but not exclusive components of success in the history classroom. In the design process, educators need to build on a wide range of evidence, accounts, interpretations, and narratives from different genres. In the following section, the focus is on visual historical sources.

Visual historical sources can be categorised in three groups: sources of fine art, pictures of historical sources, and diagrams depicting and modelling events, phenomena.

Visual sources are crucial for the students of Generations Z and  $\alpha$ , so history classrooms should include a thorough and critical analysis of digital and printed sources. According to Barnabás Vajda, the applied visual content of the lessons can be defined as *illustrations* and *historical sources* and grouped into 14 types among sources of fine arts (photos, drawings, paintings, posters, caricatures, cartoon strips) pictures of other historical sources, and diagrams (modelling historical events, processes, flowcharts, statistics, tables) and cartographic sources.

Vajda asserts that the mere inclusion of visual sources does not lead to the development of historical thinking, only historical sources with a didactic background are able to improve competences. The main aspect differentiating illustrations and visual historical sources is the connected didactic apparatus which is a set of questions and tasks. Illustrations of textbooks are not significant parts of the lessons, however visual historical sources motivate students and offer them features, aspects and angles to consider and analyse for extended thinking (Vajda, 2018).

The role of visual sources was not always considered significant in history textbooks and lessons in Hungary. The visual revolution of textbooks came during the 1960'-1970's. In this period, previous approaches applying a strong ideological background started to change, textbooks filled exclusively with authorial texts started to disappear, and new source-based and visually rich textbooks were published.

Photographs are the most common visual sources of history textbooks and lessons. Children of the second millennia can hardly imagine a life without depicting the world around us. For Joseph Niepce, the first professional photographer, it took eight hours to take a picture. The first two historical events to be documented by photographers were the Crimean War and the American Civil War. With the reduction of exposure time professional photography distanced itself from prearranged settings and scenes, and until the twentieth century this artistic form conquered the world producing the highest number of visual sources.

Multitudes of visual sources with different perspectives may contribute to the development of multiperspective view. Political cartoons, caricatures and propaganda pictures provide excellent opportunities for classroom work as they convey their messages with exaggeration, criticism and humour.



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### 3.4.1. Caricatures

The first caricatures can be traced back to one of the first visual artforms of the ancient Greek civilization: vase painting (Mitchell, 2004). Different forms of the Hellenic humour called *geloion* can be found on several thousand-year-old vases, their forms and schemes differing from ordinary paintings. The first pieces of caricatures introduced new shapes and techniques, such as the depiction of a famous person as a dwarf.

The role of caricatures in history didactics is very close to propaganda pictures; analysis of their background and underlying messages and motives promotes the critical and multiperspectivic thinking of students. Apparatus of caricatures include symbols, personification, exaggeration, and humour. The first printed caricatures emerged in the 18th century and their original role was to reflect public opinion about different people and social events, especially for the illiterate (Strandling, 2001). This role requires artists to convey their messages in a special and complex way which provides students with good opportunities to practice their skills. Caricatures catch the eyes, motivate understanding and raise the attention of the observers. Sometimes they summarize whole historical eras or topics. They operate nearly exclusively in visual channels of communication, and they can be analysed from the perspective of iconography as well. Caricature artists show their contemporary reality, public thinking, and a specific viewpoint in exaggerated ways. They do not aim to provide a balanced point of view about a specific subject so they cannot be exclusive historical sources of a classroom. On the other hand, by combining and contrasting with other accounts and narratives students may gain a more detailed and deeper level of understanding.

### 3.4.2. Propaganda pictures

The English word propaganda originates from the Latin verb '*propagare*' meaning '*spread*' and is strongly connected and associated with the planned advertisement of messages, visions, and dogmas of political ideologies, primarily in autocratic political systems. World history offers a wide range of instances when politicians and movements used this visual form for their messages. The ongoing and most significant aim of propaganda is to raise the attention of the observer, which is a beneficial trait in the history classroom. Propaganda posters use different tools to catch the attention such as strong colour tones, symbolism referring to the own community and the "others" and motivating verbal slogans. As did a lot of media, propaganda posters experienced their first big wave of popularity during the first world war and became the weapon of internal and external fighting against the enemy.

Inclusion of caricatures and propaganda posters has a tradition in the British culture and educational system as well. The English system of exams titled *General Certificate of Secondary Education* and the preparatory textbook also contain a large variety of caricatures, political cartoons, and propaganda pictures to which a lot of creative tasks are connected.

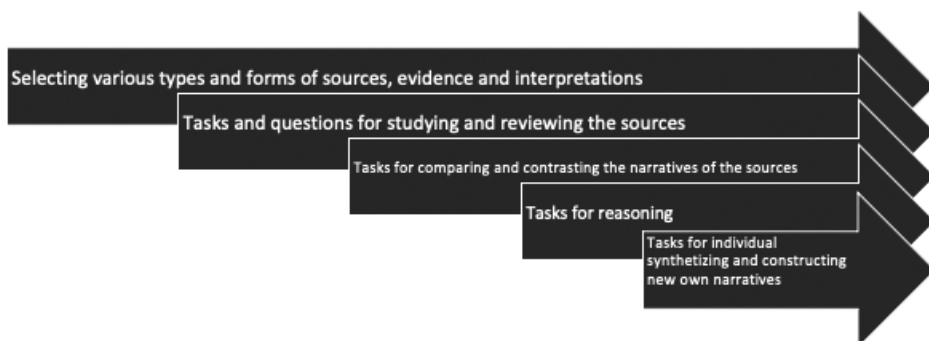
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## 4. Practice



*How can we plan activity blocks which develop the multiperspective competence?*

The key to competence-based and student activity promoting techniques and strategies are planning and preparation.



*4. steps for planning a competence-based activity, own diagram*

Without didactic preparation, the most interesting topic or historical source may remain a simple page in a history book, serving no real competence development. During the activity planning phase, it is worth considering the five steps of the arrow diagram. The whole process is characterised by the choice of sources, which should fit not only the cognitive level of students but also the optimal length and vocabulary for the given age group. The textbooks frequently but not always offer sources and evidence of the given historical object from different perspectives, so inclusion of further online sources (from various online databases, source collections, platforms and portals - see the advised list) is a significant component of planning.

In the preparatory process, educators ought to consider collecting historical accounts according to a previously selected subtopic which reflect on the same historical object (e.g. a personality or event) from different viewpoints, differing background and opposing motives and intentions. After reviewing the sources, students should be motivated to continue working with them on higher cognitive levels, including the identification, evaluation, comparison and creation of narratives.

After this short introduction to the concept, a complete module of the first appendix places theory into practice.

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## 5. Conclusion

My paper intended to identify the concepts and trends of history didactics early in the second millenia's third decade. Multiperspectivity as a guiding objective emerged with the approach of New History but is still not universally accepted as a principle of history didactics. Students are entering the classrooms in a world which faces new challenges, including the questioning of democratic values, and teachers need to provide them with a compass which shows an alternative path with critical thinking.

In this paper I highlighted the most significant milestones leading to the methods of a democratic, multiperspective and visually rich approach to history and civic education. I suggested concepts, methods, and ideas for different activities of competence development connected to extended thinking. Finally, I intended to include a practical and easily adaptable example of a modern activity aiming at improving historical, multiperspective thinking. In the appendix the reader finds a set of tasks and activities organised around visual and textual sources connected to the Spanish Civil War and Francisco Franco. The activity plan is not only printable but also adapted to [Historiana.eu](http://Historiana.eu), the online platform of EuroClio enabling students to work collaboratively in the only sphere.

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## Appendix 1: example module

### DIDACTIC MODULE OF EXAMPLE Propaganda of the Spanish Civil War

Age group: ISCED 3 (Hungarian Grade 11.)

Theme: IV. Europe and the rest of the world between the two world wars

*Didactic objectives: Identification, analysis, comparison, and synthesis of interpretations of the civil war. Developing multiperspective, critical and historical thinking.*

*Structure of the module: 4 visual sources, 1 secondary textual source, 9 didactic tasks*



Blended material: <http://hi.st/du>

In the module, visibility has the main role. After a short review, two political cartoons and two propaganda pictures need to be analysed, compared, and evaluated contributing to the development of an own historical narrative of the event.

#### Visual Sources:



1. Propaganda of the National Committee (Historiana.eu)



2. Nationalists (Historiana.eu)



3. Caricature of the Daily Mail, 1947  
(CartoonArchive)



4. Recruiting Poster of the Falangist movement  
(todocollection.es)

**Textual sources:**

1. Paul Johnson: Modern Times (1991, 330)  
*Foreign aid and intervention did not tip the military balance either way. The Nationalists won primarily because of the capacity and judgement of Franco. Though Franco was an unlovable man and is unlikely ever to win the esteem of historians, he must be accounted as one of the most successful public men of the century. His cold heart went with a cool head, great intelligence and formidable reserves of courage and will.*
2. Britannica Encyclopedia: Fransisco Franco <https://www.britannica.com/biography/Franccisco-Franco>  
*As commander in chief during the Civil War, Franco was a careful and systematic leader. He made no rash moves and suffered only a few temporary defeats as his forces advanced slowly but steadily; the only major criticism directed at him during the campaign was that his strategy was frequently unimaginative. Nevertheless, because of the relatively superior military quality of his army and the continuation of heavy German and Italian assistance, Franco won a complete and unconditional victory on April 1, 1939.*

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## DIDACTIC QUESTIONS AND TASKS: TASK SHEET

### 1. Reviewing the historical background

- Let's analyse the historical visual sources! What kind of symbols and colours can be identified on them?

- Which historical characters do you notice in the pictures?

- Which nation's conflict is depicted in the sources?

### 2. Analysis, finding the narratives

- What were the factions of this conflict?

- What are the most significant messages of the visual sources?

- What is the suggested opinion of the artist on picture 3. about the political power of Francisco Franco?

### 3. Comparison, synthesis, creation

- What is common between the form of depiction and artistic tools of source 1 and 4?

- Which narrative is more convincing? Why?

- Why could the artists of source 1 and 4 develop different opinions about the same events?

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## *Appendix 2: databases for source collection*

### **Sources of textual and visual contents**

Europeana	<a href="https://www.europeana.eu/hu">https://www.europeana.eu/hu</a>
Historiana	<a href="https://historiana.eu">https://historiana.eu</a>
British Cartoon Archive	<a href="https://archive.cartoons.ac.uk/Default.aspx?">https://archive.cartoons.ac.uk/Default.aspx?</a>
British Library	<a href="https://www.bl.uk">https://www.bl.uk</a>
Library of Congress	<a href="https://www.loc.gov">https://www.loc.gov</a>
Historical Association	<a href="https://www.history.org.uk">https://www.history.org.uk</a>
Imperial War Museums	<a href="https://www.iwm.org.uk">https://www.iwm.org.uk</a>
House of European History	<a href="https://historia-europa.ep.eu/en/welcome-house-european-history">https://historia-europa.ep.eu/en/welcome-house-european-history</a>
Universitat Bibliothek Heidelberg	<a href="https://www.ub.uni-heidelberg.de">https://www.ub.uni-heidelberg.de</a>
USC Shoa Foundation Iwitness	<a href="https://iwitness.usc.edu">https://iwitness.usc.edu</a>
Hungarian Digital Picture Gallery	<a href="https://kepkonyvtar.hu/jetspeed/portal/default-page.psml">https://kepkonyvtar.hu/jetspeed/portal/default-page.psml</a>
Hungarian National Museum	<a href="https://mnm.hu/hu/gyujtemenyek/torteneti-fenykeptar">https://mnm.hu/hu/gyujtemenyek/torteneti-fenykeptar</a>
Hungarian National Gallery	<a href="https://mng.hu/digitalis-muzeum/?per_page=-1&amp;offset=0&amp;current_page=1&amp;proposer_category=megnezem">https://mng.hu/digitalis-muzeum/?per_page=-1&amp;offset=0&amp;current_page=1&amp;proposer_category=megnezem</a>
Hungarian House of Terror	<a href="https://www.terrorhazafoto.hu">https://www.terrorhazafoto.hu</a>
National Széchenyi Library Oral History Archivum	<a href="http://www.oszk.hu/en/oral-history-archive">http://www.oszk.hu/en/oral-history-archive</a>

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## On the subject of Ethics

### by József Kormos

#### *Introduction*

*“All education requirements are at the same time moral requirements”* (Oelkers 1998, 188). Education contains moral and ethical activities to some extent. There can arise many ethical questions related to education: Who can educate? When and how can they educate? On what moral basis can some educate others? What ethical principles can be followed during education? What norms and values can be communicated and by whom? Whom do they need to help and protect? And so on. On the other hand, the process of education includes several ethical impetuses, such as norms and values, transmission/communication, for example, help and protection, rewarding and punishing, justice, fairness and solidarity. Those questions are not easy to answer. Similar problems arise in both approaches. The traditional solutions build on a uniform human image articulated by some branch of science or religion and an ideological human image in a worse case scenario. Generally, the result is a collection of regulations and instructions, codes or legal rules that might be necessary at a particular stage of education or might provide a solution in case of a problem. However, such a complex relationship between people and education cannot be settled merely based on legal rules. *“An activity which specifically shapes relations of people is impossible to regulate merely by law.”* (Zrinszky 2006, 287.) If any education need is at the same time a moral need, education is a specific area, the area of social activities saturated with elements of ethics. Therefore, it cannot be made legitimate solely by extra-pedagogical arguments. That means a general theoretical legitimation is required, which considers both aspects. At the same time, today, related to the phenomena of the society – such as globalization, multiculturalism, pluralism, migration, and equality before the law – pedagogy needs universal validity. For *“If education appears today as a moral problem, it stems from a legitimacy crisis, which at the same time provides a possibility to crack the rigid semantic fields (jelentésmező) and make room for new reflections related to the modern society.”* (Oelkers 1998, 9.)

Nowadays, from many aspects, chaotic conditions prevail in the ethical dimensions of social, political, and communal existence (democracy, individualism, emotivism, individual vs. collective interests, rights, pluralism, etc.). Therefore, there are many sceptical and critical opinions. In today’s modern moral-political situation, open value pluralism (the general acceptance of different values) and status-equality (all humans are free and equal) are vitally important. (Toronyai 2004, 14.) Those statements are almost literally valid in pedagogy. However, value pluralism and status-equality generate problems in social and personal education. *“The intensifying social and personal education crisis is much more serious than that. Globalization accelerates the slackening of social cohesion and the decrease of positive socialization’s success. At the same time, the generations growing up spend the bigger part of their time in educational institutions and try to meet the requirements. Those institutions, however, either do not consider it their task to provide social or*

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*personal education by definition or if they formally undertake that education, are not able to contribute to the appropriate extent to the development of the social and personal competencies of the generations growing up.” (Nagy 2002, 10.)*

The situation is becoming even more complex as the question arises whether ethics can be taught as a subject or must be taught as a subject. Who can teach that, what can they teach, and with what methods?

In European countries, the teaching of ethics occurs in one way or another traditionally based on the two sources of European culture – philosophy and/or the Christian religion. Ethics is a subdiscipline of philosophy; thus, its subject can be defined following epistemological and metaphysical principles (freedom, equality, justice, etc.). In the case of the Christian religion, the actions of humans, following Christ’s teachings, play an outstanding role, and the subject of ethics can be defined following that (love, forgiveness, help, solidarity, etc.). Today, the thematics of the school subject, besides philosophy and religion, stem from theories and practices of society and politics (democracy, pluralism, tolerance, human rights, information and communication techniques, media, advertising, PR, etc.). Here ethical questions related to information and media culture have priority. (see Szőke-Milinte 2020, 41-46.) Moreover, following the complexity principle of social science, ethics is increasingly linked with other subjects’ thematics, such as history, knowledge of the country and the people, social, civic, and economic knowledge. (see Kaposi 2020, 95-99.)

To understand the problems related to the teaching of the subject, it is worth reviewing observations on the necessity and particular characteristics of the subject.

### *1. On the necessity of teaching ethics*

Denominations as ethics/moral philosophy appear equally and simultaneously. However, since moral philosophy deals with current and specific actions and behaviour, while ethics studies the general principles and connections of actions and behaviour, it would be more appropriate to call the school subject ethics instead of moral philosophy. Since the educator and pupils do not have to discuss specific actions and behaviour instruction in the moral philosophy classes, the emphasis is instead on observation and understanding general connections. The specific moral action patterns evolve based on those observations, personal characteristic features, and environmental effects. Beyond the uncertainty of denomination, a certain polarization can be experienced among the pedagogy experts of theory and practice concerning the existence of the subject and its place and role. Teaching the subject generates frequent debates; therefore, it is vital to clarify its necessity from general and educational aspects. (cf. Kormos 2018)

### *2. General aspects*

“Philosophising” – thinking, the intention of finding an explanation, raising questions – in all topics, but especially concerning human actions has always been a particular

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characteristic of different cultures. That is especially true for European culture. The “use” of mind and intelligence – based on the heritage of the Greek culture, then the scientific approach and the enlightenment of the modern age – is a primary motive of European world interpretation. In turn, the heritage of Greek philosophy and socio-political life brought topics related to morality and ethics into the limelight. Christianity, the decisive element of European culture, also reinforced the moral and ethical character of philosophising. In the Christian religion, there always arise moral and ethical questions/dilemmas due to the particular teachings of the religion (love, freedom of will, sin, forgiveness, conversion, etc.). Thus, it can be stated that in the European culture, “philosophising” and thinking, and especially philosophising and thinking related to moral and ethical issues, cannot be bypassed due to historical reasons and the present situation originating in historical reasons. Therefore, public education must prepare pupils for philosophising and moral and ethical thinking to some extent. On the one hand, it must create and develop competencies that make the “use of mind” possible at the highest possible level. On the other hand, the knowledge and knowledge elements already available from the history of philosophy and ethics must be communicated to the children.

That twofold task can be performed during education and instruction in the verbiage of pedagogy and naturally not isolated as just education or just instruction. On the contrary, education and instruction are performed together and simultaneously, although the emphasis might switch from one to the other now and then, during the activities of the teachers and the pupils.

Therefore, it is worth reviewing the necessity of the subject from those aspects as well.

### *3. Educational aspects*

The word education in the Hungarian language originates from the word increase, expand. In German, it is *Erziehung* developed from the word *erziehen* (pull or draw out); in English, the origin of the word *Education* developed from the Latin *educare* meaning lead somebody out. If we look merely at those three origins, we can draw conclusions on education. Education facilitates the educated person’s development, drawing them out or leading them out of their status. Based on that, education facilitates, improves, and develops activity in a positive direction. Even in its original sense, the word education means increasing, developing and that increasing and developing is performed in some direction, it intends to achieve something. Education is purposeful, targeted; that is, it is a process with an objective. (cf. Kormos 2018, 193-202.) The complex and intricate nature of education and its responsibility makes it necessary to articulate a goal. The goal of education is the committed, responsible human who is able and suitable for cognizing, preserving, developing themselves and the world around them (especially society); in other words, developing the competencies “*that all individuals need to be personally accomplished, to develop, to be an active citizen, to adapt to society and to be employed*”. (EP and EC recommendation 2006). Obviously, the education goals involve many ethical components.

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Beyond the above-described, generally accepted definitions of the goal of education, it is worth examining a current document. The key competencies listed in the National Core Curriculum (NCC) modified in 2020 are as follows:

*”The NCC, based on key competencies recommended by the European Union, and considering the domestic particularities, defines the general competencies overarching learning areas, and those which characteristically cannot be linked exclusively to any learning areas, but are built on to the acquired knowledge to a varying extent and composition, and develop in the process of instruction, as follows:*

1. *Competences of learning*
2. *Communication competencies (in the native and foreign languages)*
3. *Digital competencies*
4. *Mathematical and thinking competencies*
5. *Competencies concerning personal and social relations*
6. *Competencies of creativity, creative work, self-expression, and cultural awareness*
7. *Competencies of the employee, and the entrepreneur, and innovative competencies”*  
(5/2020. government decree)

The subject has possibilities and tasks in almost all of the listed cases. However, in public education, in response to the challenges of our age, the subjects and cultural areas, such as ethics, which not only convey knowledge and knowledge elements, but develop humans personally and as members of the community, should play a much more significant role.

Due to the goals of education and its particular activity-forms and content elements (knowledge elements), ethics as a subject has a significant role in areas of education as follows:

- logical thinking (analysis, synthesis, induction, deduction),
- comprehension and text interpretation, text formation,
- communication, arguing, debating,
- collaboration, conflict management,
- tolerance, accepting alterity,
- solidarity, empathy,
- reflection, self-knowledge, self-discipline,
- questioning, openness, searching for an explanation,
- choosing a decision, taking responsibility,
- physical and spiritual health,
- way of life, lifestyle, and conduct,
- relaxation, spending spare time.

Obviously, those areas advance the essential rational existence for a human lifestyle as well as socialization and personalization which are priorities in pedagogy.

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#### 4. *Instructional aspects*

During the education process, acquiring, communicating, and increasing knowledge and knowledge contents occur. Knowledge in that context means a broad spectrum, not only cognitive and rational contents but spiritual, emotional, and physical contents. The communication, handing over of those contents (which might also be called pieces of information) is education itself. So, the content of the subject must be defined from education aspects. The articulation and presentation of those contents indicate the necessity of the subject.

Contents that can be linked to ethics as a subject (such as justice, essence/substance, reason, goal, norms, virtues, human relations, decision, responsibility, etc.) can also emerge in other subjects, where they are referred to, but there is no detailed discussion exploring their coherence. For example, justice, friendship, responsibility can appear in other subjects (Hungarian literature, history, biology, etc.) when events, biographies, and literary pieces of art are discussed, but a full-scale discussion does not occur within the framework of those subjects. Thus, pupils' knowledge of those topics might be superficial and even eclectic due to different experiences. So, it might be helpful to discuss those topics in a separate subject, which is systematic and explores coherence.

The subject's content can be demonstrated based on the different regulations and recommendations (NCC, general education plan). However, it is justified to discuss the subject's content-related elements with a broader approach – as it were from the scientific side – for two reasons.

On the one hand, certain elements of teaching material may change quite frequently due to education-policy considerations. Therefore, teachers need to have a well-established, systematic and well-constructed image of science to follow the current changes and requirements exactly from the aspect of science. Thus, can they only involve the expected changes of the NCC and the general education plan, or the local syllabus in their methodological repertoire, and interpret them from the discipline's point of view. In other words, the teacher deduces the teaching material that meets the new requirements from the system of science rather than experimenting ad hoc with the teaching material and methods.

On the other hand, ethics as a discipline and subject has a particular relation to other subjects. With most of the subjects, the teaching material, as it were, is constructed from the material of the relevant discipline. For example, in physics, the teaching material on the science of heat is what physics as a discipline declares of the science of heat. Alternatively, in the case of history, the teaching material on the French revolution is what history as a discipline declares on that revolution. In the case of ethics, that is not entirely valid. For example, when teaching the principle of mutualism affecting our decisions, the aim is not to include *The Critique of Practical Reason* by Kant in the teaching material, but instead to get the pupil acquainted with and make them able to bear in mind other people's (or all people's) viewpoints when making a decision, based on the teaching material appropriately extracted from the author's work. Ethics as a subject must form its teaching material adjusted to that particular character.

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## 5. *Ethics, as a particular subject*

Naturally, all subjects are particular in their own way. Nevertheless, in the case of ethics, it has significance because it differs from subjects of public education to a great extent. That difference is present in the content requirements, its discipline “background” character, or the heterogeneity of its methodology.

- The particular character of ethics can be defined as follows:
- There is no unequivocally accepted scientific “standard” in the case of the subject, based on which the instruction could be performed. With many other subjects, there can be no doubt about it, e.g., with mathematics, physics, biology, but even in the case of history, Hungarian literature, and grammar, for the most part, have the “canon”, based on which the topics of the subject can be constructed and structured.
- In the case of ethics, the priority of individual trends and views is not yet “decided”. It has much less scientific background unequivocally agreed upon, so compiling the teaching material is not accompanied by complete agreement. It is especially questionable with ethics as a subject, what approach can be the primary aspect of compiling the teaching material since that can be determined by religious, political, and even legal aspects.
- Because of the factors mentioned earlier, the possibility usually emerges that the topics of ethics should be included in other subjects, where similar teaching material appears (history, biology, physics, Hungarian literature, etc.). That, however, is not a prudent solution from many aspects. On the one hand, in the case of subjects, there is no time frame for the inclusion of new topics. On the other hand, the teachers of different majors do not necessarily have the proper training for that; exactly the philosophical systematizing character of ethics, its search for a common basis, examining coherence would be eliminated due to thematically and temporally distributing it among other subjects. Indeed, independent of that, it is true that all subjects touch upon philosophical and ethical topics (though to a different extent), but here the emphasis is on systematizing and coherence.
- Ethics differs from other subjects in its theme and methods; still, it gets into contact with all of them. That subject facilitates the development of competencies linked to other subjects in a complex way. Due to its synthesizing and “inter-subject” character, it may bring vivacity, interest, and novelty into the activity of pupils and teachers alike.
- The subject is much rather linked to the extra-curricular “world”. Due to its connection to lifestyle, everyday activities and decisions, ethics can much rather deal with topics that are important from not only the point of view of the discipline. Therefore, while teaching the subject, one goal is that pupils should not interpret the teaching material only as a discipline but as the knowledge they can use in specific everyday situations.
- The subject discusses ideological topics and those related to lifestyle. The different religious and political trends may articulate different answers to specific questions. Those might challenge pupils, parents and even teachers (abortion, euthanasia, sex-

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uality, acceptance of traditions, lifestyle habits, dressing, holidays, forms of entertainment, etc.). It cannot be the task of the subject to “prescribe” obligatory solutions (as it might happen in cases of some subjects, e.g., mathematics might prescribe solutions for a type of exercise.).

- The educator must present, communicate, and rank values during teaching ethics. Values have an outstanding and indispensable role in human life. „*Values are part of our inner world, in that they form and guide, but they are also a decisive factor of the quality of our narrower or broader social environment.*” (Pálvölgyi 2014, 22) Some sort of an attitude (acceptance or rejection) must be generated in pupils concerning different values. That attitude to values makes the activity of the teacher difficult.
- Teachers of the subject somehow get into a new “position”. In many cases, the pupils do not know what attitude to take to the teacher of ethics. It is mainly the other major of the teacher that determines the attitude. The teacher will be considered less as a representative of science in the pupils’ eyes; instead, it will be the personal human relationship that determines their attitude towards the teacher. The teacher will be rather an educator than an instructor. In Hungarian, the word teacher has the root ‘tan’ that means thesis or doctrine, indicating that the teacher is someone to communicate tenets or doctrines (e.g., the communication, description, and explanation of religious tenets), as the teacher has more knowledge in the field of tenets (experience, tradition, more profound knowledge, etc.). (cf. Balázs 2012, 482–488) As in our present culture – that considers pluralism – we cannot speak about many shared “tenets”, especially in philosophy or ethics; that role can be less prevailing (it can be rather prevailing, e.g., in religious education). The instructor role is also less emphatic than in other subjects. Instruction is communicating scientific (rational) knowledge since the instructor has more excellent and deeper scientific (rational) knowledge. In the case of ethics as a subject, emphasis is not that much on the communication of knowledge (though, of course, it is also present); instead, the goal is the development of specific competencies, therefore that role asserts itself to a lesser extent. In other words, the teacher of ethics will be rather an educator.
- Teaching the subject does not entail the communication and practice of some new knowledge or activity, never heard of before (though with many subjects, that is the case). Humans are ipso facto philosophizing creatures due to their ability to think. Humans do not philosophize because they are taught to do so at school, and otherwise, they would not do that because they would not know what that is. Humans, ipso facto, think, search for explanations and coherence. It would be most natural if the human activity that comes naturally to us – philosophizing, thinking, and searching for reasons and purposes – were included among the school subjects. And the same goes for ethics as a subject. “*Humans are, ipso facto, moral creatures – and it is not the ethics classes that make them so. As children do not become healthy because of ‘health education’... Moral education is also like that: children live a moral life, and ethics classes help deepen, practice, debate, and make that life more concentrated and reflected. The teacher of ethics does not force on the children some foreign thing, but the*



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*children are already moral creatures – ethics endeavours to make the striving for moral standards and scrupulousness inherent in them more characteristic.”* (Papp 2015, 9)

- Especially in the case of ethics, it might be a notable aspect to perform a “philosophical” activity with the children, which requires the ability of observation of coherence, generalization, abstraction, and asking questions. Research of Philosophy for Children might provide a sound point of reference for that. According to Mathew Lipman, the initiator of the Philosophy for Children program, the development of philosophical thinking is performed too late and in an inappropriate way. *„Since according to our culture, a person is considered intelligent, if they can answer questions, and solve problems, not the one who can recognize and articulate them, no wonder, that childhood and philosophy are usually considered as mutually excluding notions.”* (Jakab 2012, 102) The Philosophy for Children program draws attention to procedures, which might also be helpful with ethics teaching.
- The relation between philosophy and ethics might also raise questions. It would be advisable to connect the two subjects, present them together. They are inherently related disciplines – since ethics is a branch of philosophy. From the point of view of the discipline, it is not the best solution to push philosophy into the background instead of ethics. The two subjects should be presented together somehow. *„The possibility of the final exam at the secondary school should be reconsidered in a way, that ethics and philosophy might be presented as a complex subject...”* (Takács 2012, 126). Without a philosophical background, the teaching of ethics may lead to simple moralizing, complaining, bumbledom, and faultily to some spiritual guidance. On the other hand, pupils can be prepared to answer ethical questions personally and responsibly through the analysis and thorough contemplation of different viewpoints instead of dictating rules and orders. Therefore, when teaching ethics, the existence of the philosophical “background” is indispensable (primarily for the teacher to communicate that).
- Topics of ethics can be contemplated from a philosophical perspective so that that coherence could be observed between specific ethical questions and other effects could be explored (politics, religion, economy, technology, lifestyle, etc.). During deeds and activities of moral character, it is essential to consider broader and longer-term aspects. Modern moral myopia” (Higgins 2011, 25) notices merely the current viewpoints. No moral questions can be answered without philosophical answers. *“The thought that to ask and answer a moral question is one thing, and to ask and answer a philosophical question on ethics is another, might conceal the fact that if we persistently ask certain ethical questions, we might realize that we cannot answer them unless we ask and answer certain philosophical questions.”* (MacIntyre 1999, 29) Specific moral deeds can always be led back to ethical principles; otherwise, there is no explanation for the specific deeds. *“What we present as “morality” must comply with certain ethical requirements...”* (Oelkers 1998, 15). Ethical principles can be traced back to philosophical (metaphysical) explanations. That is how the interdependence of ethics and philosophy can be presented.

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There are forms of activities that characteristically link to philosophy and consequently to ethics. Indeed, those are present in other subjects, but those activities are conclusive and typical here. The teacher of ethics must prepare the pupils for that as well. To philosophize and think of ethical issues, *de facto* means to put the activities systematically as follows into the foreground:

- Learning.
- Comprehension.
- Text creation.
- Presentation.
- Debate.
- Argumentation.
- Asking questions.
- Some kind of behaviour and lifestyle.

As a consequence of the preceding, the emphasis is on *how to*, when teaching the subject. A much bigger emphasis is to be put on methods that require collective activities, collaboration, and brainstorming. The following methods meet those requirements best: discussion, debate, project method, simulation, playing, role-playing, cooperative method, thought experiment, brainstorming, dilemma discussion, etc.

The factors that influence the choice of the method are as follows:

- The relevant documents (legal rules, laws, decrees, NCC, general curriculum, local curriculum, syllabus, lesson plan, etc.).
- The branch of science (aspects following from the scientific character of philosophy and ethics: logical order, emphasis, prominent actors, etc.).
- The subject (particular development goals of the subjects: logical thinking, argumentation, text creation, tolerance, etc.).
- Pedagogy (education principles: mindfulness, goal-orientation, help, considering the personality, etc.; education goals: mature personality, responsible person, cultured person, etc.; instruction principles: regularity, gradience, etc.).
- Psychology (psychological principles, characteristics of age groups, spiritual maturity, etc.).
- The pupil (the personality, level of socialization, knowledge, learning ability, and behaviour, etc. of pupils)
- The teacher (personal faculties, qualification, experience, etc.)
- The environment (the building, the furniture and equipment of the classroom, technical equipment, etc.).

## Summary

Although the particular characteristics of ethics can make teaching the subject more complex, they can also provide certain methodological freedom and comfort for the teacher. Besides, teaching ethics may generate positive changes in the teacher's attitude, the renewal of their methods, the cooperation of the teaching staff, and collegiality. Thus,

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teaching ethics as a subject becomes especially necessary precisely due to its peculiar character and methodological uniqueness.

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# New assignment for educators: the mentor

## by Orsolya Gombocz

### *Introduction*

Professions change. Ever-changing needs in all areas of life force competent professionals to find new tools and discover new ways to solve novel problems.

The activity of craftsmen barely changed during the centuries of the Middle Ages; however, the accelerated technical and technological development from the 18<sup>th</sup> century created new professions one after the other and refashioned the image of earlier established crafts.

In intellectual professions, change was even more spectacular than in trades and crafts. Probably the least spectacular and rapid was the transformation of the educator's profession in the modern age. But here also many changes occurred. Education historians have been investigating that phenomenon for a long time. They present refined analyses on how the educator's activity and image developed as we know it today, from the archetype of the profession to the changes undergone by the father, the craftsman and the bureaucrat. We can also learn from those lines of thought how the profession's brand new activities and the unique assignments developed with the multiplication of tasks, what qualification is necessary to perform the new functions, and where and under what conditions those qualifications can be obtained.

A good example is provided for the differentiation of the professional tasks by the institution of the mentor-teacher role. The novices of the educator's profession started working as teachers with far from perfect toolkits in old times. Most of them required help. That is natural since we know that the educator's profession is learnt mainly through practice at the school instead of university courses. More experienced colleagues were often ready to share their knowledge and provide help without the novices asking. Competent and skilful principals – not leaving it to chance – often assigned an experienced professional to help the novices. Teacher training has deployed a trainer for a long time to help the student-teacher take their first steps in the profession, the teacher trainer. The mentor teacher's role, assignment, and qualification providing licence developed from those earlier roles – the teacher trainer and the volunteer (or assigned person) supporting the junior teacher. Indeed, the mentor teacher performs more and, in many respects, different tasks from their predecessors; they have other responsibilities and comply with different rules. Consequently, it is not just the matter of the change of denomination but a new assignment and new role considerably reshaped to meet the new needs of the developing educator training.

### *1. On the denomination's trail*

Mentor activity is a frequently used expression nowadays. Many people might be familiar with it from the world of work, from the verbiage of large multinational companies and international tenders, although knowing the word's origin, its educational reference is

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unambiguous. In Greek mythology, Mentor is Odysseus' good friend and the fatherly advisor and educator to his son, Telemachus. When Odysseus went off to war, he left Telemachus to Mentor's care, who taught the boy, and stood beside him as a guardian while his father was away. The short explanation in the dictionary of foreign words and expressions edited by Ferenc Bakos also provides evidence for that: „mentor is 1/ older advisor, a patron a fatherly friend 2/ *archaic* educator (from the name of Mentor, educator of the Telemachus in *Odyssey*)” (Bakos 1989, 534).

Although the word can easily be understood, no unambiguous meaning was identified and developed in specialized literature; its general and umbrella-term usage prevailed. We can meet this expression in all fields of education and instruction: whether we speak about the relationship between the teacher and pupil in an alternative school, or a teacher trainee doing their school practice and their helpers, or an art student whose former *master-teacher* also became a *mentor* in the meantime. In all cases, it is about the support provided based on trust; when in the specific field or generally in life, a more experienced, older person helps the inexperienced novice perform their tasks and achieve their goals. The mentor's activity, therefore, “is an individual form of support provided by the more experienced teacher to teacher trainees and apprentices, or even sometimes to experienced educators facing challenges, the primary aim of which is to assist and support the professional development of the mentored teacher, and make their integration into the culture of teaching and the school smoother.” (Hobson and colleagues, 2009 quoted by Tamásné 2014, 4) Although the various usage of the term prevails in the specialized literature, we in this work use it exclusively focusing on the central area of support between teacher and teacher trainee, and examine the relationship between an experienced teacher and the beginner colleague absolving their apprentice's career phase in a formal and institutional environment. Adapted from Sipe, different forms of formal mentoring can be identified – traditional mentoring: An adult mentors a young person, – group mentoring: an adult mentors several young people, – team mentoring: several adults mentor one young person or more young people, – peer mentoring: a young person mentors another young person, – e-mentoring: mentor and mentored communicate online (Fejes-Kasik-Kinyó 2009, 41-42.). Although, in Hungarian teacher training concerning us, traditional mentoring is the most characteristic mentoring, according to our experience, group mentoring may also appear partially and sporadically. We hope that in a well cooperating teaching staff which considers mentoring activity valuable and willingly share the related tasks – if not officially, we can speak about team mentoring, since different colleagues may introduce the trainees into the depths of different teacher's assignments: The assigned mentor will not necessarily present on their own the tasks of child protection, the form teacher's work or organizing leisure time, but may leave the mentored person to the care of colleagues responsible for the particular task. That serves the purpose that the trainee learns the specific activity from the most competent colleague and makes it possible for the trainee to get acquainted with as many valid educators' personalities during training as possible.

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### 1.1. Mentor teacher-teacher trainer/supervisor

The mentor teacher's qualification took on a significant role in teacher training with the Bologna Process and with the introduction of legislation. That new teacher's role did not develop in an unprecedented manner. When the mentor teacher's tasks were introduced, teacher trainers/supervisors had a long history in teacher training, and they could be found mainly in the teaching staff of demonstration schools. A mentor teacher inherited many of their functions, but it would be a mistake to consider the two assignments the same.

We draw attention to some of the many differences between the old role and the new one built on it. One of the most striking differences occurs between the length of the two assignments and that the teacher trainer /supervisor is an expert representative of their major (subject), as opposed to the mentor who is the responsible person for the entire school's education activities, including teaching their subject. Accordingly, the teacher trainer/supervisor and their subordinate student cooperate decisively in the preparation, and evaluation of the classes in the subject. The mentor teacher – as mentioned above – gets the trainee acquainted with the whole spectrum of the school. There is a significant difference in the assignment conditions of the two roles. To be appointed a mentor teacher, the teacher needs to attend many classes in specialized further training with a strict examination schedule –temporarily with exceptions -thus obtaining the right for the mentoring activity. In contrast, the primary condition of the assignment of the teacher trainer/supervisor is many years of successful subject teaching. The mentor is the helper and supporter of the teacher trainee who is still at university and helps and accompanies the beginner teachers (apprentices) at the dawn of their career based on an assignment received from the headmaster. (Gombocz 2020, 323-330)

In the former teacher training practice, the university selected the colleague, usually at the demonstration secondary school, who had a wealth of experience and was known as the dignitary of the profession to perform the teacher trainer-supervisor task. Besides the prescribed criteria, the professional skills, devotion and no doubt, human qualities, and the school atmosphere guarantee the support provided to the student. Teacher training was on the increase, and the growing number of universities training teachers made it challenging to prepare students for school practice in such a way. The increase of the number of practice classes and raising the related individual school practice to half a year, and later a whole year, and the appearance of the apprentice phase in the career model almost made it untenable to use the former practice exclusively. Even the prominent universities with their own demonstration schools could not organize all the practice classes in those schools. (Probably, training might benefit from providing the possibility for students to get acquainted with other schools representing the present domestic conditions of public education, that is, other segments of education reality, instead of only practising among laboratory conditions of the demonstration schools.) However, it is not merely the human and technical aspects of practice organizing that are challenging for the profession. With the reform of training, the practice became emphatic: not only

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due to the increased timespan but also because of the work's professionalization. The inclusion of mentors assigned to support schoolwork in the domestic practice brought about significant changes in that field. However, the professional dialogue, the institutionalized support and supervision concerning their job must indeed impact the work of teacher trainers/supervisors who manage the short-term practice. (For that straightforward reason, the same people perform both jobs in many cases.) The teacher trainers/supervisors, having achieved significant results in previous decades, could instead build their supportive activity on their professional experience, and personal ideas frequently dominated their solutions. Among them, the luckiest could work with students at famous and experienced demonstration schools enjoying the support and proximity of universities or who at least rely on the cooperation of their immediate professional community. Considering that in the domestic public education system, school practice and parallelly the role of mentors and teacher trainers/supervisors rose in value, it is crucial for all participants of the school practices (mentors, teacher trainers/supervisors, beginner teachers (apprentices), university lecturers, and the managements of schools) that professional guidelines and manuals are prepared which are based on legal rules and unambiguously define their task, roles, and responsibilities. (The opinion that "The tasks and role of the mentor teacher differ in many respects from the tasks and role of teacher training and supervising that we perform here." (Ispánovity 2013, 2) was even articulated in ELTE university's Ágoston Trefort Demonstration School, which has a significant teacher trainers' experience.)

## *2. Legal regulations of mentoring*

Our work cannot describe the full legal background concerning our higher education and teacher training related topic; here, we merely outline the external rules directly affecting the mentor's job.

Changes in Hungarian teacher training resulted from the general social dissatisfaction with school education and instruction. According to international surveys and domestic experience, the pupils' performance lagged behind the expected level. The reason for that naturally cannot only be found in the performance of the educators, but undoubtedly in the significant influence well-organized, quality training may have on the effectiveness of pedagogical work. In accordance with domestic and international experience, the effectiveness of training is to be found partly in the close cooperation of universities and schools, and that would be the solution to the problem of pedagogical studies much emphasised for decades, that theory and practice appear in training almost independently of each other. A possible solution could be to extend the circle of practice and support the career start from two sides: the training institution and the demonstration school. Policies supported the professional idea, and the regulation's legal backing was created to support the new approach. Government decree 326/2013 (30/08) on the enforcement of law No. XXXIII of 1992 in public education institutions, on the advancement system of educators and the legal status of public employees (furthermore government decree),



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pertains to beginner educators with the status of apprentices and stipulates the details and elements of the qualifying exam. The same Government decree 326/2013 (30/08) articulates the tasks and responsibilities of the mentor. Accordingly, “The goal of mentoring is to prepare the apprentice for the tasks of the educator’s career.”

“It is prominently important that while preparing students for the educator’s career, the mentors:

- recognise the significance of diagnostic evaluation in the development of competencies and, with the help of that, form a realistic picture of the development level of the apprentice’s competencies,
- experience the significance of motivation and adaptivity in professional cooperation,
- experience the significance of reflectivity in professional development,
- support the culture of self-development,
- be aware of the significance of the mentor’s support in preparing the student for qualification and portfolio creation.” (Kotschy Beáta – Sallai Éva – Szőke-Milinte Enikő 2016, 8.)

Under the government decree, “the mentor is appointed by the head of the institution with a range of duties equal to that of an apprentice, in case of a teacher – if possible – from among educators with the same major.

The mentor helps the apprentice adapt to the public education institution organization and the practical implementation of pedagogical-methodological tasks.

The mentor supports the apprentice in their activity related to the educator’s job, thus helping them:

- with the local curriculum and the pedagogic program of the school, the kindergarten, the student’s hostel, with the professional program of the institution under the effect of the Child Protection Law, with the interpretation and understanding and professional application of rules concerning their duties,
- with the expedient selection of structuring classes, the applied pedagogical methods, the aids, textbooks, school equipment used in teaching; with constructing and structuring of the unit of methodologically related tasks (furthermore class unit), the selection of pedagogic methods and applicable professional aids in the institution under the effect of the Child Protection Law,
- with written duties related to the preparation, planning and design, successful delivery, and implementation of classes, and
- with preparing for the qualifying exam.” (Government decree)

The government decree also stipulates the mentor’s duties and responsibilities during class visits and maintaining contact. “The mentor, if necessary, but at least on one and no more than four occasions visits the class of the apprentice, following which performs class discussions, and additionally, if the apprentice requires, ensures for them weekly consultations.” (Government decree)

The evaluation of the apprentice is also the duty of the mentor.: “The mentor evaluates the activity, the development of pedagogical competencies of the apprentice every six months and hands the evaluation over to the head of the institution and the apprentice.

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The mentor prepares a summary evaluation on the experiences of the apprentice period before the end of that period. At that point, no half-yearly evaluation is necessary. If and when the legal employment status ceases before the apprentice period is over, the mentor prepares an out-of-turn evaluation.” (Government decree)

When discussing external regulations, the central decree is worth mentioning which declared that only those having a specialist examination could perform the roles of teacher trainer (supervisor)/ head of school/ mentor after a grace period of a few years. The profession, however, has still not complied with that central decree. As it is presented in the volume describing in 2015 the results of pilot projects “Qualifying Examinations of Apprentices” and “The Preparation of Educator Apprentices”: “It can be undoubtedly seen that the number of those having a serious accredited mentor qualification is deficient. The picture, however, is nuanced by the fact that there are people among the mentors who have had several years of serious mentoring experience, either because they work in a demonstration school or because they have been accepting students for individual external school or kindergarten practice. ...the ratio of unqualified but experienced mentors is higher...” (Sallai 2015, 48-49.). As the authors publishing the results of the pilot project note, we might suppose valuable knowledge behind the experience, but to explore that, further research is undoubtedly required. We agree with the education policy decision that only colleagues having a specialist examination can play the role of the mentor-teacher in the long run. That would guarantee the professional character of the activity. The appropriacy of that notion is proven by the international survey conducted between 2007 and 2009. “12 European countries participated in the demand-analysing survey. Data collection was executed with a questionnaire filled in primarily by teachers who worked as mentors, and interviews followed it. To the question that is relevant to the topic discussed here, namely, whether a good teacher automatically becomes a good mentor, 70 % of the mentor-teacher informants answered no.” (www.tissnte.eu – Needs analysis quoted by Kotschy 2012, 21)

### *3. Roles of a mentor*

The attempt at making school more effective can only be successful if attention is paid not only to the organizational and structural aspects of education and instruction but also to the personal aspect. The first and foremost person responsible for the success of public education is the educator. They perform a responsible job that takes their entire time; they need to meet many expectations and play many roles. To comply with all those requirements throughout their whole working life, it is indispensable for them to do their job and consciously experience the teacher’s life. The preparation of students for the role of the educator had been a neglected area for a long time: nowadays, its profile has been raised, among other things owing to the significant increase of time spent in schools with practice and the activity of mentors. The excessively subject-centric character is somewhat balanced out by the time spent in the school, where there are more opportunities to acquire the knowledge and develop the skills which are indispensable to the educator’s job. The mentor helps the beginner teacher to acquire that knowledge and experience.

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The complex activity of the mentor was classified into seven categories in the guidelines of the Education Office created to support the activities of mentors. (Kotschy-Sallai-Szőke-Milinte 2016, 10)

- Personal, supportive role
- Advisory role
- The role of attending and accompanying the apprentice's development
- The role of the "Critical friend"
- The role of a model
- Organizing role
- The evaluating role

It is obvious that the traditional role of the teacher trainer/supervisor shows many similarities with that of the mentor's; still, it is a much broader activity. Due to the length of the practice, the supportive and advisory roles also appear as requirements of the teacher trainer/supervisor, as do the model and evaluation roles. Although the mentor traces the frequently accelerated development of the student during the six-week school subject practice, because of the short time of the practice, it is difficult to call that the role of attending and accompanying the apprentice's development; that role is much rather a requirement of the mentor. The organizing role is especially emphatic at the start of practice, and to perform that is largely considered a new task for those who had previously acted as teacher trainers/supervisors. In the manual prepared for mentors by the University of Debrecen, the authors write about the organizing role as a linking role as follows: "In the linking role the mentor teacher introduces the organization to the student, gets them acquainted with the operation, characteristics and local customs thereof (infrastructure, institutional partners, pedagogical program, the bylaws, house rules, local curriculum, etc.); introduces the student to colleagues whom they can get into contact with during school practice (librarian, technician, assistant, members of the subject section, the person responsible for youth protection, school psychologist, etc.) and finds the opportunity for the student to get acquainted with and talk to the pupils whom they will teach during school practice. If the student will practice their secondary major under the control of another educator, the so-called teacher trainer/supervisor, it is the mentor's task to coordinate with that teacher continually. Furthermore, the mentor works as a link between the student and the parents of their pupils, occasionally gets into contact and cooperates with the university's methodology lecturer and the accompanying seminar lecturer. If all goes well, the mentor may initiate a relationship between the student and some potential workplaces/employers." (Dr. Vargáné Csátary – Nagy 2015, 26-27) That activity reflects one of the most important goals of the continuous, individual school practice that differentiates it from former practices and the specialized teaching practice: the objective is not merely teaching the subject, it is professional-methodological development. Earlier, the student performing their practice had to focus exclusively on their subject; the main tasks were to perform an appropriate number of class visits and then teach mostly getting little insight into other duties and the school's operation. (In many cases, during specialized teaching practice, the students hardly have any opportunities to get well acquainted with the pupils,

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even nowadays, especially with subjects where due to the low number of weekly classes, the student must perform teaching in several forms.) Even the enthusiastic students who wish to join school events have rare opportunities. However, the new system puts great emphasis on the extended role of the teacher. It is one of the apprentice's tasks with the help of their mentor to get fully acquainted with the world of the school, and anything that may comprise their duty in their later career, the mastering of which is possible primarily in real educational situations, and which frequently causes problems for the beginner teacher. "Such duties may be for example: to attend teachers' meetings, joining in the current annual duties of sections, participating in parts of the entrance examination process, organizing competitions, keeping contact with the school psychologist and the person responsible for child protection, participating in drug prevention programs, organizing visits to the cinema or the theatre...etc." (Rapos-Kopp 2015, 164) It would be expedient if universities helped the leaders and educators of schools who participate in mentoring their students: they could facilitate the colleagues' duties with brainstorming, presenting good practices, and meaningful consultations. We can experience in many cases that the mentors, who do not have long-term experience as yet, or schools where accepting apprentices was not a frequent practice, have difficulties finding meaningful, useful tasks for the apprentices that would assist their development. It is easy to acknowledge that superfluous work performed only for the sake of documentation hinders commitment and development. Even schools where more than one apprentice is employed simultaneously find it challenging to organize activities and tasks unrelated to teaching. It is more difficult to organize and coordinate their participation than solve the task itself. Beyond the experience obtained in practice, the chance for emotional commitment is bigger. There is hope that the apprentice may obtain experiences through close relationships with pupils outside class and thus receive reinforcement to choose that career even in the case of those who are not especially attracted to the profession or who have limited success teaching. There might be differences in the requirements of the different teacher training universities, and the venues of practices might provide different possibilities, but what is common in the expectations is that the practice should not only focus on teaching but should be varied. (Probably, an institution teaching pupils in twelve grades would provide tasks with a different emphasis from a four-grade school, or a school aiming at integration would differ from a minority school or a school maintained by the church.)

Let us say a few words about the "critical friend" role. At smaller universities such as Pázmány Péter Catholic University, the colleagues lecturing in subject-pedagogy put high emphasis on getting acquainted with the students at seminars to such an extent that they can find for them the most appropriate school and mentor. One of the many aspects that influence the choice is the school's range and, naturally, the mentor's personality. It is not easy to consistently meet those criteria even at a small university, and probably almost impossible at a large university. Although it supposedly largely contributes to the success, if the mentor and mentee find the common denominator and their attitude to work, their opinion and ideas of teaching and life are in harmony. Fortunately, it is rarely heard in professional circles that the cooperation of the two parties is permanently prob-

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lematic or entirely paralyzed. Probably that is because most educators – and especially those who undertake the mentor’s duty – have no problem with good communication; they are skilled in establishing contacts and conflict management; hopefully, the apprentices have the due respect and will to learn, to conquer the arising difficulties. In such cases, close cooperation with the university, occasionally asking for and providing help, are also necessary. Beyond professional skills, the mentor plays a crucial role in creating atmosphere. Based on the unanimous opinion of candidates (apprentices) and mentors, the emotional side of the cooperation is decisive. Career starter educators report that whether they can establish a good professional and human relationship with the mentor may even affect their will to continue their career in school. The specialist literature dealing with educator training – especially since the appearance of the infamous “born educator”-category by Spranger – frequently mentions that young educators’ blunders, smaller and bigger failures that happen due to their beginner character, might establish in them the conviction that they are not born educators. Because of resignation they feel due to lack of success, they will try to correct their mistakes and continue their work only half-heartedly, since the failures prove that they lack “inborn and inherent abilities”. In a supportive, accepting and helping environment, however, the experience of an occasional failure can be digestible, first attempts can be bolder, and hopefully, the career starter can believe in themselves and their aptitude.

The role of a model: It is an old piece of truth of education that great is the power of an example that can be ingrained. Moreover, that is also true in the case of the mentor. Although universities pay considerable attention to making mentors only out of the eminent representatives of the profession, it is a well-known fact that we can learn not only from the examples of the talented. The awareness that the educator acting and gesticulating in front of the educated in different situations presents some way of life that can be studied and interpreted has been articulated in educational texts for a long time. That has its lessons even if the educated person rejects it and does not consider it an example to follow in any aspect. In that sense, all educator personalities – revealed in their whole reality – are impact factors in pedagogy. Hopefully, mentor educators are indeed found among the most talented representatives of the profession, setting a good professional and human example to the mentees, but we must also reckon that however hard the training institutions try to find sound mentor and mentee pairs, they cannot always manage to find the ideal and the most suitable mentor for a mentee. Professionalism, however, can be ensured if the mentor performs the job constructed upon justifiable and conscious steps and with learnable professional techniques.

In harmony with the international specialist literature, the Hungarian specialist literature interprets the duties of a mentor in a comprehensible train of thought. The interpretation of duties can be made even more transparent if we get acquainted with the train of thought of other divisions. Thus, for example, a German guideline assisting the work of mentors presents the relationship of the mentor and mentee from four different aspects: the mentor is the transmitter of knowledge, the benefactor-supporter of the mentee, the guard of professional moral, and the evaluator of work. (Ansorge- Lange- Schledde – Schlee 2007)

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#### 4. *The style of mentoring*

No doubt, it is decisive in forming the atmosphere, how and in what style the mentor articulates their expectations and comments. Specialist literature differentiates four types of practices regarding mentoring style. Those can be characterised, as interpreted by Kotschy, as follows:

- “Direct control: The mentor is an experienced professional and controls directly. They know what to do and how to do it, know the problem’s solution, set an example, and evaluate and assess the apprentice’s work.
- Presenting alternatives: In that case, no actual evaluation is involved; the mentor enlists the different possible solutions and theoretically analyses with the student the extent, the potential viability, and results of the different variants. The mentee then owns the responsibility of choice.
- Mentoring based on cooperation: Cooperation is established in connection with teaching by both the mentor and the mentee, and the responsibility is shared. They make all decisions together as equal colleagues.
- Indirect control: The mentor undertakes an observing and interpreting role. They do not give advice, only try to shed light on the arising problems.

The solution when the mentor chooses among the different necessary methods and combines the elements thereof according to the skills and personality of the mentee is called creative control. The mentor can provide constructive feedback/evaluation if they recognise the mentee’s relationship to accepting help, the extent of awareness, and tolerance towards criticism. There is no exclusive “good solution”, but the intent to help and endeavour to be objective are, by all means, the conditions of successful and constructive communication.” (Kotschy 2012)

#### 5. *Special competencies of the mentor*

The authors of the guidelines to support mentors’ activities at the Education Office give a detailed description of the particular knowledge, skills, and attitudes which the profession expects the mentors to have beyond the eight educator competencies. (Kotschy-Sallai-Szöke-Milinte 2016:11-13) It is indispensable for the mentor’s work to have a wide range of knowledge of the profession. To perform the wide-ranging duties requires the educator to have a high level of pedagogical abilities and experience. It is essential that the mentor knows the functions and objectives of the mentor’s role and be able to develop the competencies of the apprentice entrusted in their care. To that end, the mentor must have a clear view of their activity and carry out their professional duties consciously. The mentor’s self-reflection while performing their activities is decisive because, among other things, that is what assists the candidate in orientation in education. The mentor can effectively mentor if their decisions are conscious and justifiable, thus controlling the candidate’s attention. The observation of the career starter’s classes, the pooled analysis of the classes, and the related constructive feedback require intense professionalism from

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the mentor. The reflective focus generally expected from educators nowadays depends on individual high standards and talent rather than compliance with a professionally prudent system of requirements as it did earlier. To make reflective thinking and behaviour conscious and apply this generally, instead of adopting the former instinctive and spontaneous character is a long-term process.

We know that neither the educator's nor the mentor's work will become a success story securing results through the disciplined performance of predictable steps. Personalities participating in education carry inherent uncertainty. Probably, that is where the beauty and loftiness of the profession lies. However, nobody disputes that continuous effort is necessary to increase competence further. It requires attitude-shaping specialist literature, further training and professional support, especially in the case of mentors.

### *6. Cooperation between mentor and mentee, the responsibility of the candidate*

If we think about educator training or articulate criticism related to that, it is essential to bear in mind all training participants. We need to see the responsibility of all actors and that of the student as well. It may happen that it is not solely the training to be blamed if the student has challenges at the career start, during practice: performing high standard work requires knowledge of specialist literature, following new theories and research results concerning the job and personality of the educator, and the cooperation of colleagues, besides being thoroughly prepared. The apprentice needs to accept the support of the experienced colleague and listen to their advice: it is primarily the mentor responsible for establishing a partner's relationship with the apprentice, but the candidate is expected to be accepting and inclusive. Since successful mentoring is based on cooperation and reciprocity: both parties give and accept in a well-operating mentor-mentee relationship. According to professional discussions and the specialist literature (Aspfors and Fransson, 2015), despite the many difficulties and burdens, the mentor may also benefit from such a collaboration: the feedback by the candidate may reinforce their professional character, their self-reflection will be steadier, and, in some instances, they may learn from the postgraduate student and their conflict management and communication skills might develop; but the mentoring activity in itself might wring professional awareness and renewal out of the mentor. That is especially true if the candidate is motivated, curious and creatively performs the job.

### *Summary*

Education problems comprise the centre of our departmental work: education as the essential element of our students' future work, and education as the essential motive of professional training for us. Our direct professional helpers in that departmental education work are mentor-teachers working in various schools. Our relationship with them is multifaceted and complex: we take part in their training and cooperate with them in

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their everyday mentoring. It is evident to us that they fortify the success of our work with their effective operation. The shift of emphasis in training that school practice has a more significant role than before emphatically draws our attention to every detail of the mentor-teacher's job. That is why we consider it necessary to summarise the characteristics and most significant features of mentoring again.

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# The mutual impact of Early Childhood Education and local society – an introduction to a larger research project

by Ágnes Kata Miklós

It is perhaps no exaggeration to say that sociology of education, especially in its approach to systems of educational institutions, prefers theories and research primarily related to the organized and systematic knowledge transfer, i. e. schools. There is nothing surprising about this: the quantifiability of data is important for all of the applied social sciences. School participation and progress (as a measurable activity in itself) has a lifelong impact on learning outcomes and education, and also provides a better opportunity to develop and control theories than pre-school education. (Although school systems vary around the world, their goals and methods can be examined in a similar way. In contrast, pre-school education varies significantly from country to country. Is it mandatory? What tasks must it perform? What kind of outcomes are expected? The answers vary from country to country.) This is especially true in today's Hungary, where the definition of "early childhood education" appears to be very vague for parents. Most of them can't give a definite answer to the question: What are children taught in kindergarten?

The reason for the parents' confusion is that although Hungarian kindergartens play an important role in children's cognitive development, there are very few elements of pre-school education in their program that can be measured and quantified in a way similar to school education. Pre-schoolers do not receive grades for particularly beautiful drawings or quickly learned rhymes, nor for learning the basic forms of collaboration. The only way to measure their kindergarten performance is on the output side in the form of achieving or not achieving school maturity ("iskolaalkalmasság"), but this also does not provide an opportunity to capture the kind of grading and categorization experienced in the environment of schools.

Although in the last few decades, but especially from the beginning of 21<sup>st</sup> century, there has been a growing interest in the exploration of early childhood education and care. Most researchers were intrigued especially by early childhood cognitive development, and mostly from the viewpoint of developmental psychology.<sup>1</sup> A further significant research interest is (in a logical way) with education policy issues, which thus result primarily in research within the framework and dimension of the education system. In Hungary, kindergartens do not provide teaching in the strict sense (in fact, it has been technically prohibited since the first Kindergarten Act, 1891 / XV.).<sup>2</sup> To address the interaction of kindergartens with local communities is especially difficult because of the uniqueness of the Hungarian pre-school system. In the case of foreign language literature, the biggest problem is that the peculiarities of the Hungarian kin-

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<sup>1</sup> For example some recent papers: Messer, Emily J.E, Lumsden, Amy, Burgess, Vanessa, McGuigan, Nicola: *Young children selectively adopt sharing norms according to norm content and donor age*, Cognitive Development, Vol. 59., July-September 2021.; W. Barnett, Steven, Jung, Kwanghee: *Effects of New Jersey's Abbott preschool program on children's achievement, grade retention, and special education through tenth grade*, Early Childhood Research Quarterly, Volume 56, 3rd Quarter 2021, Pages 248-259., etc.

<sup>2</sup> 1891/XV. törvénycikk A kisdédóvásról, <http://1000ev.hu/index.php?a=3&param=6422>

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dergarten system do not correspond to the kindergarten system of any of the countries studied so far with complete accuracy. In Anglo-Saxon-type education systems, a sharp distinction can be made between “pre-school” and “kindergarten,” the latter already part of the school education system and corresponding to the level of Key Stage 1.<sup>3</sup> In continental education systems, kindergartens usually have primarily “childcare” functions: they are not compulsory and they are not given a prominent role in school preparation and cognitive development. Hungarian kindergartens are compulsory for children aged 3-6, but they are compatible to the level of Key Stage 0 or EYFS (Early Years Foundation Stage)<sup>4</sup>, where children are mostly taught through play and games. In the current training output requirements (“képzési kimeneteli követelmények”) of kindergarten teachers at Hungarian universities, the English name of the degree obtained is “pre-school educator”. In the present essay, to avoid misunderstandings, I will therefore refer to Hungarian pre-schools as kindergartens, and kindergarten teachers as pre-school educators.

Kindergarten-society interaction is much more significant than is usually assumed. Assessing its nature and extent can also help – from a practical point of view – the more precise elaboration of institutional strategies. The initial hypothesis of this research is that only a kindergarten education program that adheres to realities, flexibly adapts to them, and takes into account challenges, will help the survival, popularity and role of a given institution in the community. As the number of children decreases, it is becoming increasingly vital for a kindergarten to be known and attractive in the eyes of parents and the local community.

The role of the kindergarten in Hungary’s educational system should not be overemphasized or trivialized. Children spend 3-4 years in pre-school education, and this, although much less measurable than school, contributes significantly to the fulfilment of latent functions of education. (Merton 1957).

Pre-school education is clearly not enough on its own. However:

1. Kindergarten in Hungary is the first compulsory institutional socialization medium for children, in which they need to integrate and in which they need to prevail. “According to the report of the Eurostat (Key Data on Education in Europe, 2012) in most countries compulsory education begins with the first level of basic education (usually when children are 5-6 years old - ISCED1). However, in Hungary, mandatory participation in education extends out to those of kindergarten age as well. In the case of four-year-old children, and children over the age of four, Hungarian kindergarten attendance rates are above the European Union’s average levels.”
2. Kindergartens enjoy significantly more methodological freedom than schools. In kindergarten education, there is essentially no centrally set task to be performed, no precise knowledge material to be acquired, no quantifiable performance expecta-

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<sup>3</sup> Statutory guidance – National curriculum in England: framework for key stages 1 to 4 <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/national-curriculum-in-england-framework-for-key-stages-1-to-4/the-national-curriculum-in-england-framework-for-key-stages-1-to-4>

<sup>4</sup> <https://foundationyears.org.uk/2019/08/eyfspolicy/>

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tion. The only mandatory regulation for pre-school education is the National Basic Program for Pre-school Education (ONAP)<sup>5</sup> adopted in 1996 and updated several times. It is part of the kindergarten's own methodological freedom to specify in its own educational program what kind of education it provides within the framework of ONAP.

3. In today's Hungary, kindergarten is more likely to interact with local society at both the institutional and personal levels than other educational institutions. (Schools are managed centrally, kindergartens are mainly under local government authority.) In addition to the leaders of the local society (mainly the local government), kindergarten and pre-school educators also have a much closer relationship with the children's parents-relatives than the school and the schoolteachers. This is only partly due to the fact that, for the child, the pre-school education is part of his microsystem, and in this respect the kindergarten is significantly similar to his family, so he also treats this as a primary group. More nurturing and supportive interactions and relationships are likely to foster a better environment for development. (Józsa 2011, 12-29) Also, pre-school educators are practically in daily contact with the children's parents, so they know their circumstances, opinions, problems, principles and difficulties of raising children better than the employees of all other educational institutions.

In summary, although the kindergarten does not deal with specific educational tasks in the school sense, its functions (caring, integration and personality development) affect not only children's later school performance, but also their school achievements and thus their social integration.

Although kindergartens are not the primary place of performance-based education, they have an important role to play not only in the socialization of children aged 3-6, but also in reaching school-leaving status. Entry into institutional education is greatly facilitated by participation in prior institutional education. In addition to social, linguistic and socialization catching up, the kindergarten also helps to resolve learning, behavioural and integration difficulties. Children reach the end of their pre-school stage at a time when the previously almost monopolistic spontaneous learning is being replaced by intentional learning. Although school-type, performance-based learning is lacking in kindergartens, gaining experience of knowledge acquisition techniques play an important role in kindergarten education. Here, children also learn the basics of social coexistence, as well as the forms of cooperation with the peer group, the benefits of discipline and meeting community expectations. Of course, this does not mean that six- to seven-year-olds who have not received pre-school education for some reason are unable to assert themselves in school – however, participation in pre-school education significantly facilitates school integration. That is why the reduction of the start of compulsory pre-schooling to the age of three from 1 September 2015 as opposed to the prior age of five was a significant step with regard to educational policy measures.

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<sup>5</sup> 363/2012. (XII. 17.) Korm. rendelet az Óvodai nevelés országos alapprogramjáról <https://net.jogtar.hu/jogszabaly?docid=a1200363.kor>

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All of this is, in fact, nothing more than the objectification of the concept of human capital in education and economics in a given context: not in the form of vocational training, but in the form of social integration. A child who has acquired the skills necessary for community cooperation, intentional learning and discipline during his pre-school years starts with an advantage in the school system. “The different curricula models of Estonia, Finland, Sweden and Hungary are based on the country context, including responsibility of teachers and work teams in the interaction with children and family, the planning of education and evaluation of children’s development, using teaching strategies and supporting of the professional development, and creating the growth environment.” (Peterson et al. 2016, 137).

Why it is definitely worthwhile to deal with kindergartens in Hungary from the point of view of education policy is the peculiarity that is especially important for this essay, and significantly differentiates kindergartens from schools. In present-day Hungary, schools have a negligible opportunity to interact with local communities meaningfully as they are not able to adapt to local impulses because of the extremely centralized system of management and rigid curriculum, while the independent pedagogical programs of kindergartens are markedly important in relation to their social environment.

The interaction between the school and the local community has been an indispensable factor from the advent of institutional education to the emergence of centralized education systems, centrally defined curricula, and compulsory schooling or teacher training requirements set out in regulations. (Németh – Pukánszky 1996). The period when in Hungary schools were under the maintenance and control of the municipality actually meant only seemingly municipal-level decisions. The competence of the local government during this period did not provide an opportunity to deviate from the order of the school year, the National Core Curriculum or the element of education sanctified by any tradition. The apparent subsidiarity of the education system disappeared completely with the creation of the Klebelsberg Intézményfenntartó Központ. Local governments lost their say, but still have to bear the cost of maintaining schools. So, what is left for municipalities? Kindergartens.

Research, insofar as it deals with the interaction between institutional education and the social environment, almost automatically considers the highest educational institution in a given settlement to be one that is important to interact with. (Pianta et al. 2002, 225-238). Usually, when the role of the kindergarten is discussed in some form, it almost always appears only as a filler of the vacuum (mostly treated as temporary) due to the termination of other educational institutions. For example: “In the vacuum left by a declining high school in local society, the parish sought and found gaps. One of the “gaps” is kindergarten (in the area, kindergarten is the current success sector of education; new kindergartens are opening in many places, the old ones have now been taken over by the municipality, instead of the schools taken over by the state). The parish has embarked on energetic and spectacular developments:

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the Catholic kindergarten is ahead of the municipal kindergarten in “K” during our visits.”<sup>6</sup>

However, in my opinion, the role of kindergartens is not only significant for local governments and spontaneously formed local communities if there is no higher level public education institution in the given settlement. That is why I chose Esztergom as the location of my research, where, despite the presence of public and higher education, it can be shown that the kindergarten is capable of performing community tasks not only in a “vacuum space”, but also as a public education institution and a social organization.

The first place of socialization for children is obviously the family, but in most of their lives – especially if we take into account the statistics of crèche attendance in Hungary<sup>7</sup> – the kindergarten is the first institution offering organized education where children can be exposed to new norms, values and rules. However, the relationship between the family and the educational institution is much closer than, for example, the school (even the primary school). ONAP unequivocally states in the first paragraph of the “Kindergarten Image”: “1. The primary arena for raising a pre-school child is the family.”<sup>8</sup> Also, the kindergarten as a social educational institution has a dual task: on the one hand, it expects / enables not only children but also parents to learn new roles and adapt to new role models; on the other hand, as a consequence of the Hungarian demographic situation, it itself is forced to adapt to the feedback and needs of its parents. The fewer children are born, the more likely they are to close kindergartens, especially if there are more than one in the settlement. A kindergarten that has a more attractive program, more advanced infrastructure, more experienced pre-school educators etc. offers a better chance to stay open. The adaptation to the parents’ needs and feedback can take place in many ways, from making the pedagogical program more attractive to implementing integration efforts and providing additional activities and services.

An important condition for the interaction of families - local community – and educational institutions is that the parents of children attending educational institutions have a more significant social network than childless people. Parent-teacher meetings, friendly child relationships, or even the parent Facebook group provide additional opportunities for networking.

The kindergarten has a much wider impact as both an institution and a social organization than is usually taken into account. The main reasons for this are:

1. The methodological freedom enjoyed by kindergartens, which is greater than schools, is implemented in local educational programs and provides an opportunity to reflect on the specific (local) needs of the community interested in educating their children.

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<sup>6</sup> Kozma Tamás, *A pillanat. Esszé az oktatáskutatásról*, Új Mandátum Könyvkiadó, Pécs, 2016, 217. „Abban a légüres térben, amit egy hanyatló középiskola hagy maga után a helyi társadalomban, a plébánia keresett és talált réseket. Egyik „rés” az óvodáztatás (a környéken az óvodáztatás az oktatásügy jelenlegi sikerágazata; sok helyütt nyílnak új óvodák, a régieket az önkormányzat az állam által átvállalt iskolák helyett most kézbe vette). A plébánia energikus és látványos fejlesztésekre kezdett: a katolikus óvoda látogatásaink idején „K”-ban megelőzi az önkormányzati óvodát.”

<sup>7</sup> KSH Stat: 25.8.1.8. Bölcsőde, családi napközi, [https://www.ksh.hu/stadat\\_files/szo/hu/szo0008.html](https://www.ksh.hu/stadat_files/szo/hu/szo0008.html)

<sup>8</sup> „1. Az óvodáskorú gyermek nevelésének elsődleges színtere a család.” 363/2012. (XII. 17.) Korm. rendelet az Óvodai nevelés országos alapprogramjáról <https://net.jogtar.hu/jogszabaly?docid=a1200363.kor>

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2. As for the municipalities that maintain kindergartens predominantly (as Kozma points out), kindergarten remains the institution through which they can be present and manifest in the education system; infrastructure investments in kindergartens are prestigious and have a direct impact on the local community on whose vote and approval they depend.

The optimal impact of the kindergarten on the direct social environment can only be achieved through well-organized institutions with a defined profile that make the most of the possibilities of their internal institutional structure. The framework defined by ONAP provides considerable freedom in the organization of activities, in the construction of the kindergarten's independent image and community-building strategies, all of which can contribute to the popularity and recognition of a given kindergarten. This becomes especially important in cases where parents can choose from several options (i. e. more kindergartens). Due to the declining number of children, kindergartens also inevitably need to work closely with the community to ensure their operation, engaging parents and children through well-defined, individualised nurturing strategies and differential treatment. The task of education and development can be performed by the kindergarten only if a relationship of trust has already been established between the educational institution and the parent, which can result in joint work for the benefit of the child. To do this, every kindergarten needs its own strategy, well-defined and adapted to the specific circumstances, which it can only develop in interaction with the local community. As Graham Crow states: "Empirical investigations of community have continued to be indispensable to the critical evaluation, modification and development of broad theories of social change. This is not least because community studies have the capacity, as Seeley and his co-authors put it, 'to pin down in time and space' (1956: 3) the nature of contemporary social life and thereby to place it in context. By grounding the analysis of social relationships in this way, community studies can reveal the local expression of macro-social forces and their impact on ordinary people's everyday activities as they are lived out in the locality. As a result of these reports into the changing nature of local social life, the emphasis on urbanization, industrialization and bureaucratization to which Stein gave such prominence has given way to alternative accounts that suggest that social development has followed quite a different course." (Crow 2002).

Representatives of the pre-school educator profession are thus in a very special situation: they are not only responsible for the current well-being of the children entrusted to them, but also contribute to their cognitive development, the expansion of their social skills, and even their later academic progress and career prospects. Moreover, they must also stand up as shapers of the immediate social environment of the institution. The prestige of kindergarten teachers within the community can be therefore much higher than is reflected in the financial recognition of the profession. "ECEC professional work is closely connected to society functions and is based on collaborative relationships inside society. The bio-ecological model is a theoretical model of gene-environment interactions that suggests that genetic influences on behaviour should be most evident when the environment is supportive, because there is greater actualisation of genetic potential in supportive environments." (Peterson et al. 2016, 137).

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The kindergarten situation of the city of Esztergom provides an excellent opportunity to examine the above factors for several reasons: the medium-sized city has a complex population in terms of ethnicity, and it is divided into well-separated social micro-environments. Pre-school educator training has been carried out in the city, with some interruptions, since 1892 (Gábris 1996), and its presence is an important factor in the expectations and opportunities related to the kindergarten situation in Esztergom. Currently, full-time and correspondence pre-school educator training takes place within the PPKE BTK Vitéz János Teacher Training Center<sup>9</sup>. VJTK does not have its own practice kindergarten, the students complete their group internship in the kindergartens of Szent Erzsébet, Szentgyörgymező and Aranyhegy, providing a unique opportunity for the educators-in-training to get acquainted with the institutional and organizational diversity of kindergartens already during their studies.

Kindergartens in Esztergom have faced a number of challenges since the change of regime, e. g.:

- the changing demographic and ethnic composition of the city's population (especially the declining number of children and the growing Roma ethnic minority population)
- the growing number of children with special needs, and the consideration of their educational needs in the development of the educational program
- changes in the family background of pre-school children (even in Szent Erzsébet Kindergarten, which provides Catholic education and mainly deals with Catholic children, there are more and more kindergarteners from patchwork families)
- recent difficulties in communicating with parents
- the need for an independent and unique pedagogical program
- the need for different methods of contacting the members of the local community (especially, but not exclusively the families of present and future kindergarteners), in order to involve them in the activities of the given kindergarten.

In addition, the changes in the regulations related to the pre-school educators and the tendencies in the age composition of the representatives of the profession are also sensitive to the city's institutions. Although the presence of PPKE BTK VJTK's training of pre-school educators offers more opportunities to replace those who leave the field and/or retire, compared to cities of similar size, there is also a shortage of pre-school educators in Esztergom, which may become chronic when the generation of "Ratkó children" retire.

Institutions seek to respond to all of these problems and challenges using a variety of strategies. In my research I try to find an answer to what makes a kindergarten popular and attractive, how it correlates with the educational efficiency that can be established there, and what factors beyond the pedagogical program / educational offer play a role in the survival of kindergartens. Examining and categorizing these factors can be helpful not only for the kindergartens specifically studied, but also for kindergartens in cities of similar size to Esztergom.

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<sup>9</sup> <https://btk.ppke.hu/karunkrol/intezetek-tanszekek/vitez-janos-tanarkepzo-kozpont>



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# Psychology of Learning

## Systematic review of return of fear and its implications on public speech

by Claudia Szajli

### *Introduction*

Several studies have explored changing fears. Researchers have examined targeting reconsolidation, but some difficulties arose (McGaugh, 2000; Nader, Schafe & LeDoux, 2000; Sara & Hars 2006; Alberini 2005; Walker, Brakefield, Hobson & Stickgold 2003; Forcato, et al. 2007; Schiller, Monfils, Raio, ... & Phelps 2010).

Changing fears research has demonstrated several techniques which are based on the inhibition of the learned fear response. The first problem with the mentioned techniques is the return of fear which can be caused by certain factors, like stress. The second problem is that in the stage of targeting reconsolidation the researchers used invasive pharmacological manipulations which cause inability to retrieve the memories (Schiller et al. 2010).

The experiments focused on fear conditioning usually included different experimental phases (for an overview see Sjouwerman & Lonsdorf 2020). The first phase is fear acquisition training, in which an initially neutral to-be-conditioned stimulus (CS+) is paired with an aversive unconditioned stimulus (US). A second stimulus (CS-) in turn, is never paired with this aversive event. Consequently, the CS+ triggered a fear response, which is basically marked as increases in autonomic responding or self-reports of fear.

The second phase is fear extinction training, where both CSs are presented without the US, leading to a weakening of the CR. The fear and safety memory traces generated during the first and second training phases are considered to subsequently coexist (Bouton 2004). Therefore, later the dominance of one memory pursuant to the other determines whether fear returns or not, for example during extinction retention. Following successful extinction through the mere passage of time, called spontaneous recovery, induction of contextual change, called renewal, or by exposure to unsignaled USs, called reinstatement, return of fear can be induced (for an overview see e.g., Vervliet, Baeyens, Bergh, & Hermans 2013).

In summary, fear acquisition and extinction training are considered experimental models of the acquisition and behavioral treatment of pathological fear and anxiety (Scheveneels, Boddez, Vervliet, & Hermans 2016), while return of fear manipulations are considered experimental models for clinical relapse (Vervliet et al. 2013; for an overview see Sjouwerman & Lonsdorf 2020).

These manipulations are able to change learned fears in animals. But the invasive manipulations are problematic in humans. The purpose of this paper is to review non-invasive techniques to target the reconsolidation of fear memories in humans according to three research studies and their implications on public speech.

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## 1. Background

There are several theories in this stage. The studies which identified the hormonal and neural influences regulating memory consolidation made a hypothesis that suggests a slow consolidation of new memories (McGaugh 2000). The traditional theory of memory formation suggests a one-time process of consolidation. Contrary to this view the reconsolidation hypothesis suggests that the memories are consolidated every time they are retrieved (Nader, Schafe & LeDoux 2000; Sara & Hars 2006).

According to the model paradigm of Pavlovian fear conditioning, previous research has used protein synthesis inhibitors. They specify the molecular processes which are related to the emotional memory reconsolidation by pharmacologically blocking. They found that after blocking, the memory was no longer expressed. These techniques were used in animals, but they aren't safe for use in human (Alberini 2005; Sara & Hars 2006)

Research studies of motor and declarative memory in humans suggest that the new information may interfere with the older memories. The manner of influence is impairing the memory or modifying it in order to incorporate the new information (Walker, Brakefield, Hobson & Stickgold 2003; Forcato, et al. 2007).

There are three studies distinguished. Primarily, the thesis of the first study is discussed.

### 1.1. Hypothesis and Predictions

Schiller et al.'s (2010) study was to identify the reconsolidation as an update mechanism and try to change emotional memories with new information.

The researchers hypothesized that if they update the fear memory with non-fearful information provided through extinction training, it could alter the original fear response and inhibit the return of fear.

Furthermore, they predicted that the fear memory is persistently altered if affected by the reconsolidation of the fear memory. This effect is expected for a long time (about 1 year). The researchers attempted to examine whether the observed blockade of fear memory persists.

Finally, they assessed that interfering with reconsolidation using extinction could be useful in clinical practice. They tried to determine whether it is specific. The researchers investigated whether interfering with one fear predictive cue would influence the destiny of another related cue. The aim was to identify the specificity of the fear blockade technique.

In summary, their prediction was that the old fear memories can be updated with non-fearful information provided during the reconsolidation window. Here the dependent variables are the old fear memories, and the independent variable is the non-fearful information which is provided during the reconsolidation window.

To test their main hypothesis the researchers designed two experiments. Both of them investigated whether extinction training conducted during the reconsolidation window would block the return of extinguished fear. The next part of this paper will demonstrate the experimental design of the study and detail the procedure.

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## 2. Methods

### 2.1. First experiment

In the first study, there were three groups of subjects. It was a between-group design. The researchers used a discrimination paradigm with partial reinforcement. The subjects were exposed to fear conditioning. The experimental paradigm included two coloured squares. In that case, we can distinguish three experimental phases.

#### 2.1.1. First experimental phase

One square was the conditioned stimulus (CS1). It was paired with a mild shock to the wrist as unconditioned stimulus (US). The other square was the CS2. It was never paired with shock. In the first phase the researchers presented these two squares.

#### 2.1.2. Second experimental phase

The second phase took place a day later. The three groups took part in extinction training. In the training the CS1 and the CS2 were repeatedly presented without the US. In two groups, the fear memory was reactivated before (10 min; 6 hours) the extinction using a single presentation of the CS1. The third group wasn't reminded before the extinction training.

#### 2.1.3. Third experimental phase

The third stage took place twenty-four hours later. In that phase, all three groups were presented with the conditioned stimuli without the US. Here, the aim was to assess spontaneous fear recovery. The fear was measured by the skin conductance response (SCR). The late phase of the experiment took place about a year later. In that part the return of fear was examined with a different recovery assay.

### 2.2. Second experiment

Within-subject design was used in the second study. In that case the participants were exposed to fear conditioning using three coloured squares.

In one-third of the trials two squares (CSa1 and CSb1) were paired with the shock. The third square which is CS2 was never paired with the shock.

The next part of the study took place a day later. The participants got a single presentation of CSa1 and the CS2. The extinction training was presented ten minutes after the reminder trial. Here the repeated presentations of all conditioned stimuli were used but without the US.

## 3. Results

The main results were that all three groups showed equivalent fear acquisition and extinction. Spontaneous recovery was found in the group where the subjects was reminded six

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hours before extinction and in another group where the participants weren't reminded. Furthermore, the subjects had significantly stronger responses to CS1 than to CS2 during acquisition. There was no difference in the last trial of extinction. On the other hand, in the group where the subjects were reminded ten minutes before the extinction there was no spontaneous recovery. According to these findings we can prevent the spontaneous recovery of fear after extinction if extinction training is conducted during the time window.

In the conditioned fear response, the reinstatement index is the difference. The difference is between the end of re-extinction after the initial spontaneous recovery test and the conditioned fear response immediately after reinstatement a year later. These findings indicate that reactivation of a fear memory renders it labile and extinction training during this lability period leads to a long-lasting blockade of recovery of fear.

Subjects had equivalent levels of acquisition and extinction of conditioned fear to the two conditioned stimuli. Fear reinstatement was found only to CSb1. These results indicate that the extinction during reconsolidation affected only the reactivated memory. There is no effect in another trace which is associated with the original event (Schiller et al. 2010).

Secondly, the thesis of the second study is discussed.

### **1. Purpose of research**

Kindt & Soeter (2013) determined that Schiller et al. (2010) indicated the effects of extinction in both between-subject and within-subject design. The effects are rather small and only proved for a non-specific measure of fear which is skin conductance responding.

Kindt & Soeter (2013) examined whether unreinforced extinction trials provided during the reconsolidation window prevent the return of extinguished fear. They used a between-subject fear-conditioning design with two fear-relevant stimuli.

### **2. Method**

The participants were 40 undergraduate students (13 men, 27 women) from the University of Amsterdam aged 18–33 years.

There were different experimental phases across three consecutive days each separated by 24 hours. On the first day of the experiment one of two fear-relevant conditioned stimuli (CS1+) was repeatedly paired with an aversive electric stimulus (US). At the same time the other fear-relevant conditioned stimulus (CS2-) was not paired with an unconditioned stimulus. It was the day for fear acquisition.

On the second day, all subjects were exhibited to extinction training. During the training the feared conditioned stimulus (CS1) was presented without the unconditioned stimulus. The fear memory was reactivated 10 minutes before extinction training.

On the third day the memory retention (CS1- vs. CS2-) was tested.

### **3. Results**

The findings demonstrated that the original fear memory remained unaffected by the behavioral manipulation (Kindt & Soeter 2013).

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They also found that the single retrieval trial prior to extinction training did not reduce the recovery of skin conductance discrimination, extinguished fear responding or US expectancy ratings one day later.

The researchers observed a general increase in skin conductance responding to the CS+ and CS- following the reminder shocks. That difference in scores would not have revealed the reinstatement of skin conductance responding. At the same time, controlling for high trait anxiety showed a differential reinstatement effect.

Interference with reconsolidation by a behavioral procedure is more advantageous than drug manipulations, but according to our previous knowledge propranolol as add on memory reactivation evidently outperforms extinction training in reducing conditioned responding to fear-relevant stimuli.

Thirdly, the thesis of the third study is discussed.

### **1. Purpose of research**

It is known that individuals with anxiety disorders are mostly treated with exposure therapy which can reduce fear responses at first, but under certain circumstances the fear frequently returns (Bouton 2002). The limits of the long-term effectiveness of exposure therapy can be explained by the extinction leaving the original memory intact (Bouton 2002). It can be deduced that conditioned fear memories can be updated by extinction during reconsolidation.

The authors investigated whether US retrieval extinction can disrupt representations of the US and sustainably leave out all US-associated memory markers and responses. According to that, the researchers present a technique to target all diverse signs which are associated with an aversive occasion (Liu & Zhao et al. 2014).

### **2. Methods**

Liu & Zhao et al.'s (2014) research involved 161 participants. They were subjected to modified fear conditioning. In this experiment they were exposed to an unconditioned stimulus (US) or unreinforced CS to reactivate the memory. After that, they experienced extinction, recovery spontaneously, and restoration.

In the experiments, the positive conditioned stimulus (CS) was paired with an electric shock as unconditioned stimulus (US) on a partial reinforcement schedule. There were several experimental setups: in the first study one CS was paired with the US. In the second third, and fifth study two distinct CS were paired with the same US. In the sixth study, each of two distinct CS was paired with the different US.

In the test, all of the CS were not reinforced. In the experiments the spontaneous recovery test occurred 24 hours after the end of extinction. At the end of the spontaneous recovery test or the end of extinction the response to the CS was thoroughly extinguished, and the participants then received three unpaired US. After the unpaired US they continue with a reinstatement test.

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### 3. Results

All of the subjects achieved successful acquisition and extinction. These results suggest that the extinction during US triggered reconsolidation, prevented the return of fear responses. They also found that the extinction of multiple CS during US-triggered reconsolidation inhibited the fear response to each CS (Liu & Zhao et al. 2014).

The experiment pointed out that the exposure triggered stronger molecular alterations in hippocampal neurons in order to cause the memory to be updated or removed.

These findings indicate that the US retrieval extinction procedure was effective for long-lasting fear memory by blocking the return of fear. It is important to note that the effect of extinction was US-specific, therefore the procedure blocked only the fear response related to the reactivated US (Liu & Zhao et al. 2014).

In summary, the present research demonstrated a new behavioral procedure to elicit generalized decreases in fear with long-term effects (6 months). While inhibiting response to all previously reinforced cues using CS retrieval is unworkable, these effects may open new avenues in therapy especially in preventing the return of fear response (Liu & Zhao et al. 2014).

### *Implications on public speech*

#### 1. Background

The appearance of emotions in speech was noticed by the early Greeks and Romans, then in the 19th century by modern evolutionary theory, mainly represented by Darwin, and its empirical study began in the 20th century (Scherer 2003). During communication, we are not only able to express our emotions with words, our facial expressions, facial expressions and body language also reveal a lot about our emotions, and we often cover them with paralinguistic cues (Forgács 2007). Indications such as speech speed, pitch, rhythm, volume, and speech tempo are closely related to verbal content, i.e., spoken words (Forgács 2007). The set of cues that indicate emotional states in the acoustic pattern of speech is called a vocal emotion expression (Tiszlár-Szabó 2014). The following section of this paper focuses on vocal emotion expression. The aim of this paper is to map the effects of different emotional states on acoustic traits in speech, especially public speech, and how acoustic traits change as a result of evoked emotions.

Public speaking causes tension in most people. The extent of stage fright depends on the individual and the situation, and can be reduced or even completely overcome with practice and a lot of experience (Horváth 2008). Fear of public speaking is a form of perception of verbal communication and is so common that McCroskey (1977, id.: Goberman, Hughes, & Haydock 2011) considers it a pathology if an individual does not experience at least slight anxiety about public speaking. Our anxiety in a public speaking situation significantly affects our speech. Our muscles necessary for sound formation are tense, thus it becomes more difficult to breathe, our voice becomes high-pitched and louder (Horváth 2008). High tension can block the speaker, but moderate anxiety can also be beneficial as it enhances performance (Horváth 2008). There are a number of

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methods and training available to reduce the tension of public speaking, the application of which can be useful for those who require public speaking in their professions. Below are some of the research findings that focus on public speaking.

The research on the topic can be divided into two parts: perception and production research (Szabó 2008). Production research examines the speaker's point of view, i.e. they observe which acoustic features are present in the speech of an individual in a given emotional state (Szabó 2008). Perceptual research examines whether when a person communicates something in some emotional state, it is recognized by the students, and if so, on the basis of which acoustic features (Szabó 2008). Researchers can examine the emotions that appear in speech in a number of ways: by artificially evoking emotions, during emotional events, in natural situations, or by studying simulated emotions. In the following the first two methods are presented.

Artificial induction of emotions is preferred by researchers, as the degree of control is high. If necessary, we can pre-select a special group of people and all experimental persons go through the same procedure (Tisljár-Szabó 2014). For example, the MIP (Mood Induction Procedure) method is suitable for inducing emotions, during which the speech of the experimental person is recorded in the evoked emotional state and then studied (Banos, Botella et al. 2003, id.: Szabó 2008). In the Velten method, the subjects receive a statement written in the first person of 60 individual numbers about different emotional states, and their task is to try to empathize with the state of the person who may have made the statements (Szabó 2008). Movies, music, images, role-plays, computer games, imagination or hypnosis are also used to evoke emotions (Szabó 2008). According to previous research, music is much more capable of evoking negative emotions than positive emotions, and the emotion evoked by music is less than that evoked by film (Tisljár-Szabó 2014). Although these methods have a high degree of control, they are only suitable for inducing weak emotions, and we cannot be sure that they cause the same condition in all individuals (Scherer 2003).

## **2. Research results**

Previous research (Breitenstein et al. 2001; Laukka et al. 2005) has shown several correlations with arousal (id.: Tisljár-Szabó 2014). Their results show that as the activation level increases, the bass pitch, bass volume variability, volume, speech rate will be faster, and pauses will be shortened. The level of activation increases, for example, in the case of anxiety, which can be triggered by a public speaking situation.

In Westenberg et al.'s study (2009), participants were required to present a speech practiced at home to an incorporated audience. According to their results, this task elicits a moderate stress response. Participants reported feeling more nervous during speech, having higher heart rates, and sweating palms than at the beginning or end of the study. Physiological and neuroendocrine activity were also higher during speech than before or after.

In the research of Feldman, Cohen, Hamrick, and Lepore (2004), one group of participants had to prepare for a speech (stressful condition) while the control group



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had to prepare for a reading task. They found that preparation for speech was assessed as more threatening and that group members had a higher cardiovascular response than those preparing to read, especially among individuals anxious about public speaking.

During public speaking, the speaker has the illusion that his or her anxiety is more noticeable to students (Goberman et al. 2011). In the study of Goberman, Hughes, Haydock (2011), speakers rated their own anxiety higher than students rated, thus confirming the existence of illusion.

Thus, most research examining the public speaking situations demonstrate that they elicit tension that is manifested in various physiological reactions (high heart rate and sweaty palm), high neuroendocrine activity, and greater cardiovascular response (Feldman, Cohen, Hamrick & Lepore 2004; Westenberg et al. 2009). Public anxiety may be associated with an increase in activation levels (Breitenstein et al. 2001; Laukka et al. 2005, id.: Tisljár-Szabó 2014). An increase in arousal levels leads to changes in various acoustic features (Breitenstein et al. 2001; Laukka et al. 2005, id.: Tisljár-Szabó 2014).

Previous studies (Pittam & Scherer 1993; Johnstone & Scherer 2000) have shown that in the tense state, the intensity of the acoustic notes and the mean of the fundamental tone increase during a speech in public, i.e., we perceive a higher voice of the tense speaker. In a sad emotional state, on the other hand, the basal frequency, intensity, range of sound, speech and articulation tempo, melodicity of the sound, and descending melody line are characteristic. In the case of pleasure, the fundamental frequency, intensity, sound range, melodicity of the sound, and the tempo of speech and articulation increase (for an overview see Szabó 2008).

Davitz and Davitz (1959) asked the participants to express ten different emotions with their voices while reading the alphabet in order to separate the meaning of words and sound quality (id.: Forgács 2007). Subsequently, another group of participants was asked to try to identify the expressed feelings (Davitz & Davitz 1959, id.: Forgács, 2007). The number of correct recognitions was highest for anger, happiness, nervousness, and sadness, while it was lowest for pride and jealousy (Davitz & Davitz 1959, id.: Forgács 2007).

Scherer (1974) imitate the intonation contour of a short sentence using a synthesizer. He then made regular changes in pitch, pitch changes, volume, its changes, and tempo. Participants were instructed to try to determine what emotion they were expressing after listening to the soundtracks. According to their results, slow tempo and moderate pitch alternation indicated unpleasant emotions (e.g., sadness, disgust, boredom), while fast tempo and extreme pitch alternation indicated pleasant emotions (e.g., happiness, interest, surprise).

Laukka et al. (2005) showed that the expression of positive emotions is accompanied by decreased pitch, increased pitch variance, fast speech rate, decreased volume, and shortened pauses.

In Pereira's (2000) research, 31 subjects listened to sentences uttered with 40 different emotional charges (happiness, sadness, anger, neutrality). Then they were instructed to use emotions on a scale, three dimensions (arousal, joy, strength). His results showed

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that for students, emotional states associated with high arousal levels (e.g., “hot” anger, happiness) had a higher baseline frequency (F0), a wider range, and a higher intensity than the neutral state. The scale values indicated by the participants showed a positive correlation with the mentioned acoustic features. Based on the statistics performed, it was concluded that, in fact, each emotion is significantly different from the other along all three dimensions.

In a Hungarian research study, Szabó (2008) combined the method of autobiographical memory and music, the experimental subjects had to recall sad and cheerful stories from their own lives while listening to music with cheerful and sad breathing. The control situation was given by telling the events of an average day. His results showed that based on the measured parameters, there is a difference between the cheerful, sad and neutral emotional state, especially between the sad and cheerful state: articulation tempo was slower in the sad mood, pauses were longer, the ratio of pauses to total speaking time was higher and had a lower volume than in a cheerful emotional state.

However, despite many research results, there is no consensus on which acoustic features can be identified and separated from each other (Laukka 2004, id.: Tüske, Simon, Mihajlik & Fegyó 2007). On the other hand, it has been proven that in the case of passive emotions (e.g. grief) the mean, range and standard deviation of the fundamental frequency decreases, while in the case of active emotions (e.g. joy) it increases (Tüske, Simon, Mihajlik & Fegyó 2007).

Thus, most studies examining the appearance of emotions in speech show that the sad emotional state is accompanied by decreased baseline frequency, intensity, sound range, sound melody, descending melody line, and slow speech and articulation tempo, moderate pitch change, low volume, longer pauses and higher pause ratios (Scherer, 1974; Pittam & Scherer 1993; Johnstone & Scherer 2000; Laukka 2005; Tüske, Simon, Mihajlik & Fegyó 2007; Szabó 2008).

In contrast, a cheerful emotional state is accompanied by increased fundamental frequency, intensity, range of sound, melodicality, and decreased pitch, increased extreme pitch variation, rapid speech and articulation tempo, decreased volume, and shortened pauses (Scherer 1974; Pittam & Scherer 1993; Johnstone); & Scherer 2000; Laukka 2005; Tüske, Simon, Mihajlik & Fegyó 2007; Szabó 2008).

In the tense state, the intensity of the acoustic notes and the mean of the fundamental tone increase (Pittam & Scherer 1993; Johnstone & Scherer 2000).

At the same time, Pereira’s (2000) research failed to show the results obtained by Laukka (2005), i.e. that positive emotions are accompanied by decreased pitch, increased pitch variance, fast tempo and low volume, and short pauses (id.: Tisljár-Szabó 2014). Pereira (2000) found that for emotional states associated with high arousal levels (e.g. anger, happiness), the fundamental frequency is higher, wider in scope, and intensity higher.

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## *Discussion*

### **1. Interpretation of the results**

The researchers' hypothesis was certified, while the findings recommend to target specific fear memories with new techniques and prevent the fear returning after the extinction training. As predicted, the researchers found that the spontaneous recovery could be prevented by the extinction which is conducted during the reconsolidation window of an old fear memory. The extinction also could prevent the reinstatement of fear responses. The study showed that updating fear memories with non-fearful information provided through extinction training led to the blocking of old learned fear responses.

### **2. Criticism about the method and design, future studies**

Similarly to Schiller et al.'s (2010) study, Liu & Zhao, et al. (2014) also used a modified fear conditioning procedure. Consistent with Schiller's study, they suggest that US retrieval extinction with erasing or disassociating the original CS-US association could diminish the fear response to prevent the return of fear.

Despite of the similar results the Schiller et al. study has some insufficiencies. For example, the extinction during reconsolidation has long-lasting effects only on memory for the reactivated CS. On the other hand, the extinction doesn't interfere with memory for other cues associated with the original learning event (Liu & Zhao et al. 2014).

In contrast to Schiller's findings, Kindt & Soeter (2013) found that extinction learning within the reconsolidation window can't prevent the recovery of fear on multiple indices of conditioned responding. Schiller et al. used a single-method for indexing fear (SCR) and fear-irrelevant stimuli. In contrast, Kindt & Soeter (2013) used multi-method of indexing fear response. The other important difference is in the conditioned stimuli, Schiller et al. used geometric figures, while Kindt & Soeter (2013) used fear-relevant stimuli.

The strength of the Schiller et al.'s (2010) study is that they demonstrated the effects in both one between-subject and one within-subject design, but the effects are rather small. The problem with the Schiller et al.'s (2010) study is that it's only demonstrated for a non-specific measure of fear (SCR).

Further critical testing is necessary because of the conflicting results (Schiller et al. 2010; Liu & Zhao et al. 2014; Kindt & Soeter 2013). Future studies are needed to identify the exact mechanism (Liu & Zhao et al. 2014) and to give the potential impact on the emotional memory field and its application to clinical practice (Kindt & Soeter 2013).

### **3. Clinical relevance, implications**

These research studies have clinical relevance while the findings have implications for the treatment of anxiety disorders. The therapist can utilize these results in several forms of therapy. Another study (Liu & Zhao et al. 2014) also suggests that clinically, the selectivity of reconsolidation processes has important value. The US retrieval extinction-based therapy for humans with anxiety disorders should reduce fear responses. But these therapy forms should not cause a total loss of fear responses to all fear-inducing cues (Liu & Zhao et al. 2014).

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Schiller et al. (2010) investigated erasing reactivated fear memories by interfering with their reconsolidation. According to Haakera & Gaburrob et al. (2013) the memory erasure should be used only in conditions that cannot be treated in other ways. They support that under most circumstances, personal empowerment by strengthening of individual coping resources may be a preferable strategy.

A number of research studies demonstrate delay of the original excitatory CS+ or US association following extinction training. In several studies researchers induce a renewal phase in laboratory. The clinical turning of context renewal is represented by return of fear in a public speaking situation such as a workplace presentation that differs from the public speaking practiced in exposure therapy (Zbozinek & Craske 2016).

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# Interpretation of Tradition as Pedagogical Context

## by Szilvia Moldován

### *Introduction*

In this age of digital education, it is worthwhile to consider a previous period of focus shift in language and the conflicting methodological difficulties of the immovability of traditional interpretations, as well as the genealogy of the digital revolution of our present. We can see intriguing analogies between the question-filled dichotomy of traditional and digital education and the controversies of the age of the paradigm shift in language and self-interpretation.

At the beginning of the 20th century, with language coming into focus, such a revolution occurred in interpretation theory both in philosophy and in theology – and in theological speech in practice as well as in related pedagogical fields, that presupposes a scientific and social context, which takes a reflected view, beyond linguistic determination, of the cultural aspects of tradition related to, but beyond language.

### *1. Fundamentalism in the classroom*

*“The job of the school is to prompt the student to exercise his/her mind, developing the ability of the mind to clarify contexts and discover the truth, unfolding the sense for experiencing and grasping lived certainties. A school that does not realize this task, which, on the contrary, provides pre-fabricated elements of thought, will thus become an obstacle to the development of its students’ personalities.”* (Urbán 2018) according to a publication of the Congregation for Catholic Education. At first glance, the personal development of students seems independent of the linguistic and didactic patterns of the teacher who brings up old texts in class.

But proffering the literal interpretation as the only one, as above, in class, shows a close connection to the formation of the patterns of questioning, of dialogue. With the change of language, fundamentalist approaches have insisted more and more on literal interpretations, discarding the diversity of interpretations, and refusing to allow interpretations into dialogue. Of the many definitions of fundamentalism, I am now pointing out an attempt centered around two approaches, this is what I will henceforth reference in my hermeneutical analysis focused around language.

Fundamentalism is *“such a behaviour that escapes or avoids discourse on what is true or right, and instead proclaims supposed or alleged truths as unwavering and undisputed fundaments.”* (Rostoványi 2016).

Of the fundamentalist approaches manifested in various ways, devices, and topics, I am pointing out those which I will most often reference while, following Ebeling’s definition, I contrast the presence of new theology in pedagogy with fundamentalism.

- exclusivity, the knowledge of an exclusive truth (undisputed fundament), the sole correct interpretation, discarding the diversity of interpretations;
- claim of universality, mandatory one-size-fits-all solutions;

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- inner conflicts: who is the owner of the exclusive, sole truth – an epistemological struggle (Rostoványi 2016).

It will especially be relevant when, during a religion, ethics, or even literature class, the teacher, with his/her own model of interpretation, presents a structure, a way, a language of interpretation for the students. If we consider exclusivity, the refusal of dialogue, and predetermination while interpreting religious texts and religious tradition, a question arises of not only hermeneutical but also pedagogical import. Through the interpreting teacher, the students invited for interpretation, choosing the method of encounter with tradition, also receive an invitation to form a statement on their own identities. This has religious hermeneutical and anthropological implications which may concern both the religious practice and self-interpretation of the interpreter.

The distance of the concept of the language game takes us from the method of expression of dogmatics which strives for accuracy, pointing beyond the hermeneutical debates of the time to religious hermeneutical questions.

Not only did the doors of dialectical interpretation open hitherto unknown perspectives on dialogue, the more and more radical lockdowns of religious fundamentalism also have, and still today concern these very doors.

But the responsibility that interpretational paradigms establish either conscious or unconscious (implicit) reception of interpretational, practical, practical religious patterns already through the transfer of content, poses an inevitable task towards pedagogical practice.

“For this reason, dialectic proceeds by way of question and answer or, rather, the path of all knowledge leads through the question. To ask a question means to bring into the open. The openness of what is in question consists in the fact that the answer is not settled” (Gadamer 2004, 357)

The option of the unsettledness of the answer to what is in question methodologically presupposes a teacher who asks questions. The linguistic and didactical solutions stemming from the exclusivity of lecture-type lessons, aside from serving as a model, preclude the option to make a classroom open.

I would now like to present the contradictions of the hermeneutic approach of new theology versus fundamentalist interpretation, aiming to make a comparison of the conflicts and points of connection between the religious texts and the language of interpretation, as well as the subsequent interpretational and anthropological processes.

In this, the interpretation theories of Gadamer and Ebeling, present in theology as well, will be of help to me, as they enable us to find the points and reasons of connection between a more general shift in interpretation theory and a hermeneutics defined by more specific traits. From these, this paper aims to infer the basis of the new speech pattern of new theology, which concerns liturgical practice, teaching of religious studies, and the expansion of religious dialogue.

## *2. Issues: question and emerging answers*

The dilemma of fundamentalist, literal interpretation, tied closely to the empty structures of language versus the diversity of permissive interpretations is similarly organised as



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the dilemma of the aspiration of dogmatic clarification versus the open apprehension belonging to human nature. If we approach these dilemmas from the phenomena focusing on solutions, we get to know the groups associated with them, their interpretation of tradition, their solution alternatives. We can see that fundamentalist Christian groups shy away from making known tradition into a question (emphatically not 'questionable'). We may think, at first sight, that this isn't a strange phenomenon to the schools of text interpretation of the Christian tradition, since the truths of faith, or the contemporary contexts from the time of the text's creation considered closed do not allow for putting into question. Thus we could posit the truth of the fundamentalists as an axiom, and verify the handed-down approach with a simple experience: our grandparents studied the same catechism as their grandchildren, and it may seem strange to us to bring it into question.

This strangeness appears in a theoretically different way, in a way to point out contradictions, as an excellent opportunity in the oeuvre of two great 20th century thinkers, Hans-Georg Gadamer and Gerhard Ebeling. Ebeling considers this contradiction to be a property of the modern theological approach, and the "polar opposite" of fundamentalist thought. Pointing this out is important because converting the fundamentalist cage of interpretation into an escape room shows the way out only through the identity-focused approach of interpretation games proffered by language. (Ebeling 1971, 44)

If we look at a biblical text, and the tradition built upon fundamentalist literal interpretation, that's already two phenomena to interpret. Literal language and the fundamentalist tradition interpreting it. This tradition doesn't ask questions, it doesn't construct renewable answers. And as such, new hermeneutics disputes the comprehension of "tradition" of this approach: Gadamer considers tradition a dialogue manifesting in the interactive encounter of the interpreter's individual and the interpreter's time's cultural context, even in theological tradition. It cannot be a reality independent from the interpreter, "*For tradition is a genuine partner in dialogue, and we belong to it, as does the I with a Thou.*" (Gadamer 2004: 352) By contrast, fundamentalist approaches don't allow for texts constructed by a language in a certain time to be reinterpreted in our language of today, which has changed and been enriched by various colourful cultural layers.

"Only if we've spelled out the text, but understanding the text has met an obstacle, proved difficult, only then do we question what actually stands there, whether the traditional reading, or the chosen reading mode is correct. [...] The task of interpretation always comes up if the content of the writing is disputed, and if the challenge of the proper understanding of 'the message' is at stake." (Gadamer 1991, 24, 28)

Language must call, and "...must deal with what actually happens when the call of God's word is heard." (Gadamer 2004, 525)

If we return to the approach of gadamerian tradition manifested in the I-Thou relation, we must say that the fundamentalist refusal to enter into dialogue prevents the religious text from being present as living language for the interpreter. Existential lingual determinedness, ie. the fact that the worldly experience of the interpreter can only be lingual, and if this language is not compatible with the language of the texts of his/her religious tradition, then this experience cannot be integrated nor communicated. If it cannot be

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formed in language, filtered through an own language, then this experience doesn't connect to those traditions. The language of the interpreter doesn't reach the language preserved by fundamentalism, their respective experiences constructed by language don't meet.

The dialogue of interpretational possibilities is a priori rejected by fundamentalist schools. As soon as the possibility for dialogue opens up, there is an immediate need for the language of religious experiences, the encounter of the preserved language of an experience in the past, and the lived-in language of current experience. So the stake of closure versus openness is not only whether we understand each other's language, but also if our experiences can even connect. Can an experience lived through in an understandable 21st century language be anything like that of the prophet Elijah, Adam, Jesus, or the church fathers? If we accept that experience is only through language, then excluding the encounter of two experiences through two languages, we also refuse the connection between religious experiences. Not only do they not speak the same language, but in the absence of the experience of dialogue, the possibility to include an experience in tradition is also missing. With it, one of the most important points of religious identity, the work which an interpreter performs to connect his/her experience with Christ's own; to Christ himself. The possibilities and fundamentalist closures result in the rethinking of questions of religious identity, and form the planned game fields and rules.

### *3. The existential excitement of linguistic inquiry*

Lutheran theologian Gerhard Ebeling connects to Luther the discovery of the possibility of work to resolve the linguistic distance in his Luther-study (Ebeling 1971: 32). The way he sees it, linguistic inquiry has opened up paths to interpreting the Scripture, which in turn led to a better self-understanding, and this interpretation manifested in language is a basis for connection to this day for an interpreter of the Scripture, who thus becomes a self-interpreter. Understanding language is always connected to self-understanding; if this isn't connected to the meaning to be known in the I-Thou relationship, revealed only in dialogue, then this understanding becomes similar to getting to know a dead language, and the reverse comprehension process is difficult to activate, which is when our own lingual experiences seek out the "Thou" in the language of religious texts.

There is indisputable knowledge to be gained with a historical approach, but the inflexibility of literal interpretation doesn't build upon individual lingual experience, so all the anthropological and existential yield of interpretation and self-interpretation stays outside of language.

### *4. The problem-centeredness of the linguistic approaches of new theology*

The linguistic interest of new theology developed during the hermeneutic turn in the 20th century opened up new paths not simply for the dialogue of interpretations, but at the same time to answer the hermeneutic function of problematality. Linguistic

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approaches in theology aren't unproblematic. I would now like to talk only about the unavoidability of problematality, and the interpretational surplus stemming from this problematality, analysing this approach of experience in language, speech made into Ebeling's language event. I will go on to write about the linguistic nature of connecting faith experiences to religious texts through lingual formulation of faith experiences.

If the interpreter takes the faith experience through his/her own lingual experience, which brings about an intense religious phenomenon, it results in an event in the level of the deepest experiences, which has been reworked on many levels. If we give faith experience a language, we make more statements beyond itself, writes Ebeling. Because 1. a new language is formed, which 2. processes an own experience, 3. is made available for others by language, 4. becomes embedded in tradition, 5. it is a work of the accordance between form and meaning. (Ebeling 1971, 32-35)

1. A new language is formed –

An experience processed in one's own language connects to previous interpretations of tradition. A new language is formed from the experiences of these languages, tier connections, complemented by the linguality of synchronous experiences. This is a language with new semiotics concerning both its lexicon and its usage, which becomes more, beyond the individual determinedness of the interpreter, with the lingual constructedness of the experience of an encounter with the new experience. When we assign a language to an experience, we give it a voice, it speaks with all of this, and this isn't identical with the pre-experience language. Of course, this doesn't mean it cannot be compared to it, it is exactly with a linguistic grasp of comparison that we reach the elusive phenomenon of the existential change of the individual. If we start from the problematality of comparing the former language with the current one, we are able to grasp the substantiality of the change.

2. own experience –

We can talk about *faith* experiences, *religious* experiences, if they contain aspects identifiable according to a tradition. Discovery of a new spice, getting to know a new technique in sport is rarely dubbed religious experience, we call the former, say gastronomic, the latter technical.

3. available for others –

speaking in the language of others, a common experience through its connection with tradition

4. embedded in tradition –

not an independent phenomenon, substantially dependent on tradition. It meets and enters into dialogue with texts in the tradition – it has encountered the language of tradition, possibly the language of the basis of the tradition, the language of the first interpreters, and the language bearing every cultural and social determination of the interpreter's time.

I would like to return to the reverse linguistic approach, i.e., when human faith experience seeks a connection with the texts of the religious tradition. Religious fundamentalism is identified by many with exclusion, isolation. Making interpretation of religious

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texts one-sided, shutting out interpretations from dialogue points that way. The more and more radicalized groups claiming religious fundamentalism cautiously point our attention to approach this phenomenon, even a social one, in terms of the linguistic devices of new theology.

## Conclusion

I see the dangers of today's religious fundamentalism precisely in this, the rejection of inverse lingual connections. The interpretations that cling to the first context of the comprehension of religious texts send a message to people arriving with individual faith experience filtered through their own language usage with hard existential work: this isn't it, we're not talking. Thus the texts are deprived of their interpreters, the interpreters of religious tradition. But it gets even more serious: existentially, the interpreter's religious experience is challenged.

Teachers hold inalienable and excellent opportunities to reverse this linguistic and interpretational trend by providing a model where the question, the culture of asking is in focus, interpreting even the most ancient of traditions, or, especially and most fruitfully there.

„[...] to become religious involves becoming skilled in the language, the symbol system of a given religion [...] to interpret experience oneself and one's world in its terms.” (Lindbeck 1984, 34)

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## APPENDIX – Good Practice of Digital Learning

### Development of the digital-based interactive education in teacher training in Esztergom by Homor Lajos

*The article presents the ICT tools introduced in teacher education in Esztergom since the 1990s. This development has laid the foundations for the use of interactive technology, which is widely used in the field of education today.*

#### *Introduction*

According to the daily experience of educators, the students' attention can be expected to last 7 to 10 minutes, after which their focus becomes multitasking or switching between tasks. In this case, the teacher's job is to listen to everyone, to find everyone in this complex situation where they are.

It is therefore important to engage students to process the topic. Parts of this process are: finding, giving choices, connecting them with the outside world. The needs of the students can be discovered quickly e.g. with a Google form.

It is also important to know what engages students. Feel free to ask them. They will tell and in responses we can discover creativity, collaboration and the need for media information. It's worth asking, too, what they would change.

In the past, a student was given a question to answer, so usually one solution was found. In contrast, the current procedure is for everyone to receive the question, to answer it, followed by a discussion of the ideas expressed. It's a kind of brainstorming - everyone responds and then they prioritize together.

Interactivity, which is becoming increasingly important in today's educational processes, is therefore essential for effective knowledge transfer and inclusion, largely through the use of IT tools that support this. The aim of this summary is to present the developments and IT tools that helped the teacher training in Esztergom to keep pace with this trend.

#### *1. On the concept of interactivity*

“Interactivity is a popular and frequently used term today. We have been living with it since the beginning, but recently its use has gained new meaning with the development of communication, technology and changing circumstances.

During the interactivity, the communication partners can actively influence what is delivered to them, i.e. it is possible to communicate, to give feedback in some way, to join. According to the classic model of communication, as long as there is no possibility of feedback between the sender and the receiver, it can only be a transfer of information.

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As soon as the feedback channel appears, we can already talk about communication. In the model, a qualitative leap is when the weight of the feedback is at the same level as the information output of the sender, so that both parties can create peer-to-peer and mutually active communication, i.e. interactivity, by directing their own activity. If the communication interaction becomes continuous, we can already talk about a relationship.” (Harsányi, Szántó and Márk 2005.)

Historically, interactivity can be placed in the realm of simultaneous one-way communication, that is, when the communicating parties are in direct – hearing and vision – distance from each other. The development of telecommunication devices has made it possible for multi-space communication to play an important role in addition to one-way communication, i.e. when the communication partners are at a greater distance from each other, even by continent.

## 2. Computer operating system

The first IBM compatible personal computers appeared at the János Vitéz Teacher Training College (VJTF) in 1989. Their effective use already presupposed an interactive dialogue with the computer. (Figure 1) Interactive computer systems are characterized by a significant amount of interaction between the user and the computer. Most current users are familiar with Macintosh or Windows operating systems, which are the primary examples of graphical interactive systems. In addition, CAD / CAM systems and data entry systems, for example, require a high degree of human-computer interaction.

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(c) Microsoft Corporation. Minden jog fenntartva.

C:\Users\homor>dir /w
Volume in drive C has no label.
Volume Serial Number is 4820-19A0

Directory of C:\Users\homor

[.]                [..]                [.abevjava]
[.cache]           [.CEWE Fotó editor]  [.CEWE Fotóvilág]
[.dbus-keyrings]  [.dnx]               [.gimp-2.8]
[.gnutls]         [.idlerc]            [.matplotlib]
[.Origin]         [.packettracer]      [.QtWebEngineProcess]
[.spss]           [.VirtualBox]        [3D Objects]
[abevjava]        abevjava_homor.log  advanced_port_scanner_Aliases.bin
advanced_port_scanner_Comments.bin  advanced_port_scanner_MAC.bin  [Apple]
[Cisco Packet Tracer 7.0]              [Cisco Packet Tracer 7.1.1]    [Cisco Packet Tracer 7.2.1]
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C:\Users\homor>date
The current date is: 2021. 07. 26.
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Figure 1

Based on this, the emergence of interactive-based digital technology can be linked to the introduction of the first PCs. All this also appeared in the teacher training in Esztergom: the first classroom equipped with PCs was established in the 1990s, where students were already introduced to online interactivity with the help of simple networked applications.

This is because working with computer operating systems takes place during interactive communication. The computer will interpret the received command and execute it, which in many cases occurs without feedback, but in other cases the parameters of the command must also be entered in response to a message on the computer display. One of the first interactive applications - called NAT horizon - was created with Tamás Csiffáry, the framework of which was the MaxThink HyPlus program. The digital publication Nat Horizont was also presented at the Agraria Media 1996 conference. (Homor 1996)

In the 1990s, the VJTf and then its successor, the János Vitéz Roman Catholic College (VJRKTF), participated in several successful FEFA tenders and won support for the development of their computer tools and network. These investments made it possible for students to become acquainted with primary school education using the then state-of-the-art tools (Homor 2009).

### 3. Moodle

In 2021, also due to the situation triggered by COVID19, PPKE took decisive steps to introduce the use of cutting-edge LMS systems on the market, including MOODLE. Perhaps a little-known fact, however, is that MOODLE appeared at the university as early as 2008, with the integration of VJRKTF into PPKE.

The MOODLE system has been used regularly at VJRKTF since the 2002/2003 school year, after several months of testing, mainly in correspondence training (Homor 2006). At the same time, the continuous expansion of usable functionalities and the enrichment of user and management interfaces have made MOODLE popular among students. In addition, an activity module (H5P) can be used to create interactive content such as interactive videos, question sets, drag-and-drop tasks, multiple-choice questions, presentations, and more. User interactions and scoring are available through the MOODLE class log.

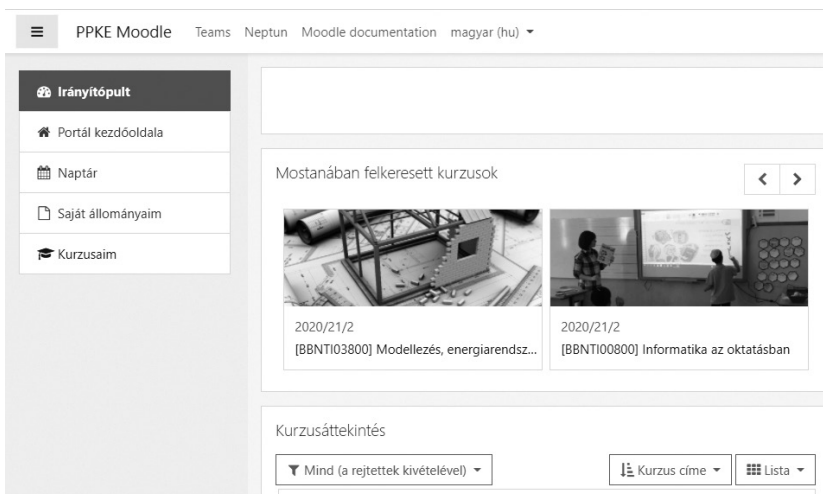


Figure 2

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MOODLE was primarily used to make the curriculum available, but it was important to upload the online assignment and in some cases it was even used for online examination. The role of using one's own mobile devices in interactivity will be discussed later, but the full functionality of the current client-side mobile application should be highlighted in connection with the MOODLE system. (*Figure 2*)

#### *4. Interactive board*

In 2004, VJRKTF implemented a curriculum development HEFOP 3.3.1 project together with the Esztergom Theological College and PPKE as a consortium partner. As part of this project, a Smartboard interactive whiteboard was purchased, which we used to teach in IT and to demonstrate its use in school education, and we still use it today in conjunction with Notebook tablet software. Since then, additional Smartboard boards have been set up at both the practicing school and the university. Although the importance of the interactive whiteboard seems to be declining these days due to the advent of various portable touch screen devices, its importance has been demonstrated to educators by providing a tool that allows fast, varied and spectacular curriculum processing, a real alternative to the static world of PowerPoint.

##### **4.1. Senteo**

The acquisition of the Senteo interactive answering system at VJRKTF followed the appearance of the Smartboard. This system consists of an RF unit that can be connected to the teacher's computer and student response units, and includes software that records both classes and students, and works with Smartboard tablet software to provide an assessment tool that develops learning. It allows for both formative and summative assessment by asking questions before, during and after discussing the curriculum to see if – and to what extent – students can follow its processing. In addition, the further processing of the curriculum can be shaped based on the feedback. With this in mind, we introduced the instructors involved to the management of the system. We used it primarily in consultations with correspondence students to quickly and comprehensively gather answers to questions asked to students and to learn about the basic statistics generated from them. These provided important feedback to the instructor because it was possible to assess how comprehensible the material provided was. With the Senteo system, students could also indicate if the description of the subject material required further explanation somewhere, thus realizing the interactivity during the lectures. (*Homor 2009.*)

##### **4.2. Synchron Eyes**

This system, which was included in the VJRKTF together with the Senteo system, is primarily a management software that monitors the use of computers in an IT classroom.



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In the IT classes of the students majoring in teaching, it often happened that they asked each other for help in solving a task. The synchron eyes system provided support in this situation by providing an opportunity to display the problem situation or unclear step on a common screen and discuss it together. Following the work of the students, the instructor was able to present the solution to everyone, perceiving the situation that was a problem for others. The software was also able to create online tests, thus making it easier to check the acquisition of the curriculum.

## 5. *Web-based interactivity*

Today, the Internet and the world of smart devices around it are a completely natural medium for young people, which have radically changed their methods of searching for information and learning. Higher education institutions, but especially teacher training institutions, simply cannot afford not to put these new opportunities at the service of effective education as much as possible. Accordingly, in addition to digital workbooks, digital whiteboards, community interfaces, and other options, applications that have already been used in business to facilitate audience interactivity have emerged in the world of education. Using smart tools in class can increase student interactivity, the effectiveness of teamwork, and focus on personalized learning and its traceability. In addition, through immediate feedback, we can implement an individual's ongoing developmental evaluation. This process is amplified by the fact that a large number of students have a mobile phone and tablet capable of connecting to the Internet, which also results in a rethink of the usability of their own devices at school.

BYOD, the "Bring your own device" approach, is based on the fact that students can also engage in personal activities while learning and learn in their spare time, i.e. they allocate their own time, which can contribute to a positive attitude towards learning and personal development. To create a learning environment, the model facilitates continuous and effective learning, allowing students to access the curriculum and different educational applications from different locations and tools, and to interact with the educator.

The BYOD model has moved from industry to education. The sensitivity and interest in the concept is well illustrated by the fact that domestic and international pedagogical research and school experiments based on it have gained ground in recent years. "The basic principle of the model is that students use their ICT tools that are already routinely used in everyday life (e.g. smartphone, iPad) in the school, in the teaching-learning process, and even build a personal learning environment on them. Another advantage is that students are always in possession of the tool, so that information can be accessed, data can be accessed and they can stay in touch." (*Herzog and Racsko 2016*)

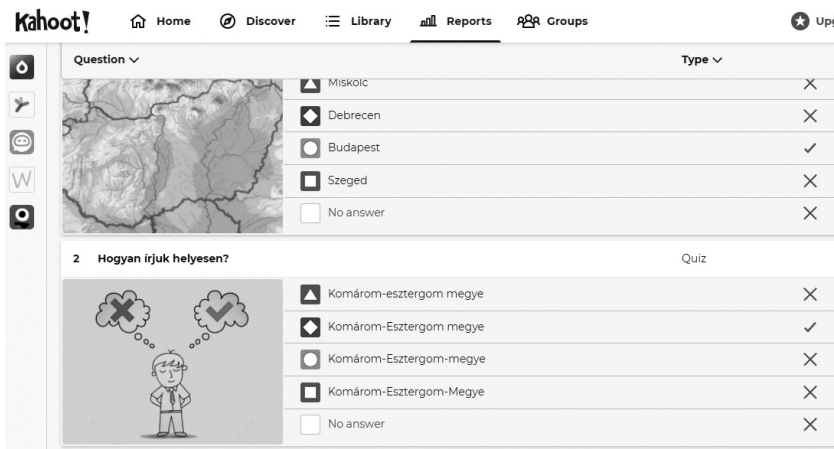


Figure 3

Fast student interactivity is supported by several solutions (H. Bakonyi, Illés Jr. and Illés 2017), two of which I highlight, Kahoot and PollEverywhere. Both can be considered as the modern web-based equivalent of Senteo on the one hand, and both Kahoot and PollEverywhere are included in the subject programs of teaching students on the other. In the 2020/21 academic years, students did not have the opportunity to participate in person in either practical training or university classes. The video conferencing solutions used in practicing school and university education were well complemented by Kahoot's competitive task support framework, which students sought to use according to the submitted drafts (Figure 3), and the MS Teams system used in university education was also a great help. the possibility for all participants to answer questions asked online during the processing. (Figures 4)

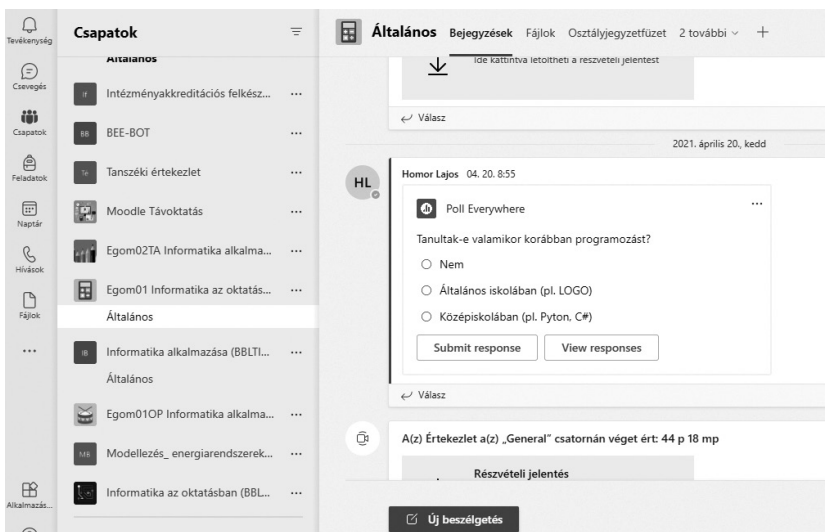


Figure 4

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## **Authors and instructors of the Vitéz János Teacher Training Center of the Pázmány Péter Catholic University Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences**

**Dr. Enikő Szőke-Milinte PhD**, Associate Professor, Head of Institute

Areas of instruction: teaching and learning theory, pedagogical communication, methodology of media education

Areas of research: pedagogical communication, conflict management, digital and media pedagogy

Staff member at Pázmány Péter Catholic University since 2002; head of the Vitéz János Teacher Training Center from 2017. Instructor in teacher training since 2002, in the subjects of methodology related to the training of media, film and communications teachers, and in various subjects of educational science focused on the shared pedagogical and psychological foundations of teacher training. Research areas include pedagogical communications, conflict management, digital and media pedagogy, and educational theory. Author of a number of professional volumes, studies and textbooks on media instruction and pedagogical communication. Successfully prepared many students for competition at the National Scientific Students' Associations Conference. Member of the public body of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences, member of the Teacher Training Subcommittee. Thesis supervisor for the Educational Sciences PhD program of the Eszterházy Károly Catholic University; subject expert of the Educational Office; participant in project to develop content elements of the system for teacher advancement.

**Dr. habil. József Kaposi PhD**, Associate Professor

Areas of instruction: history theory, history of pedagogical problems, education policy

Areas of research: history didactics, content regulation, textbook research, drama pedagogy

Teach at the Pázmány Péter Catholic University Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences since 2003; currently on the staff of the Vitéz János Teacher Training Center. In charge of training in drama and theater studies and in teacher examination; instructor in the area of history subject pedagogy.

Member of the public body of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences. Author of a number of professional volumes, studies and textbooks in the areas of history teaching and drama pedagogy. Instructor and thesis supervisor at the Educational Sciences PhD program of the Eszterházy Károly Catholic University and the University of Pécs. Member of the scientific council of the Selye János University of Komárom. Chairman of the Hungarian History Association Teachers' Chapter and the Learning Methodology Section of the National Scientific Students' Associations Conference. Member of the International Society for History Didactics (ISHD), member of the Hungarian executive committee of the International Association of Theatre for Children and Young People (ASSITEJ). Edi-

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tor-in-chief of the Új Pedagógiai Szemle [New Pedagogical Review] and deputy-editor of the online journal Történelemtanítás [History Teaching].

**Dr. Júlia Eck PhD** Assistant Professor, research teacher in the secondary school subjects of Hungarian language and literature, mentor teacher

Areas of instruction: theater and history of theater courses, art analysis using drama techniques, poetry and prose recitation, pedagogical communication, drama pedagogy

Areas of research: primary, secondary school education – drama activities in the curriculum and in subject pedagogy, instruction in theoretical studies using drama activities; higher education – topics and instructional methodology of drama and theater studies teacher training, drama in general teacher training

Head teacher and mentor teacher for three decades at the Toldy Ferenc Gymnasium; founder and head of first drama and theater studies teaching program at the Pannon University of Veszprém. Docent at the Hungarian Dance Academy; instructor at the Vitéz János Teacher Training Center of the Pázmány Péter Catholic University Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences since 2019. Author of a number of curricula, professional works, studies and textbooks on drama pedagogy and educational science; leader of a national research project on the subject of drama pedagogy in 2015.

Member of the public body of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences, secretary of the Drama Pedagogy Subcommittee of the Pedagogy Committee; managing chairman of the Drama Committee of the National Scientific Students' Associations Conference; organizer and leader of the National Drama Studies Contest; member of the Hungarian Drama Pedagogy Society and the Association for Communication Instruction; member of the editorial committee of the journal Tánc és Nevelés [Dance and Instruction].

**Dr. Orsolya Gombocz Karai PhD** Associate Professor, secondary school German teacher  
Areas of instruction: educational theory, history of pedagogical problems, teachers' ethics, German methodology

Areas of research: teacher training, the teacher, problems of the career-starter

Instructor at the Pázmány Péter Catholic University Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences since 1998, currently on the staff of the Vitéz János Teacher Training Center. Scholar of the Eötvös Loránd University PhD program in education since 1995; Goethe Institute German teacher since 1995, currently an accredited examiner at the institute. Started teaching general pedagogy and educational theory at the Pázmány Péter Catholic University, tasks include supervision of German methodology subjects for almost ten years.

Publications deal mainly with teacher training, but also involved with the research of the Vitéz János Teacher Training Center.

**Richárd Fodor**, teaching assistant, PhD student, secondary school teacher in the subjects of English and history

Areas of instruction: theory of history teaching, subject didactics, fundamental topics of education and instruction, ICT methods in education

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Areas of research: history didactics, education for citizenship, digital pedagogy

Staff member of the Vitéz János Teacher Training Center of the Pázmány Péter Catholic University Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences since 2019. In addition to teaching assistant responsibilities, enrolled as a scholarship student in the “Education and Society” Educational Science PhD program of the University of Pécs. Author of several Hungarian and international studies on history instruction. Took third place at the 2019 Learning Methodology Section of the National Scientific Students’ Associations Conference; won scholarships in the New National Excellency Program in 2019 and 2020.

Scientific secretary of the Hungarian History Association Teachers’ Chapter, handling coordination, international relations and project management tasks.

**Dr. habil. József Kormos PhD**, Associate Professor

Areas of instruction: fundamental topics of education and instruction, tasks of education in practice, research methodology, learning methodology, complex issues of education, pedagogical communication in practice, ethics methodology, Hungarian philosophy

Areas of research: philosophy of education, educational theory, philosophy and ethics methodology, the work of Edith Stein

Instructor at the Philosophy and Psychology faculties of the Pázmány Péter Catholic University since 1998. Currently a docent at the Teacher Training Faculty of the Vitéz János Teacher Training Center.

Member of the public body of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences. Author of a number of books and studies on the topics of philosophy, educational theory, philosophy of education and methodology as well as on the work of Edith Stein. Presenter at many professional conferences. Organizer and jury member of the National Scientific Students’ Associations Conference, thesis supervisor. Tender assessor for the Hungarian Institute for Educational Research and Development. Deputy-editor, then editor-in-chief of the pedagogical journal *Mester és Tanítvány* [Master and Student] until it wound up. Decades of experience teaching secondary school and serving as head examiner for matriculation examination.

**Szilvia Moldován** university teaching assistant; secondary school teacher in the subjects of Hungarian language and literature, philosophy; mentor teacher, PhD student

Areas of instruction: ICT – modern teaching craft, pedagogical communication, educational theory, instructional theory, social communication, thesis seminars

Areas of research: aesthetic education, philosophy of education, Hungarian language and literature methodology, intercultural methodology, pedagogy of the form teacher’s work, strategic development for instruction, theory of interpretation, religious pedagogy

PhD research conducted in the framework of the Religion im Dialog International Research Program at Goethe University in Frankfurt on a Renovabis scholarship from the German Bishops’ Conference in 2007-2013. Simultaneously participated in the Theologie Interkulturell Program in Frankfurt. Practicing teacher, teaching Hungarian language and literature in conventional classes, as well as literature in the International Bac-

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calaureate Diploma Program. Applied experience gained in the areas of interpretation of tradition and intercultural dialogue to literature methodology and work as a form teacher. Dealt with the pedagogical role of narrative choice and the critical reflection on fundamentalist religious education, publishing on the topics as well. Work on strategy for institutional internationalization in the area of vocational training was acknowledged in Hungary and abroad in 2018.

**Claudia Szajli** psychologist, university teaching assistant, PhD student

Areas of research: development of regulation of emotions in adolescence

Areas of instruction: developmental psychology, social psychology, the foundations of psychology, exercises in personality development and conflict management

On the staff of the Pázmány Péter Catholic University Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences since 2020, currently work at the Vitéz János Teacher Training Center. Scholarship student in the Psychology PhD program of Eötvös Loránd University. Involved in research of emotion regulation in adolescence as a member of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences' Developmental and Translational Neuroscience Research Group. In addition to work in education and research, serve as a school psychologist at one of Budapest's vocational gymnasiums. Spent a semester at the Catholic University of Leuven on an Erasmus scholarship during university years. Research paper took first place at the National Scientific Students' Associations Conference in 2016.

**Lajos Homor** head IT teacher

Areas of instruction: IT, applied IT, IT in education, modelling and energy systems

Areas of research: computer simulation, new interactive methods and applications in teaching

Work at Pázmány Péter Catholic University (legal predecessor Vitéz János Roman Catholic Teacher Training College until 2008) since 1989. Involved with drafting learning outcome requirements for the four-year teachers' program; headed the IT Workgroup of the Teacher Training Colleges Curriculum Development Committee. Involved with or led a number of successful EU- and state-funded infrastructure and curriculum development projects. Students performed well on a number of occasions at the Pető József IT Memorial Contest. Member of the Humypron working group since 2013; Cisco Networking Academy instructor.

**Ágnes Kata Miklós PhD**, college teacher

Areas of instruction: kindergarten pedagogy, social studies, equal opportunity and integration, interculturality, history of pedagogical problems

Areas of research: reception of the detective story, examination of the interaction between kindergartens and their social environment

Instructor at the Kindergarten Teacher and Teacher Training Faculty of the Vitéz János Teacher Training Centre of the Pázmány Péter Catholic University Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences since 2015. In charge of kindergarten teacher program since 2018.

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Studied Hungarian language and literature at Eötvös Loránd University after finishing at the Bod Péter Teacher Training College in Kézdivásárhely. Earned PhD in the Modern Hungarian Literature program in 2009, researching generational shift debates concerning Hungarian literature in Romania during the 1970s. Currently involved with the history of kindergarten teacher training in Esztergom and the interaction between kindergartens in the city and their social environment, with studies and conference presentations focused mainly on these topics.

Published essays and poems in the pages of the periodicals *Korunk*, *Élet és Irodalom*, *Erdélyi Helikon* and *Látó*, as well as two volumes on the reception of the detective story, in 2010 and 2018.



