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EDUCATION

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AN EXPERIMENT  
TO TRANSFORM THE STRUCTURE OF SECONDARY SCHOOL  
EDUCATION<sup>+</sup>

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+ In elaborating the experimental model we have taken into consideration first of all the statements of the Regulation of the Central Committee, Hungarian Socialist Workers' Party of 15th June 1972 concerning the grammar school and the directives concerning its development. We have studied, as well, the earlier Hungarian initiatives /Ch.References!/ and also the international experiences in respect of the transformation of secondary school education.





The secondary school has to-day, and it will probably have for a long time to come, a double task: /1/ To select and educate the students, who owing to their interest and intellectual power, are suitable for university or college studies, /2/ to prepare students, more interested in practical activities and show a higher skill in these, for practical professions that demand general secondary-school culture.

At present, the secondary school cannot carry out entirely either of its' tasks. The reasons for this are the following:

/1/ The secondary-school classes of specialized programme could not, and cannot serve satisfactorily, in spite of their popularity and unquestionable results, the function of secondary school for selecting and preparing the students for university and college:

/a/ The students, after finishing their primary-school studies, are immediately registered at classes of specialized programmes, that is to say at an age when their individual abilities are not yet developed, the field of their interest is not stabilized, and after a primary education, that gives because of its educational structure but a little possibility for clarifying the individual abilities and giving the students an orientation that corresponds to the direction of their continued education. Consequently, the majority of students get into the classes of specialized programmes not on the basis of their mental gifts but on that of ambitions and wishes of their parents.

The classes of special programmes - as proved by statistical

data - are rather the means of the social selection than those of directing the secondary-school studies according to faculties.

/b/ The present specialization of grammar-school classes pays no regard to the directions, possibilities of continuing the studies at universities or colleges, to the requirements of entrance examinations. There is no harmony between the specialization in grammar schools and the study directions and branches in higher education. The overwhelming majority of students are, for instance, registered in foreign language classes not for pushing high level language studies, literature studies but to learn elementary conversation in a foreign language. That is doubtless a useful thing in itself, and from the point of view of any advanced study as well, but it does not mean any preparation for a university or college. Not even for those who request enrolment in foreign-language studies because the greatest disharmony at present is just between the aims of the secondary-school language instruction and the university requirements in the field of foreign-language education. And even the students learning in the specialized scientific classes get in most cases no education that would prepare them in a practical sense for their future high-degree studies, or their entrance examinations.

The grammar-school specialization does not include for some obscure reason-such as important topics of social sciences as the Hungarian language and literature, history. The students who show interest in these subjects and want to continue higher studies have no possibility to get a more thorough grammar-school education.

/2/ The students who are enrolled in classes of non-specialized programme of instruction and are suitable for higher studies are deprived even of the advantages offered by the classes of specialized programmes, in spite of the inadequacies mentioned above, to the students wanting to continue their studies. The classes of non-specialized programmes impose, as a matter of course, disadvantages for the students in whom, under proper pedagogical conditions, good mental powers would develop.

/3/ According to the statistical data of the years past, on the yearly average, 65-70 per cent of secondary school students did not gain admission to higher educational establishments. This ratio will not change essentially in the following years, either. We cannot have the aim of decreasing the possibilities of secondary-school learning, and a major change in the ratio of the students in vocational secondary schools would come up against material difficulties. In the years to follow we can only strive to develop the vocational secondary schools qualitatively and not so much quantitatively. The level of grammar schools turned into specialized secondary schools is considerably behind that of schools that were originally institutions of vocational training. The grammar schools have made attempts to practically prepare students not suitable for higher studies but who can be successful in more practical professions useful for the society and at the same time maintain the level appropriate to the grammar school. These attempts, however, have failed. This difficult problem cannot be solved by the system 5 + 1 of grammar-school education and still less by the practical training in two lessons a week.

A smaller part of grammar-school students that were not admitted to a university or college succeeded, nevertheless, in enrolling in a higher institute in the years following the graduation but most of them had to accept in trustation and disillusionment mainly administrative, official positions as junior members at research works, laboratory technicians, in some type of service industry where they could use their general education and possibly their knowledge of foreign language as well. The fewest of them became manual workers.

It is, therefore, shown by the data concerning the employment of students having completed grammar-school studies that there are some spheres of work in on peoples' economy that are fulfilled willingly by young people having a general education at a grammar school and that do not demand such a degree of specialization as given by a vocational school. According to the general trend of the development in the vocational structure, the number of such vocations will not be lower in the future, either. The enterprises, productive works, scientific and medical institutions, the various branches of services /catering trade, hotels, tourism/ demand middle cadres performing some intelligent, educated, non-overspecialized mental work. The grammar-school education has not taken, so far, any notice of these real possibilities of findig jobs for its students who do not continue learning. Consequently, it could not help them adjust to that life, and it even frequently caused them and to their parents grave conflicts by keeping alive unreal expectations and neglecting the training for self-actualization, and the proper preparation for practical life.

We need, therefore, a grammar-school training struc-

ture that finds solutions to the above problems, promotes grammar-school education to perform much more than before the double task formed for it historically in this country and being valid in the long run perspective, as well.

## II.

The new grammar-school educational structure should be created, in our opinion, according to the following points of view:

/1/ In the grammar-school education the high-level general training continues to be predominant in the future, too; the grammar school cannot turn into a specialized school. At the same time, it must break with the concept of general education standardized for everybody, according to which everyone has to make himself master of everything the same degree. The new grammar-school training takes considerably into consideration the individual interests, individual aptitudes of students, ascertaining these and bringing them to light, and enabling the students to continue much higher studies than the present grammar-school level and deepened in the direction corresponding to their faculties and interests. In this way, it prepares some of the students for the professional training of the highest degree: the university-college studies. With students prepared in that way the institution of higher education can begin working at a higher level and send out better-trained specialists. And to another group of students, it can give a

specialized education that, combined with the high-degree grammar-school general education, enables them to fill vocations like administrator, scientific technician or other mentioned positions.

/2/ Students must not be specialized at the beginning of their grammar-school studies. At 14, the individual abilities of students cannot be established with due certainty, the range of their interest is not yet formed and solidified. At their entrance to the grammar school it cannot even be decided if their unsatisfactory knowledge and poor interest in certain subjects are a result of their individual natural endowments or of a poor elementary-school training.

Classes I and II of the grammar school are to be considered as a period of observation and orientation. Their main task is the general education in which the accomplishment of students is measured systematically, the development of their individual talents purposefully observed. There are organized some activities in which the students can partly test themselves, can get self-understanding concerning their individual faculties, partly they can develop and deepen their individual gifts. The participation in these activities is, of course, an important source for the school, as well, to get to know its students.

/3/ The activities for testing, clarifying, and affirming the talents, that enter the curriculum from the second half of the first year, are actually activities in that insist not on increasing their knowledge but on applying an a creative way their already existing knowledge: to achieve in this way some results at which level their talents and the development of their interest can be qualified in a real way. These

activities are chosen by students not entirely free but under direction, on the basis of the advice of the teacher-collective functioning in the class.

The direction takes place in two stages: at the ends of the first and second terms of the first year. Taking into consideration the possibilities of the school, it is necessary to organize programmes /1/ in social sciences and languages, /2/ those in mathematics and natural sciences. In the first and second half-year terms, the students choose, corresponding to the directives, either a half-year programme of social sciences and languages or that of mathematics and natural sciences. At the end of the second term of the first year, on the basis of the careful consideration of the achievements in these activities and, of course, of the observations during the general education, as well, either the teachers confirm the student in his choice or they suggest to him to try another direction /redirection from the programme of social sciences to that of natural sciences or the other way round./

In both directions mentioned, there is a possibility to try several programmes to make the specialization beginning in the third class as well-founded as possible.

/4/ Important means of testing, clearing, and affirming the individual capacities of students are the practical activities, as well, from which, both in the first and the second year, each of the students has compulsorily to choose a programme. These practical activities partly provide useful practical knowledge and abilities, making more complete and many-sided the general development of the student, and partly

help in selecting the students who have a potentially better future in a practical profession than in a theoretical one. This selection must be founded, of course, on the development of the self-understanding of students.

/5/ Class I in its first term is corrective. A possibility of catching up is to be assured to students who prove weak in any subject on the basis of measuring the level of learning at the beginning of the school year. This means keeping them occupied intensively in small groups for filling the elementary-school gaps, creating surer basis for making possible successful grammar-school studies. This corrective occupation must show to what extent the weaknesses of a student in certain fieldings are a consequence of the unsatisfactory elementary-school education and to what extent that of his capabilities. We hold this corrective period an indispensable prerequisite of the direction at the end of the first term. Taking into consideration that, as a result of the environment poor in stimuli, certain deficiencies, backwardnesses can be reproduced, we regard the compensating occupations, similarly to those in the first term, as an organic part of the whole education and, therefore, we want to make them function in a later period of studies, too.

/6/ On the basis of the data observed and recorded in the course of the general training of the first two years, the activities revealing the capabilities of the students and their accomplishments in the practical occupations. The school should then suggest some directives of specialization for its students at finishing class II.



It may be hoped that the two-year period of observation and direction does not only develop the self-understanding of students but furnishes to the parents, too, convincing facts about the actual abilities of their children, forming a clearer picture for them, too, concerning the future studies, the profession in which their children will be able to realize themselves best, to arrive at the highest possible achievements, and in this way - the expression is perhaps not exaggerated - they may be happy. We hope to achieve that the continuation of studies and the choice of future profession will be determined more by their mental power and less by the ambition, ideas and force of their parents. In that way, the grammar-school may serve better the cause of the normal and necessary social mobility, as well, than it did herebefore.

It is imagined by nobody, of course, that the advice of the school concerning the choice of specialization beginning from class III could be of obligatory, compulsory force. It is, in fact, only a well-founded advice for success and prosperity of the child; the choice, however, remains a right of child and parents.

In classes III and IV of the grammar school, the volume of general training decreases although, retaining its primacy, it fills about two-thirds of the weekly time allotted for training. In one-third of the time a specialized training is going on, that - as outlined above - divides into two main branches: /1/ preparation for university-college studies, and /2/ preparation for certain professions.

The possible specialization of the preparation for university and college studies takes into consideration the

actual university and college study fields, the requirements of entrance examinations, the basic subjects of studies. Just therefore, the specialization always means the more intensive study of a so-called subject-block /two or three subjects/. These are the blocks of social sciences . foreign languages and the natural sciences. There would be no justification for any narrow specialization. The specializing subject- block is, therefore, to be formed in such a way that it assures the possibility of continued study at several /3 to 4/ university faculties, branches, or colleges.

The specialization preparing for professions cannot mean a degrading specialization of "lower rank", creating inferiority complex as but a practical training that also furnishes theoretical knowledge of high level; a training that is not of lower level than the subject-block training preparing for university-college, only it demands other capabilities. The ability manifested in the practical training has the same value as that manifested in theoretical training. The specification preparing for administration involves, e.g., the strengthened studies of the mother-tongue, and the thorough study of a foreign language. The training of a laboratory technician or scientific assistant goes intensively into the corresponding scientific knowledge, too, providing also the theoretical technical knowledge needed for drafting.

/8/ The new grammar-school training structure necessarily entails the transformation, modernization of the programme of instruction. As it would not be suitable to increase the present number of students hours, it is evident that the base-material of general education, what is compulsory for everybody,

must be drastically decreased, or more exactly: must be structured in a new way so that it really includes only the fundamental facts and connections that are indispensable to form the scientific Weltanschauung and scientific thinking, as well as the interdisciplinary outlook and further self-education. It will not be an easy task to select, establish, and present in a proper logical structure the base-material of education that is compulsory for everybody. Some knowledge systems, previously dealt with in separate subjects, will certainly be integrated - even if gradually.

It will similarly be a great task to arrange the curriculum of the specializing subject-blocks and treat it in an up-to-date structure.

/9/ The new grammar-school training structure, both within the scope of general education and that of specialized training, attributes a great importance to the study of foreign languages. We have hardly to prove that a more and more important condition of the development of a small nation is that its intellectual have as vast a knowledge of foreign languages as possible. The students of grammar schools must get the solid linguistic basis /the active use of a definite vocabulary, thorough knowledge of grammatical rules, the basics of translating simple texts precisely from a foreign language into Hungarian and vica versa/ in two foreign languages for using these well both orally and writing in their profession. For this reason, in the general education, as well, the study of the Russian language and that of a Western foreign language will be allotted adequate number of hours, and in each of the

specializations preparing for higher studies one of these will have a strengthened part, on the basis of free choice.

In the specialization preparing for immediate professions we consider possible that the student stops studying one of the foreign languages and continues the other in a high number of hours.

In specializations in social sciences and languages we suggest the study of the Latin and literature, partly because it deepens every higher philological study and partly because, taking into consideration our particular traditions one can hardly imagine who does not know the Latin language.

We regard similarly important that the knowledge of mother-tongue of those specializing foreign languages should be of higher level than the average.

/10/ The new structure entails considerable changes both in teaching forms and in teaching methods. The class system can only function as an organizational form of a general education that is compulsory for everybody. The aptitude - revealing activity and the specializing training with subject-blocks will go on in smaller groups formed by students from parallel classes. If the possibilities of the school permit 10 to 12 students can form a group but no more than twenty. As integrated instruction develops, so do the certain forms of the so-called team-instruction.

As to the methods, we have to strive that the students make themselves master of the most various study techniques that they will need both in the course of their higher studies and in the practical profession. We have to prepare them for being able, even after finishing their studies

in the grammar school, to use the diverse ways and measures of acquiring knowledge. These all mean that the study under the immediate direction of a teacher /lecture, comment, discussion, demonstrations/ will not fall out of fashion but that the stress will be shifted - particularly in classes III and IV - to the independent acquisition of knowledge coming from different sources, to the discussion in groups of the results of acquisition under the guidance of the teacher or a student, study the things and phenomena by means of independent observation. The group-work and the participation of students in the role of teachers will have much more importance than they have had so far. The students learn how to take advantage of up-to-date technical instruments. All this follows, of course, not immediately but parallel with the development of the pedagogical outlook of the management at school and of teachers and of the objective conditions of the school. This development is facilitated by the recent structure of instruction.

/11/ There may, and should, be raised the problem that the conditions of bringing about the possibility of every specialization in social sciences, languages, natural sciences, and practice will not be given in many grammar schools and, in this way, the principle of specializing the students according to their aptitude will suffer damage.

The structure of instruction at a new grammar school may be generalized at the earliest only after being experimentally tried for 4 to 5 years. That means that for a general realization of the grammar-school structure of instruction outlined above we need at least 6 to 7 years. During that time, there can be expected in grammar schools a great development both in the

personal and objective conditions. The college network of secondary schools will be enlarged, too, in every county. It is not unrealistic, therefore, to imagine that, e.g. a student at Makó will go on with his studies after finishing the first two grammar-school class, as in a grammar school at Szeged in which the specialization suitable for him can be found. And in a town where several grammar schools are functioning, every claim to specialization can be met by the co-operation of grammar schools. The precondition of this is, of course, a real co-operation of the schools of identical type, instead of saving face with an unhealthy rivalry that can often be noticed among them at present.

/12/ We are referring only briefly the fact to that the domestic demands on developing the educational structure of grammar schools coincide with the international tendency of developing the secondary educational structure.

The necessity for lifelong education is recognized in the whole world. It has become evident, too, that the desire for learning till the end of life can only be formed by a kind of secondary instruction that undertakes to observe the talent for learning, to reveal the most favourable individual abilities /periods of observation and orientation in the school-system/ and enables them to choose from mixed programmes of instruction to the degree of the development of their individual capabilities. The age of a standardized general secondary-school education leaving the individual abilities out of consideration is over, for it is not suitable for arousing the motivation for learning demanded by lifelong education /interest, thirst for knowledge, desire to investigate/.

Its age is over also because in the age of the scientific-technical revolution a raising of the level of secondary-school education, the strengthening of its function to prepare for university studies can only be imagined if not everybody has everything to learn to the same degree. The common base education may at any rate be very essential from various points of view but its subject - as already mentioned - must be rationalized, limited to the essential bases and, at the same time, in the direction corresponding to the individual abilities and interest, the students must reach the highest possible level. This may be the solution of the problem, too, known in the whole world as the problem of transition from the secondary school to the university.

### III.

In the subdivision of the Pedagogical Research Group of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences established at the Pedagogical Institute of the Attila József University, Szeged, on the basis of the above-mentioned considerations, the experimental research work of a new organizational form for grammar schools has been started that satisfies the social demands better than the present form and is also more suitable for the individual claims. This experiment is a component of partial task No.1 of the national main direction No.6 in the long-range research plan.

Further on, a short demonstration of this research work follows.

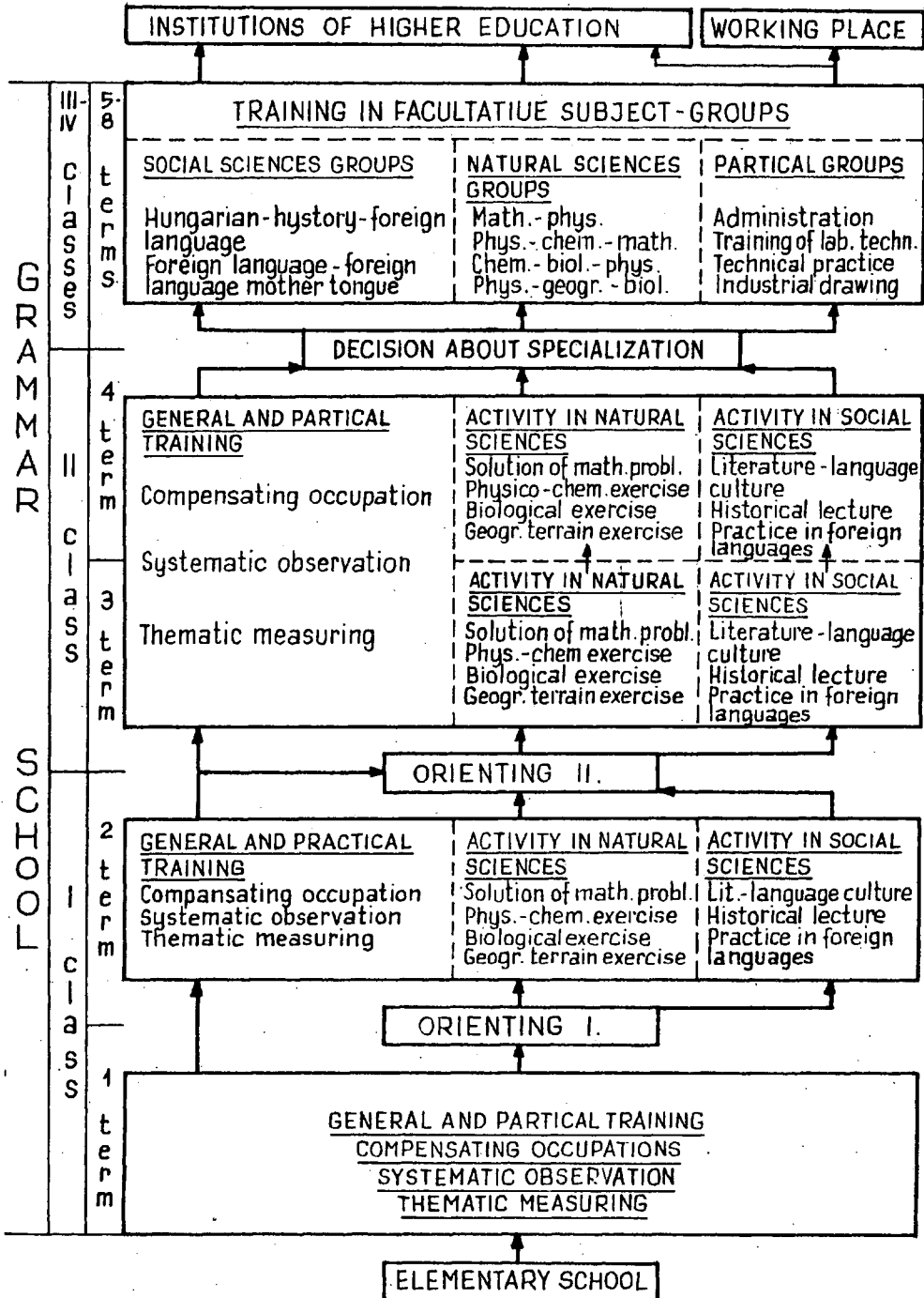
1. The experimental model

1.2. In the experimental model of grammar schools, the four-year education is divided into two periods that functionally differ but organically are built upon each other: into the orienting and generally educating period of classes I and II, and into the differentiated training period of classes III and IV, with subject groups.

The following table of the whole organizational form is easy to survey:



# EXPERIMENTAL MODEL



It is to be seen from the model that the essence of our statement is the experimental investigation of an organizational form that goes far to assure the development and unfolding of individual abilities, being adaptable enough for making sure the proper frame of training even in case of changes in the programme of instruction that are necessary at some intervals.

The aim is, therefore, not a reform of a single subject in the programme concerning its contents. In this way, we take for basis in the experiment the reduced programmes of instruction that are valid at present.

For realizing the activities that reveal the natural endowments of students, as well as for organizing the training with subject-groups instead of the earlier studies specializing in only one subject of instruction /in so-called branches/, we had to transform the lesson-plan for the term and remodel to some extent the subject of programme.

The syllabuses of activities and the programmes of subject-groups are, of course, thoroughly new.

All these modifications may, anyhow, give some basis for preparing the new programmes of instruction to be introduced in 1987.

2. The main characteristics of the orienting period in classes I-II can be summarized as follows:

2.1. In both classes, a general education containing the practical instruction, too, and including everybody, is

going on, with remedial activities built in organically, for assuring a possibly homogeneous knowledge of the material and capacities indispensably necessary for a general education to every student. That assures equal chances for specialization as well. The precondition of this is that the level of knowledge brought from the elementary school in the field of every subject is established with an objective measurement at the beginning of the school-year. The occupations compensating for the insufficiencies are to be organized outside the lesson and even for very small groups /of 3 to 4 members/ but only so long as the deficiencies have not been remedied.

2.2. The practical occupation of 1 hour weekly is to be organized biweekly, in double lessons, and it can be chosen, according to the students' desire and interest, as well as the possibilities of schools, from among the following: the elements of typewriting, training of laboratory technicians, metal-work with elements of industrial design, motor repair with elements of industrial design. Out of every practical programme a yearly programme is made; during the first two years, therefore, every student takes part in two kinds of training of practical direction, enlarging in this way, too, the sphere of activities serving their self actualization + self recognition. The occupations continue by breaking up the classframe, in to groups of 12 to 18 members. We should consider making typewriting compulsory for everybody in one of the classes as this knowledge is very important nearly in every field of our present life, and in some the intellectual professions as well.

2.3. Intermittantly during the acquisitions of the subjects of the grammar-school programme, at the end of every thematic unit, achievement tests are administered in every subject for establishing the level of knowledge in a differentiated way.

If the attainment of a knowledge is not satisfactory, its deepening takes place in the regular classes. This demands partly a minor rearrangement of the following thematic unit, in a larger part, however, the application of more efficient methods and tools. For remedying the deficiencies manifested in smaller groups, a compensating occupation, characterized above, is organized.

2.4. An organic part of instruction is, similarly, the systematic observation of students and a systematic recording of experiences for recognizing the individual endowments, inclinations and abilities. For this observation every specialist teacher receives particular guidelines.

On the basis of the work described above, till the end of term I, enough information will supposedly be available for the teaching staff so that they can give advice to each of the students for choosing in term 2 an aptitude-revealing activity in the field of social or natural sciences. This means the first orientation of students.

2.6. In term 2, the course of instruction and learning - as seen in the table - essentially corresponds to that in

term 1, in so far as the general and practical training including everybody continues, as well as the compensating occupation, observation, thematic measurement. This is completed with an activity serving for revealing the endowments and abilities in two hours weekly. There is made for every activity a term-programme. In this way, till the end of class II, each of the students necessarily tests his abilities in two practical occupational branches, and in three kinds of activities, as well.

2.7. The aptitude-revealing activities are arranged by means of a thematic term programme. For constructing these programmes, the main point of view was to select a stock of learning and activities that are independent to a high degree of the material of the programmes of instruction in classes I and II, i.e., that are only founded on the elements of knowledge obtained in the elementary schools.

The activities show if the student is able to learn the given subject at high level and with good results, if he has the skills necessary for learning. They show if he has general and special mental gifts, the needed interest, persistence and the necessary force for carrying out a continuous activity, if he has the necessary forms and techniques of thinking or these can be developed in him etc.

Corresponding, the teachers in charge of these activities perform continuous observations, arrange measurements of the power-factor, evaluating permanently the students' results, without, however, giving them marks.

2.8. At the end of term 2, the second orientation show in the Table gives information, on the basis of increased informative sources, about whether the activity directed towards the natural or social sciences and carried out for half a year corresponds to the inclination and abilities of the individual students. If it does, then he learns two more spheres of activity of the branch originally chosen in the two terms of class II; if, however, it does not, then he will be directed to the other branch, in which he can test himself in two more spheres of activity.

The aptitude-revealing activities are arranged in groups of 12- to 18-member groups, breaking up, of course, the class-frame.

2.9. At the end of the 4-term learning process, therefore, the information is collected systematically and originating from the following sources, concerning every student: the results of the generally educating subjects /numerically about 13 to 14/ as a thematic unit; one-year old experiences, measured results of two kinds of activities of practical direction? the experiences, results of the possible compensating occupations; the recorded experiences of systematic observations; particular information originating from every subject and activity and, finally, the experiences of the form-master lessons and occupations outside of the lessons. There are, therefore, about twenty kinds information originating from various sources and various domains.

2.10. On the basis of these, the decision is made concerning the choice of the differentiated training direction classes III and IV. subject groups. The parents and students can make their decisions in definitely on the basis of the advice of the teaching staff.

3. The education with subject-groups in classes III and IV is characterized by the following:

3.1. Differentiation means that, on the basis of advice obtained at the end of class II /orientation II/, every student may freely choose studies confirmed in a subject-group within the branches of natural sciences, social sciences or the practical branch. /We notice that he or she may choose freely even a subject-group different from the advised one/.

3.2. Whichever subject group the students choose, they get identical basic training from the generally educating subject of instruction. That is to say, the enlarging-deepening of the general education continues till the final examination at the secondary school. We have therefore made a so-called basic lesson-plan to instruct the generally educating subjects that are to be taught in 24 hours weekly, for classes III and IV. /Cf. the included lesson-plan/, and the programme of these subjects is also common in all three blocks. Accordingly, the students obtain certificates of legally identical value for their final examination in the secondary school, the same

qualifications in all three subject-groups. In this way, every student, coming from all the three directions, is authorized to participate in any high-degree studies.

This status does not mean, of course, identical changes that a student studying in a strengthened social-science subject-group is disadvantaged compa to those making studying in the direction of natural sciences if they want to continue their studies in a higher institution in which the entrance examination is on natural sciences, and this is valid the other way round, too. In such cases, they need to prepare themselves specially for entrance examination.

It may come into question that, of the everyday practice requires it, the students intending to continue their studies in a direction that differs from the learned subject-group are built organically in the model of class IV. This preparation could continue similarly to the organizational form of compensating occupations.

3.3. The specialization in the branches of social and natural sciences does not mean the inclusion of new subjects in the programme of instruction but it means that beyond the 24-hour load of the basic lesson-plan, 10 hours weekly will be used for learning more intensively the subject corresponding to the specialization.

In the practical special direction, of course, these ten extra-lessons are added for teaching new special subjects that are not part of the basic lesson-plan.



3.4. It does not call for explanation that in the training with subject-groups the instruction of a single subject cannot be assured in as high number of weekly hours as in the classes with branches specialized in a single subject of instruction. What we lose in time owing to this will be recovered by structuring reasonably the new programmes of instruction, by putting an end to the "neutral gears" eliminating the superfluous overlaps with an increased subject concentration, with more integrated, comprehensive knowledge, more intensive methods to be expected due to laying stress upon the development of capacities, and last but not least, by the fact that the study on a subject group qualifies for studying in at least five or six various higher institutions.

3.5. It is a novelty opposite to the lesson-plan of grammar schools till now that the instruction of the subject Basics of our ideology begins as early as in class III, on the other hand, in class IV it is taught only in two hours weekly instead of the earlier three. In the full training period, however, the total number of the weekly hours has increased by one.

Accordingly, the programme of its instruction has been modified, too. Our intention is that it deals integrately with the human being as a social creature having psychic nature, including in this way psychology, logics, ethics, philosophy, and the basics of ideology. Due to this character of the subject, a so-called team-instruction can be imagined: being taught not by a single teacher but by several ones specializing in

SUBJECT OF INSTRUCTION	BASIC LESSON PLAN					BRANCH OF SOCIAL SCIENCES LANGUAGES					
						Hung.-History-foreign lang.			Foreign lang.-Foreign lang. mother tong.		
	I.	II.	III.	IV.	S	III.	IV.	S	III.	IV.	S
Literature	2	2	3	3	10	4	4	12			10
Grammar	2	2	-	-	4	2	2	8	2	2	8
History	2	3	2	2	9	5	5	15			9
Base of our ideology	-	-	2	2	4			4			4
Russian language	3	3	3	3	12	3,7	3,7	12,20	3,7	3,7	12,20
2 foreign languages	3	3	3	3	12	3,7	3,7	12,20	3,7	3,7	12,20
3 foreign languages	-	-	-	-	-	4	4	8	4	4	8
Mathematics	4	4	3	3	14			14			14
Physics	-	2	3	3	8			8			8
Chemistry	3	2	-	-	5			5			5
Biology	2	2	2	-	6			6			6
Geography	3	3	-	-	6			6			6
Singing-music	1	1	-	-	2			2			2
Drawing-history of art	2	-	-	2	4			4			4
Physical training	3	3	3	3	12			12			12
Practical training	1	1	-	-	2			2			2
Form-master's lesson	1	1	-	-	2			2			2
Activity of orientation	0/2	2	-	-	3			3			3
Facultative subjects	-	-	10	10	20						
Together	32/34	34	34	34	135			135			135

BRANCH OF NATURAL SCIENCES - MATHEMAT.												PRACTICAL BRANCH								
Math.-phys.			Phys.-chem-math			Chem.-biol.-phys.			Phys.-geogr.-biol.			Administration			Training of lab. technic.			Ind. desing and practice		
III.	IV.	S	III.	IV.	S	III.	IV.	S	III.	IV.	S	III.	IV.	S	III.	IV.	S	III.	IV.	S
		10			10			10			10			10			10			10
		4			4			4			4	2	2	8			4			4
		9			9			9			9			9			9			9
		4			4			4			4			4			4			4
3,5	3,5	12,16	3,5	3,5	12,16	3,5	3,5	12,16	3,5	3,5	12,16			12,18			12			12
3,5	3,5	12,16	3,5	3,5	12,16	3,5	3,5	12,16	3,5	3,5	12,16			12,18			12			12
		14	8	8	24	5	6	19			14			14			14			14
5	5	12	6	6	14	6	6	14	5	5	12			8			8			8
		5			5	3	2	10	3	2	10			5	2	2	9			5
5	4	13			6			6	5	4	13			6			6			6
3	2	11			6			6			6			6			6			6
		2			2			2			2			2			2			2
		4			4			4			4			4			4			4
		12			12			12			12			12			12			12
		2			2			2			2			2			2			2
		2			2			2			2			2			2			2
		3			3			3			3			3			3			3
												8	8	16	8	8	16	10	10	20
		135			135			135			135			135			135			135

various subjects.

3.6. In class III and IV, the separate class-master's task comes to an end. His function is taken over by the subject "Basics of our ideology". For performing the administrative functions of the class-master other possibilities are being considered.

3.7. In class IV, the history of art is taught in raised two hours weekly since we think it is very important that every student after finishing grammar-school studies has a thorough acquaintance with arts and music. In our opinion, this subject also contributes to laying the foundations of ideology.

3.8. In subject-group social sciences, as well as in the administrative branch of the practical group, the instruction of the Hungarian language continues in the frame of a separate subject, in class III and IV. In the block of social sciences and languages, the linguistic foundation, and in the administrative branch the language-practice /development of the power of oral and written expression, construction of documents, etc./ is going on.

3.9. The instruction of foreign languages shows a peculiar picture.

3.9.1. Within the branch of social sciences and lan-

guages, in the subject-group Hungarian-History, we added four hours weekly for their study. The utilization of this can take place according to the following three variants:

a/ The additional of 4 hours are assured for instructing the Russian language.

b/ A second foreign language gets the additional of 4 hours.

c/ In these 4 hours, a third foreign language may be taught.

In the latter case - as the students in question are mostly studying philology and history - it is advisable to teach Latin as a third language. In the subject-group "Foreign language - Foreign language - Mother tongue" we assure four additional hours each for studying both foreign languages. That can be used in such a way, too, that they get on with studying one of the languages in three hours weekly as before, and the remaining four hours are used for instructing a third foreign language. In this case, too, it is advisable to teach Latin.

3.9.2. In the subject-group natural sciences and mathematics we can assure two additional hours weekly for studying foreign languages. They can be used in such a way that the students study either the Russian language or the second foreign language in five hours weekly instead of the three hours according to the basic lesson-plan.

3.9.3. In the administrative branch, we cannot assure any additional hour for studying foreign languages but - as we

consider it essential that the cultivated administrators working for public instruction know a foreign language, at a proper level - we regard it as a possible solution that the students, from class III on, cease learning one of the foreign languages and devote all the six hours weekly, that were destined for studying both languages, to the study of one of the foreign languages.

3.10. In the lesson-plan of the optional subject-groups, the hour-numbers that differ from the basic lesson-plan are presented framed /in a box/ for an easier survey. Concerning these, we notice only generally: we have striven not to increase the number of programme-variants due to the changing lesson-numbers as a result of the different special joinings. This, for instance in mathematics, there is to be prepared a lesson-plan corresponding to the basic lesson-plan and to two specialized lesson-plan variants. In physics, similarly, with the deviation that the difference between the two specialized lesson-plan variants does not exceed 1 hour. It is not necessary, therefore, to arrange a separate programme for teaching these but the programme of the 6-hour physics course differs from that of 5-hour course only in the number of exercises. At the same time, we succeeded in achieving that chemistry and biology have got identical lesson-numbers in both specialized subject-groups.

3.11. In the branch of the practical-group training laboratory technicians, the weekly 2-hour chemistry indicated

in classes III and IV has to provide the theoretical education that corresponds to the character of the branch.

3.12. At present we cannot elaborate in details the programme of the practical subject-groups, the number of hours assured for teaching the special subject is therefore given in a total sum.

The schedule of the experiment is the following:

/1/ School-year 1973/1974 is the period of preparation. This covers the final clarification of the concept, the arrangement and testing of the thematic programmes of the activities, the preparation and tryout of the tests concerning the beginning level of class I., the set up of the points of view of observation and the personality files, and the preparation of the teachers participating in the experiment.

The participants of the experiment are; two parallel classes of the schools Radnóti Miklós Gimnázium at Szeged and Ságvári Endre Gimnázium at Szeged, and all three parallel classes of József Attila Gimnázium at Makó.

/2/ The experiment begins in September 1974, with the classes indicated in above.

/3/ The period of the experiment is 5 years, that is to say, after the experimental classes starting in September 1974 we are starting another experimental class. In the experiment to be carried out with this second class. we want to utilize the experiences obtained in the previous class. In this way, in the course of the experiment the original

organizational forms, the subject-matters of instruction, etc. may be somewhat modified, enlarged or narrowed.

/4/ The experimental instruction will therefore be finished in July 1980.

/5/ We want to evaluate the results continuously and the experiences will also be analysed continuously. This, the evaluation of the full experiment will be finished expectably by the end of July 1981.

/6/ Finally we want to emphasize that our experiment is one of the experiments that investigate the possibilities of grammar-school education in the future. We think by no means that this is the model of the future. We only hope that, together with the other experiments, it may contribute to developing the model of the future.



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## Опыт преобразования системы обучения в гимназии

Дьёрдь Агоштон - Шандор Орос

Гимназия в Венгрии имеет двойную функцию: 1. подготовить учащихся посредством подачи общего образования широкого профиля к высшему образованию, 2. дать не продолжающим учение такое специальное образование, которое делает возможным поступить на работу по какой - либо специальности.

По опыту в настоящее время гимназия неспособна целиком выполнить ни одной функции. Главные причины этого заключаются в следующем:

1./ Не имеется подходящей организованной системы для раскрытия и развития индивидуальных способностей.

2./ Специальное обучение, соответствующее индивидуальным способностям, является в гимназии маловозможным.

3./ Если такое обучение и есть, оно способствует в большинстве случаев только односторонней специализации, и специализация не соответствует отраслям высшего образования.

4./ Не выяснено, какую квалификацию учащиеся приобретают на выпускном экзамене, на какую работу они могут поступить без высшей квалификации - таким образом подготовка к поступлению на работу является неудовлетворительной.

На таком основании в запланированном и руководимом/управляемом/ авторами эксперименте срок обучения в гимназии / 4 года /, заканчивающегося выпускным экзаменом, разделяется на две главные фазы:

1./ На первых двух курсах/ 15-16-летний возраст / ведётся единое общее и специальное обучение, помимо этого учащиеся принимают участие по два занятия в неделю в разнообразной деятельности, организованной в форме полугодичных курсов. На этом основании в конце второго года даётся им рекомендация на выбор специальной отрасли обучения, ведущейся в высших классах.

2./ На высших двух курсах в пропорции 2/3 - 1/3 ведётся общее и дифференцированное обучение в трёх специальных отраслях / в области общественных наук, естественных наук и в области профессиональной /. Во всех трёх отраслях учащиеся имеют возможность выбрать среди нескольких комбинаций комплексов предметов. Изучени любой комбинации комплексов предметов подготавливает одновременно к продолжению учения с разнообразной направленностью и в специальной отрасли к нескольким различным профессиям.

Экспериментальное обучение, подготовленное в 1973-74 гг., начнётся в 1974 - 75 гг. в семи параллельных классах трёх гимназий, и в нём участвуют два следующих курса. Таким образом, первый курс закончит учение в 1978 - 79 гг., а последующий в 1979 - 80 гг. Авторы собираются опубликовать анализ результатов эксперимента к концу 1981 г.

Ein Experiment mit dem Zweck, die Struktur der  
Gymnasialstudien umzugestalten.

György Ágoston - Sándor Orosz

Das Gymnasium hat in Ungarn eine doppelte Funktion:

1. Vorbereitung der Schüler für das Hochschulstudium durch eine Allgemeinbildung von hohem Niveau, 2. Vermittlung von praktischen Kenntnissen für nicht weiterstudierende Schüler, damit sie eine adequate Arbeitsstelle finden können.

Nach den allgemeinen Erfahrungen kann das Gymnasium zur Zeit weder die erste, noch die zweiterwähnte Funktion erfüllen. Als Ursachen können folgende Faktoren erwähnt werden:

1. Es gibt kein adequates System im Rahmen der Allgemeinbildung für die Aufdeckung und Entwicklung von individuellen Fähigkeiten bzw. Begabungen.

2. Es gibt nur geringe Möglichkeiten, den individuellen Begabungen und Interessen entsprechende spezielle Studien im Rahmen der Gymnasialbildung durchzuführen.

3. Wenn es überhaupt solche Möglichkeiten wie die oben erwähnten gibt, ermöglichen sie vorwiegend nur eine enge Spezialisierung, die den Hochschulfächern nicht völlig entspricht.

4. Die Frage, zu welchen Berufen man im Gymnasium - ohne Hochschulstudien - qualifiziert wird, ist bisher nicht geklärt. Deswegen gilt die Vorbereitung zum Beruf nicht als beruhigend.

Auf Grund der oben erwähnten Überlegungen wird die von den Verfassern geplante und geleitete, sich mit Reifeprüfung abschliessende vierjährige /15-18. Lebensjahr/ Ausbildung im Gymnasium in zwei Phasen geteilt:

1. In den ersten zwei Schuljahren /15-16. Lebensjahr/ gibt es eine einheitliche allgemeine und praktische Ausbildung; ausserdem nimmt jeder Schüler an in Halbjahrkursform zu organisierenden sogenannten Orientierungstätigkeiten teil. An Hand der im Laufe der erwähnten Tätigkeiten gewonnenen Erfahrungen werden die Schüler am Ende des zweiten Schuljahres /der zweiten Klasse/ beraten, um den ihnen entsprechenden Spezialisationszweig der oberen Klassen wählen zu können.

2. In den zwei oberen Klassen findet eine allgemeine und parallel dazu eine differenzierte Bildung in drei Fachrichtungen /Gesellschaft- und Sprachwissenschaften, Mathematik und Naturwissenschaften, Praktikum/ statt. In allen drei Richtungen können die Schüler von mehreren Fachgruppenkombinationen wählen. Durch das Absolvieren einer solchen Kombination wird man zum Studieren an mehreren Hochschulen bzw. durch die praktische Ausbildung zu mehreren Berufen befähigt.

Nach der Vorbereitungsphase /1973/74./ beginnt das Experiment in 7 Parallelklassen von 3 Gymnasien am Anfang des Schuljahres 1974/75. Zwei nacheinander folgenden Jahrgänge werden am Experiment teilnehmen, so dass der erste Experimentaljahrgang sein Studium am Ende des Schuljahres 1977/87., der zweite um ein Jahr später /1978/79./ beendet.

Die Verfasser haben es vor, die Ergebnisse bis Ende 1981 zu analysieren und zu publizieren.





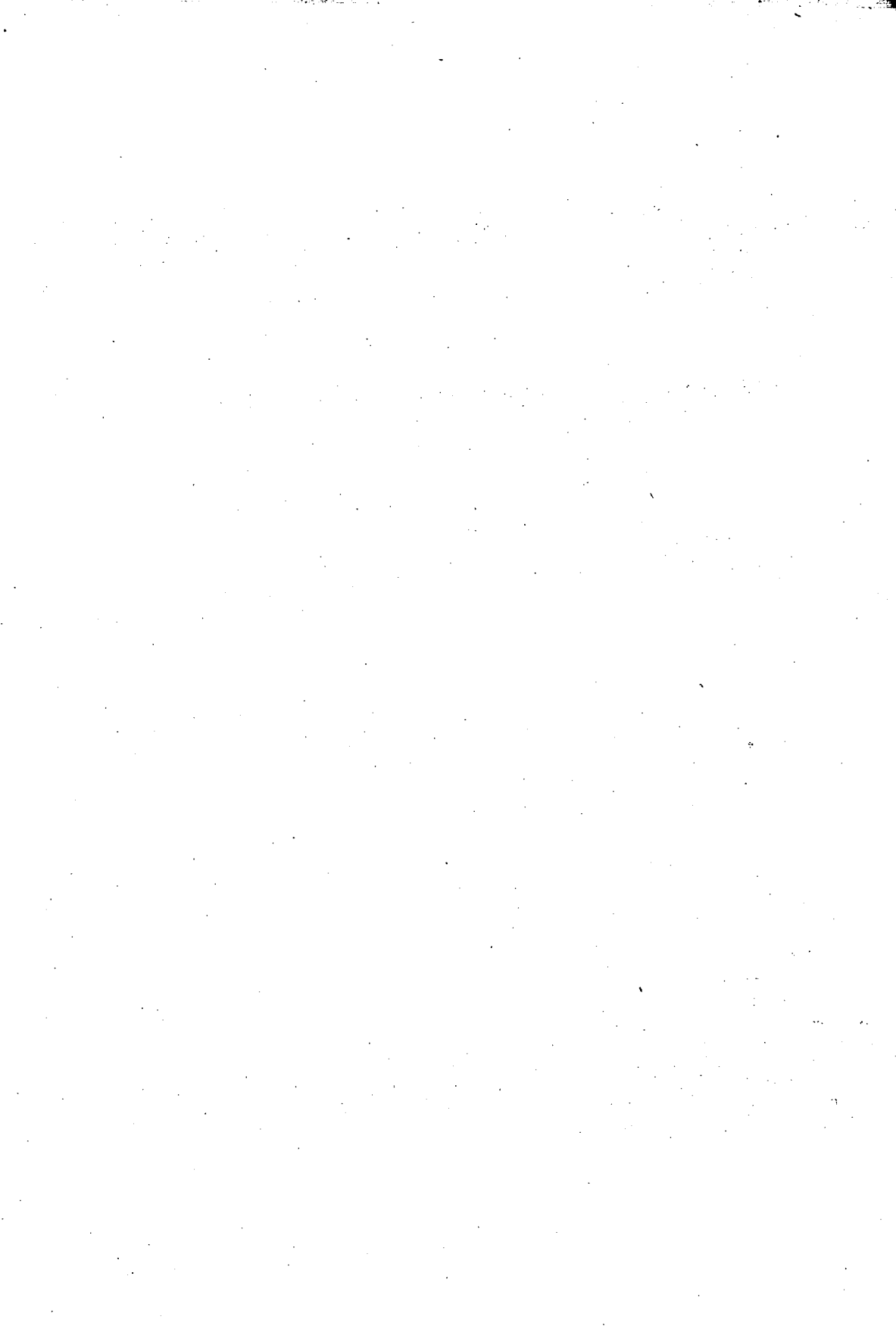
METHODOLOGISCHE UND METHODISCHE ASPEKTE EINER FRÜHDIAGNOSE  
VON VORAUSSETZUNGEN FÜR DEN ERWERB DER SCHRIFTSPRACHE<sup>+</sup>

Prof. Helmut Breuer

/Greifswald/

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<sup>+</sup> Die Forschungsarbeit auf diesem Gebiet führt der Verfasser in ständiger Zusammenarbeit mit Frau Dr. Maria Wauffen durch.



Die Fähigkeit, sprachlich formulierte Erkenntnisse und Absichten, Geschehnisse und Erlebnisse schriftlich zur zeitlich-räumlich beliebigen Verwertung festzuhalten und zu konservieren und die Fähigkeit, das zu lesen und weiter zu verwerten, was andere schriftlich festgehalten haben, gehören zu den grundlegendsten Errungenschaften der Menschheit. Ohne die Schriftsprache wäre der heutige Wissensstand der Menschheit ebenso undenkbar, wie die zielgerichtete, ausgewählte und rasche Aneignung der von den Generationen vorher geschaffenen geistig-ideellen Werte durch die heranwachsende Generation. Wegen der unersetzbaren Bedeutung, die eine sichere Beherrschung der Kulturtechniken Lesen und Schreiben für die gesamte Persönlichkeitsentwicklung besitzt, müssen wir Schwierigkeiten im Aneignungsprozess sorgfältig analysieren und zu überwinden versuchen. Aufgabe der psychologisch-pädagogischen Forschung ist es, die Determinanten dieser Schwierigkeiten und die Genese der sie verursachenden Faktoren zu bestimmen und auf der Grundlage dieser ursachenorientierten Analyse Korrekturmöglichkeiten zu erkunden.

Gegenwärtig lassen sich zwei prinzipiell unterschiedliche Wege zur Eliminierung von Schwierigkeiten beim Erwerb der Schriftsprache abgrenzen. Der traditionelle Weg verläuft als Nachvollzug, als Nachhilfe. Er nimmt seinen Anfang, wenn das Kind die Anforderungen des Unterrichts im Lesen und in der Rechtschreibung nicht zu erfüllen vermag. In einem solchen Falle verstärkt der Pädagoge zunächst die individuelle Zuwendung.

Er variiert und erweitert die Übungen und motivationalen Stimulierungen. Bleiben diese Bemühungen ohne sichtbaren Erfolg, dann werden auf Initiative des Lehrers auch ausserunterrichtliche Möglichkeiten zur Förderung genutzt /Förderunterricht, verstärkte Zusammenarbeit mit den Eltern usw./. Unsere Unterstufenlehrer nutzen insgesamt die Möglichkeiten dieser symptomorientierten, als Nachvollzug zu charakterisierenden Ansätze mit viel Initiative und Verantwortungsbewusstsein. Dennoch ist die Erfolgsquote dieses traditionellen Weges unbefriedigend. Nach vorsichtiger Schätzung gelingt es etwa 10 % der Kinder trotz grösster Unterstützung in der ersten Klasse nicht, den Anschluss an die Leistungen der Mitschüler in den Fächern Lesen und Schreiben herzustellen, obwohl sie in den anderen Fächern zunächst ausreichende Ergebnisse vorweisen können. Wenn die Bemühungen dieser Kinder selbst, ihrer Lehrer und Eltern fortwährend von Misserfolgen begleitet sind, stellen sich unweigerlich Sekundärkonflikte ein, wie Schulunlust, Resignation, Verhaltensstörungen usw.

Es erhebt sich deshalb die Frage, ob andere Wege zu besseren Ergebnissen führen. Ohne dass wir den beschriebenen traditionellen Weg unterschätzen, muss gesagt werden, dass er zumindest in einigen Fällen untauglich ist. Wenn nämlich einem Kind das Erlernen der Schriftsprache Schwierigkeiten bereitet, dann können die Ursachen dafür in Voraussetzungen liegen, die sich bereits in der vorhergehenden Etappe der Entwicklung fehlerhaft konstituiert haben. In diesem Falle setzt die Hilfe in der Schule zu spät ein. Sie müsste im Hinblick auf einen erfolgreichen Start beim Erwerb der Schriftsprache zeitlich weit früher einsetzen. Im Unterschied zum traditionellen Weg haben wir es

dann mit einem prophylaktisch-ursachenorientierten Vorgehen zu tun. Dieser Weg geht von der Überlegung aus, dass jede Schwierigkeit ihre Entstehungsgeschichte hat. Über eine theoretische Analyse werden diejenigen elementaren psychischen Leistungen aufgedeckt, auf denen die nachfolgende Hierarchie geistiger Operationen einschliesslich der Beherrschung des Lesens und Schreibens aufbaut. Die pädagogische Einflussnahme stellt dann keinen Nachvollzug dar, sondern greift unmittelbar regulierend in den Prozess der Konstituierung psychischer Voraussetzungen für den Erwerb der Schriftsprache ein.

Ausgehend von der Theorie WYGOTSKI's /1964/ vom hierarchischen Aufbau der höheren psychischen Funktionen betont LEWINA /1967/, "dass die Schädigungen der komplizierteren, sich später herausbildenden Komponenten der Sprache /wir beziehen das auch auf die Schriftsprache, die Verf./ mit den Abweichungen in der Entwicklung ihrer elementarerer Voraussetzungen zusammenhängen, die im früheren Alter entstehen."

Das verlangt zunächst eine entwicklungspsychologische Analyse jener Prozesse und Eigenschaften /z.B. der sensomotorischen/, ihrer phasentypischen Konstituierung usw., auf denen ihrerseits geistige Funktionen aufbauen, die für den Erwerb der Schriftsprache benötigt werden. Hinweise für die Lösung dieser Aufgabe finden sich vor allem in der sowjetischen Fachliteratur.

ANANJEW /1963/ z.B. weist nachdrücklich auf die Notwendigkeit hin, die Tätigkeit der Analysatoren bei Kindern verschiedener Altersstufen zu untersuchen. Bisher würde viel zu wenig beachtet, welche grosse Bedeutung der Stand der sensomotorischen Entwicklung für den Erziehungs- und Bildungsprozess besitzt.

LURIA /1970/ fordert für die Untersuchung der qualitativen Besonderheiten einer Störung die Anwendung einer Reihe ganz konkreter Proben, die Auskunft über den Zustand der akustischen, optischen und kinästhetischen Analysatoren geben. Diese Proben sollen relativ standardmässigen Charakter tragen und hinsichtlich ihrer Untersuchungsergebnisse Hinweise für weiterführende Untersuchungen und für therapeutische Massnahmen enthalten. Ausgehend von diesen Überlegungen entwickelten BREUER - WEUFFEN /1971/ auf der Grundlage entwicklungspsychologischer und logopädischer Analysen ein Verfahren - die "Differenzierungsprobe" - zur Früherfassung sensomotorischer Voraussetzungen für die Aneignung der Schriftsprache.

Das Verfahren prüft, ob jene sensomotorischen Funktionen /bei 6 - 7 Jahre alten Vorschulkindern/ ausreichend ausgeformt sind, mit deren Hilfe materielle Strukturelemente der Sprache in allen ihren Modalitäten wahrgenommen und im Handeln /sprechend, hörend, schreibend usw./ automatisiert entäußert, realisiert werden. Ohne diese Fähigkeit wäre das Kind nicht in der Lage, Gesprochenes zu verstehen und selbst zu sprechen.

Im praktischen Handeln und in der Kommunikation steht die semantische Seite der Sprache im Vordergrund. Um dieses Niveau zu erreichen, darf das Kind auf der "unteren" Ebene der sensomotorischen Bewältigung nicht mehr behindert sein. Beide Prozesse, die Beherrschung der sensomotorischen Funktionen des Sprechens und die Aneignung des Semantischen stehen gerade in der Phase des Erlernens der Sprache miteinander in engster Beziehung.

Die Automatisierung der sensomotorischen Funktionen beim Sprechen wird im Vorschulalter relativ abgeschlossen. Damit sind gleichzeitig wichtige Voraussetzungen für die Aneignung der Schriftsprache gegeben. Die Schriftsprache stellt insofern neue Anforderungen an die Sensomotorik, als dass jetzt Gesprochenes in Geschriebenes und umgekehrt umgesetzt werden muss.

Fünf sprachtragende Wahrnehmungsleistungen werden mit der "Differenzierungsprobe" zweimal hinsichtlich ihres Niveaus in einem festgelegten zeitlichen Abstand diagnostiziert.

Die erste Untersuchung, Erkundungsuntersuchung genannt, erfolgt im September/Oktober, also 1 Jahr vor Schuleintritt; die zweite Untersuchung /mit den gleichen Aufgaben/, als Kontrolluntersuchung, wird 1/2 Jahr später durchgeführt.

#### 1. Die optische Differenzierung.

Eine notwendige Voraussetzung für den Erwerb der Schriftsprache ist die Fähigkeit zum präzisen Erfassen und Gestalten optisch-wahrgenommener Zeichen. Werden diese sensomotorisch ungenau bewältigt, muss es zu Fehlern beim Lesen und Schreiben kommen, weil gerade in der ersten Etappe des Aneignungsprozesses die Beachtung dieser formalen Seiten gegenüber dem Sinngehalt noch im Vordergrund steht. Erst die automatisierte Bewältigung der formalen Strukturen ermöglicht die Konzentration auf den Sinngehalt. Die Buchstaben unterscheiden sich oft nur in einzelnen Elementen ihrer optischen Struktur: gleiche Elemente mit unterschiedlicher Richtungslage bei b und d, gleiche Elemente mit unterschiedlicher Anzahl bei m und n usw. Deshalb ist die völlige Sicherheit in der optischen Differenzierung im Rahmen der durch die Schriftsprache geforderten Genauigkeit unum-

gänglich. Die von uns ausgewählten Zeichen für diese Aufgabe berücksichtigen solche Strukturelemente, wie sie für Schriftzeichen typisch sind:

rechts, links, schräg, oben, unten, rund, gerade, eckig;  
Häufigkeit, Relationen



Bei der Bewertung der Lösungen werden Richtungs-, Lage-, Häufigkeits- und Relationsmerkmale besonders beachtet.

## 2. Die phonematische Differenzierung.

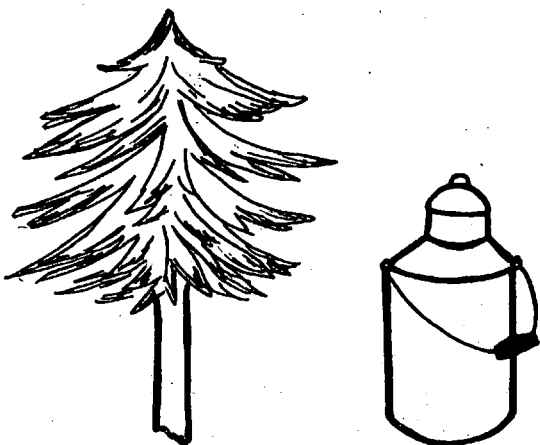
Die Fähigkeit, Laute innerhalb eines Wortes genau herauszuhören, ist unerlässlich, um verstehen zu können, was ein gesprochenes Wort inhaltlich bezeichnet. Ungenaue phonematische Differenzierung führt ausserdem zu Rechtschreibfehlern. Wem es schwerfällt, ein gesprochenes "G" von einem "D" beim Hören zu unterscheiden, muss auch Schwierigkeiten haben, wenn er Gehörtes in Geschriebenes umsetzen soll. Besitzt das Phonem eine tragende Bedeutung für die richtige Sinnerfassung, führt die phonematische Fehlleistung zu Sinnverschiebungen /z.B. Nagel - Nadel/.

Die Aufgaben aus der Differenzierungsprobe stellen an die



phonematische Differenzierungsfähigkeit relativ geringe Anforderungen. Die ausgewählten Wortpaare weisen phonematisch relativ grosse Unterschiede auf. Dem Kind werden jeweils zwei Bildtafeln vorgelegt, auf denen Sachverhalte illustriert sind, deren begriffliche Bezeichnung phonematische Verwechslungen begünstigen.

Für die Überprüfung der phonematischen Differenzierungsfähigkeit müssen die Begriffspaare so eindeutig illustriert sein, dass nur jeweils eine begriffliche Bezeichnung je Bild von den Kindern gewählt wird. Insgesamt wurden 10 Wortpaare zusammengestellt



Für diese Bilder lauten die gewünschten Bezeichnungen:

T a n n e und  
K a n n e. Um die für die phonematische Differenzierung angezielten Ergebnisse zu erhalten, darf das Kind nicht etwa Baum und Krug als Bezeichnung wählen. Das wird durch eine entspre-

chende Instruktion ohne Schwierigkeiten erreicht.

Insgesamt wurden für die Überprüfung der phonematischen Differenzierung 10 Wortpaare zusammengestellt. Um ein positives Ergebnis zu erreichen, darf es zu keinen falschen Zuordnungen durch das Kind kommen.

### 3. Die kinästhetische Differenzierung

Zur Überprüfung der kinästhetischen Differenzierung wurde die von J. GÜTHKE /1964/ entwickelte "Nachsprechprobe" mit geringfügigen Veränderungen übernommen, da sie wenig Zeit in Anspruch nimmt und für diese Altersstufe standardisiert ist.

Die Fähigkeit zur kinästhetischen Gliederung ist Voraussetzung für den Sprechvorgang. Jedes Artikulieren ist ein komplizierter und komplexer motorischer Vollzug. Treten dabei Störungen auf, dann entspricht das Artikulationsergebnis nicht dem, was artikuliert werden sollte. Wenn das gehörte und das gesprochene Wort voneinander abweichen, dann weicht auch das geschriebene fast immer vom gehörten Wort ab und Rechtschreib- beziehungsweise Lesefehler sind die Folge. Die Ursachen für das abweichende Artikulationsergebnis können unter anderem mangelnde akustische Gliederungsfähigkeit beziehungsweise/ und exogen oder endogen bedingte sprechmotorische Retardierung sein. Schwerhörige und sprachgestörte Kinder erreichen hier zwangsläufig schwache Ergebnisse. Doch auch für diese Kinder sind im Hinblick auf eine zielgerichtete Therapie die ermittelten Befunde wichtig.

In der Auswertung wird beachtet, ob das Kind das vorgespochene Wort richtig lautiert. Als Fehler gelten:

Auslassungen, Hinzufügungen, Ersetzen von Lauten; Laute werden in ihrer Position vertauscht; Stammelfehler.

### 4. Die melodische Differenzierung

Sprache und Musik ähneln sich in gewisser Beziehung, da beide melodische Komponenten enthalten. Denken wir zum Beispiel daran, wie Gefühlszustände in melodischen Merkmalen des Sprechens

zum Ausdruck kommen und dadurch Gefühlszustände beim Partner hervorrufen. Gleiche Wörter und Sätze drücken unterschiedliche Inhalte in Abhängigkeit ihrer melodischen Diktion und Situationseinbettung aus. Wenn zum Beispiel die Mutter zum Kind sagt: "Schau mich an ...", dann kann dies - auch unabhängig von der Situation - zärtlich, bittend, energisch, drohend gemeint sein. Der Tonfall ist für Nuancen in der Reaktion des Kindes entscheidend.

Ohne die komplizierten Beziehungen näher zu bestimmen, die beim Sprechen zwischen Melodiemerkmalen und Semantischem bestehen, kann davon ausgegangen werden, dass Melodiedifferenzierung eine weitere Voraussetzung für das richtige Erkennen und Verwerten sprachlicher Gebilde ist. Die semantische Qualität sprachlicher Gebilde setzt nicht nur die Unterscheidung akustischer Merkmale voraus, in gleicher Weise sind melodische Merkmale, wie Tonfall, Tonhöhe, Tonstärke und Tondauer zu erfassen. Ist die melodische Differenzierung ungenügend entwickelt, dann können Situationsspezifisches für richtiges Handeln und die von emotionalen Merkmalen getragenen Sinnzusammenhänge verlorengehen. Von hier aus liegen Beziehungen zum Leseverständnis im Anfangsunterricht und zur Rechtschreibung nahe. Beim Leseverständnis ist das Kind auf die Erfassung übergeordneter Sinnzusammenhänge angewiesen. Der einzelne Satz wird dadurch erst verständlich, er bekommt einen Sinn. Kinder, die nicht verstehen, was sie lesen, zeigen im Tonfall und in der Betonung dafür deutliche Symptome. Das kann soweit führen, dass selbst Bekanntes nicht erkannt und ganz falsch betont und ausgesprochen wird. Vom Sinnverständnis für den Satz hängen also die Betonung, Aussprache und das selektierende Heraushören von einzelnen Wörtern ab und deren Umsetzung in Geschriebenes.

Die Rechtschreibeleistung wird damit von der Melodiefifferenzierung beeinflusst. Leider wurde dieser wichtigen Komponente im Zusammenhang mit pädagogisch orientierten Frühdiagnosen bisher kaum Beachtung geschenkt. Deshalb fehlen genügend erprobte und praktikable diagnostische Verfahren auf diesem Gebiet.

Die Erfassung der melodischen Differenzierung ist auf verschiedene Weise möglich. Üblich ist zum Beispiel das Nachsingen von Melodiefragmenten, die auf einem Instrument /auch Tonband/ vorgespielt oder vom VL vorgesungen werden. In diesen Fällen muss allerdings der VL selbst ein Instrument spielen oder melodiegetreu vorsingen können bzw. ein Tonbandgerät zur Verfügung haben. Deshalb haben wir uns nach zahlreichen Versuchen für folgende Variante entschieden: Das Kind singt das bekannte Kinderlied "Alle meine Entchen" aus dem Gedächtnis vor. Dazu sind nur in den seltensten Fällen die Kinder nicht in der Lage oder bereit. Ist das Lied unbekannt, kann das Kind ein anderes Kinderlied wählen.

Bei dieser Aufgabe werden deutlich auffallende Melodie- und Rhythmusabweichungen als Fehler bewertet, die von einer ausgebildeten Kindergärtnerin ohne Schwierigkeiten diagnostiziert werden können.

### 5. Die rhythmische Differenzierung

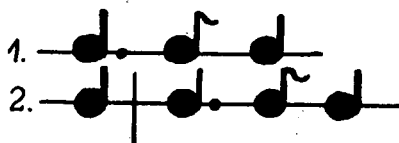
Das Sprechen ist nicht nur eine einfache Aufeinanderfolge von Lauten. Die Aufeinanderfolge weist eine Gliederung auf. Die Gliederung im Satz lässt seine Bestandteile, die Wörter, innerhalb der Wörter die Silben und Laute erkennen. Diese Gliederung ist Voraussetzung für Sinnklarheit. Würden zum

Beispiel zwischen den Wörtern keine Pausen bestehen, würden die Betonungsakzente oder Pausen verlagert sein, und hätten die Wörter keine bestimmte Reihenfolge, dann wäre Kommunikation sehr erschwert. Rhythmische Differenzierung als Differenzierung von Intervallen hängt mit akustischen und motorischen Wahrnehmungen sehr eng zusammen. Deshalb ist an einer Differenzierungsleistung im Rhythmischen ebenfalls ein Ensemble elementarer Differenzierungsfähigkeiten der anderen Wahrnehmungsbereiche beteiligt. Vor allem die Differenzierung unterschiedlicher Intervalle ist für das Erkennen und Wiedergeben der Aufeinanderfolge der Laute entscheidend. Wenn ein Kind ein Wort schreibt, ist es auf diese Gliederungsfähigkeit angewiesen, weil es sonst zu Umstellungen, Auslassungen und Hinzufügungen kommen kann. Auch bei der Silbentrennung wirkt sich rhythmische Gliederungsfähigkeit aus.

Wenn wir hier die Beziehungen zwischen rhythmischer Differenzierungsfähigkeit und der Rechtschreibung besonders betonen, dann nicht im Sinne einer Ausschliesslichkeit. Die Dauer der Intervalle zum Beispiel ist jeweils eine bestimmte Grösse, die es zu erfassen, mit anderen Grössen der Dauer zu vergleichen gilt. Inwieweit die rhythmische Gliederungsfähigkeit in den Bereich der Mengenauffassung hineinreicht, lässt sich aus unserem empirischen Material nicht gesichert belegen. Es kann jedoch gesagt werden, dass zwischen der rhythmischen Differenzierungsfähigkeit vor Schuleintritt und den Zensuren in Mathematik ebenfalls Beziehungen bestehen. Ausserdem ist bekannt, dass Rhythmuserfassung mit Gedächtnisleistung verbunden ist. Rhythmische Kinderreime machen nicht nur Vergnügen, sie lassen sich auch gut behalten und spielen für den sozialen Kontakt eine

grosse Rolle. Kindern mit rhythmischen Störungen gelingt es zum Beispiel bei Abzählreimen nur sehr schwer, die entsprechenden Koordinierungen zwischen Sprechsilben und Geste zu vollführen. Dadurch können in dieser Situation Kontaktschwierigkeiten für das Kind entstehen, weil es die Situation nicht meistert. Dass die rhythmische Differenzierungsfähigkeit eine wichtige Grundlage für höhere psychische Leistungen darstellt, lässt sich zum Beispiel bei Agrammatikern nachweisen. Bei agrammatisch Sprechenden Kindern treffen fast immer deutliche Fehlleistungen in der Fähigkeit zur Gliederung rhythmischer Reihen auf, auch beim einfachen Zählen. Es handelt sich dabei offensichtlich um Unzulänglichkeiten der Analyse gegebener Strukturen dieser Art. Diese Ausfälle sind bei ihnen relativ beständig, während andere längst überwunden sind. Insgesamt kann angenommen werden, dass die Fähigkeit, einen Rhythmus richtig zu erkennen und wiederzugeben /diese Seite wird bei der Überprüfung erfasst/, als Indikator dafür zu gelten hat, wie das Kind die formalen Muster der Sprache und die feineren Unterschiede und Subtilitäten der Bedeutung beherrscht.

Die Überprüfung erfolgt auf folgende Weise: Dem Kind wird ein Takt vorgeklatscht, den es nachzuklatschen hat. Zum Beispiel:



Jede Abweichung vom vorgegebenen Rhythmus gilt als Fehler. Es könnte die Frage gestellt werden, ob eine unzureichende

Qualität in der sensomotorischen Funktion nur durch eine gesonderte Überprüfung zu erkennen ist oder ob sich Mängel in dieser Beziehung im Alltagsverhalten beobachten lassen. Dazu ist folgendes zu sagen: Extreme Mängel werden auch im Alltagsverhalten sichtbar. Diese Fälle machen eine spezielle Prüfung nicht notwendig. Unsere Längsschnittuntersuchungen besagen jedoch, dass viele derjenigen Kinder, denen das Erlernen der Schriftsprache im Anfangsunterricht grosse Schwierigkeiten bereitet, im Vorschulalter unauffällig blieben. Das lässt sich damit erklären, dass der im Vorschulalter vorherrschende Typ der Tätigkeit /Spielen, Malen, Zeichnen, Basteln, Beschäftigungen aller Art, Sport usw./ mit einem Differenzierungsniveau verbunden ist, welches für die Beherrschung der Schriftsprache nicht immer ausreicht. Deshalb können gewisse Ungenauigkeiten im Vorschulalter nicht zu derart negativen Handlungsergebnissen wie später beim Schreiben und Lesen führen. Ein einfaches Beispiel mag das belegen: Im vorschulischen Spiel ist es für einen erfolgreichen Handlungsvollzug der Kinder relativ unwesentlich, ob etwa statt "Schule" "Szule" gesagt wird, weil die mit dem Handlungsinhalt verbundenen Situationscharakteristika bewirken, dass diese unpräzise Information den sinnvollen Handlungsvollzug nicht beeinträchtigt. Die Handlung verläuft dennoch erfolgreich. Im Zusammenhang mit dem Erwerb der Schriftsprache, einem neuen Typ der Tätigkeit, ist jedoch diese höhere Qualität der phonematisch-sprechmotorischen Differenzierung unbedingt notwendig, wenn die Handlung /das Lesen und Schreiben des Wortes "Schule"/ erfolgreich /richtig/ sein soll. Diese Differenzierungsgenauigkeit für den neuen Typ der Tätigkeit wird in der vorausge-

gangenen Zone des Lernens weitestgehend erworben /siehe Tabelle 1/.

Im Anfangsunterricht also wird oft erst bemerkt, ob das im Vorschulalter erreichte Differenzierungsniveau ausreicht, um in der entsprechenden Zeit und Präzision die unterschiedlichen Strukturelemente der Sprache auch in ihren feineren Modalitäten sensomotorisch zu beherrschen. Unsere entwicklungspsychologischen Analysen lassen vermuten, dass die Mehrzahl der Kinder zwischen dem 5. und 7. Lebensjahr das für den Erwerb der Schriftsprache notwendige Niveau der Differenzierungsfähigkeit ohne spezielle pädagogische Massnahmen in der normalen sprachlichbegleiteten Tätigkeit erreicht. In dieser Phase einer optimalen Ausformung der genannten Funktionen bestehen auch die günstigsten Möglichkeiten zur gezielten Förderung. Der pädagogische Effekt ist hier weit günstiger als der beim Nachvollzug in der Schule. Da im Vorschulalter die Förderung im Spiel und ohne zensurenbedingte negative Sanktionen geschieht, fehlen hier noch alle belastenden Erlebnisse. Im Gegenteil, den Kindern macht ein Training zu diesem Zeitpunkt grosse Freude.

Ein diagnostisches Verfahren zur Erfassung sensomotorischer Voraussetzungen für den Erwerb der Schriftsprache muss demnach zwischen dem 5. und 7. Lebensjahr einen Zeitpunkt für die Diagnose wählen, der einerseits geeignet ist, dass sich bis dahin ein relativ hohes Differenzierungsniveau ausformt, andererseits aber auch noch Spielraum für spezielle Fördermassnahmen offenlässt.

Ein diagnostisches Verfahren muss deshalb

a/ auf diejenigen Kinder aufmerksam machen, die in der Ausfor-



mung ihrer Differenzierungsfähigkeit hinter der Norm zurückgeblieben sind;

b/ aus dieser Gruppe der auffälligen Kinder jene herausfinden, bei denen der Prozess der Qualifizierung der Differenzierungsfähigkeit unter den normalen pädagogischen Bedingungen zu langsam erfolgt, ohne erwartete Fortschritte bleibt.

Soll ein diagnostisches Verfahren diese Siebfunktion erfüllen, müssen praktisch alle Vorschulkinder überprüft werden können, zumal im Vorschulalter unter den sogenannten unauffälligen Kindern solche mit gehäuften Differenzierungsmängeln anzutreffen sind. Das wiederum setzt voraus:

- Das Verfahren muss handhabbar für eine normalausgebildete Kindergärtnerin bzw. Unterstufenlehrerin sein /letztere kann Untersuchung in den Spiel- und Lernnachmittagen durchführen/;
- Die Durchführung der Überprüfung darf keinen besonderen zeitlichen und materiellen Aufwand erfordern und
- muss sich ohne jede Störung in den Spielalltag der Kinder einbauen lassen.

Diese Bedingungen wurden bei der Konstruktion der Differenzierungsprobe konsequent beachtet. Ihre Durchführung beansprucht je Kind etwa 20 Minuten, die Untersuchungsmaterialien sind anspruchslos, jede Kindergärtnerin vermag entsprechend der Instruktion die Untersuchung durchzuführen und die Ergebnisse selbständig für ihre Arbeit auszuwerten.

Zur weiteren Kennzeichnung des diagnostischen Anliegens seien einige empirische Befunde mitgeteilt und interpretiert.

1. Um zu erfahren, mit welcher Sicherheit Vorschulkinder ein

Jahr vor Schulbeginn die für die Aneignung der Schriftsprache erforderlichen Differenzierungsleistungen innerhalb der genannten Wahrnehmungsbereiche vollziehen können, wurden sie im letzten Vorschuljahr zweimal /Oktober/November und April/Mai/ überprüft. Die nachfolgende Tabelle gibt einen Überblick, wieviel Kinder die geforderten Gütekriterien in ihrer Differenzierungsleistung erreichten:

Tabelle 1

Häufigkeit von Differenzierungsmängeln bei  
Vorschulkindern /n = 200; Alter 5,6 - 6,5/\*

\* Die Werte stammen aus einer noch unveröffentlichten Unter-

	Anzahl der Bereiche, in denen Fehlleistungen auftraten					
	0	1	2	3	4	5
Erkundungs- untersuchung	20 /10%/	44 /22%/	52 /26%/	41 /20,5%/	31 /15,5%/	12 /6%/
Kontroll- untersuchung	35 /17,5%/	80 /40%/	55 /27,5%/	18 /9%/	5 /2,5%/	7 /3,5%/

Die durchschnittliche Anzahl der Fehlleistungen beträgt zum Zeitpunkt der Erkundungsuntersuchung 2,3 d.h. die Vorschulkinder besitzen 1 Jahr vor Schuleintritt in fast drei der untersuchten 5 Wahrnehmungsbereiche, die für die Aneignung der Schriftsprache erforderliche Sicherheit. Die kritische Fehlergrenze liegt zwischen zwei und drei Fehlern. Bei Ausfällen in zwei Bereichen ist in diesem Alter eine relativ günstige Prognose zu stellen, bei 3 Fehlern beginnt die Prognose unsicher zu werden, denn etwa die Hälfte der Kinder /46,3 %/ erreicht bei der Kontrolluntersuchung ein gutes Differenzierungsniveau

/o bis 1 Fehler/. Weniger unsicher ist die Prognose bei jenen Kindern, die zum Zeitpunkt der Erkundungsuntersuchung in 4 Bereichen Ausfälle zeigen. Ein gutes Niveau zum Zeitpunkt der Kontrolluntersuchung erreichen davon nur noch 19,3 % der Kinder. Eine relativ deutliche Verbesserung liegt vor, wenn in der Erkundungsuntersuchung 4 oder 5 Fehler, in der Kontrolluntersuchung aber nur noch in 2 Bereichen Fehlleistungen auftreten. Diese Verbesserung erreichen immerhin 34,9 % der Kinder. Da zum Zeitpunkt der Kontrolluntersuchung Ausfälle in 2 Bereichen unter der Norm liegen /die durchschnittliche Fehlerzahl in der Kontrolluntersuchung beträgt 1,5/, verdienen diese Kinder pädagogische Aufmerksamkeit.

Damit verschiebt sich die kritische Fehlergrenze vom Zeitpunkt Oktober/November bis zum Zeitpunkt April/Mai von 2,3 auf 1,5. Während also nach der Erkundungsuntersuchung Kinder mit 4 und 5 Ausfällen als Problemkinder anzusprechen sind /das sind 21,5 %/, gilt das nach der Kontrolluntersuchung für alle Kinder, die 3 und mehr Ausfälle aufweisen. Das sind 15 %. Diese Zahlenangaben sind nicht identisch mit der Zahl derjenigen Kinder, die massive Schwierigkeiten beim Erwerb der Schriftsprache haben werden, da Kinder mit einer nachweisbaren Tendenz der Verbesserung ihrer Differenzierungsfähigkeit nachträglich festgestellt wurden. Das betraf etwa ein Drittel der Kinder. Praktisch würde diese "Unsicherheit" bedeuten, dass seitens der Kindergärtnerin einige wenige Kinder unnötig in eine spezielle Förderung einbezogen würden. Das erscheint uns im Interesse des pädagogischen Anliegens kein Fehler zu sein. Ein Extremgruppenvergleich mag das unterstreichen.

Tabelle 2

Beziehungen zwischen Differenzierungsniveau  
/zum Zeitpunkt der Kontrolluntersuchung/ und  
Schulleistungen am Ende des ersten Schuljahres  
in Lesen und Rechtschreibung /n=85/

	Schulleistung		
	sehr gut	- gut	mangelhaft
Ergebnisse der Differen- zierungsprobe	0-1 Fehler	68 /94,5%/	4 /5,5 %/
/Kontroll- untersuchung/	4-5 Fehler	3 /23,1%/	10 /76,9%/

Für die Gesamtpopulation wurde folgender Zusammenhang zwischen dem Differenzierungsniveau zum Zeitpunkt der Kontrolluntersuchung und dem Schulerfolg ermittelt:

Tabelle 3

Differenzierungsniveau und Schulerfolg  
/Rechtschreibung, Lesen, Mathematik/

	Z e n s u r				
	1	2	3	4	5
0-1 Fehler /n = 106/• 3	73	184	57	4	-
2-3 Fehler /n = 64/• 3	12	48	66	45	21
4-5 Fehler /n = 38/• 3	4	18	28	31	33

Der statistische Zusammenhang ist mit  $X^2$  kleiner 0,01 hochsignifikant der Kontingentskoeffizient ist grösser als + 0,7.

2. Mit dem Nachweis von Zusammenhängen zwischen Differenzierungsniveau vor Schuleintritt und Schulerfolg ist die Frage nach den Möglichkeiten eines prophylaktisch orientierten Differenzierungstrainings aufgeworfen.

Da ein gesondertes Training immer nur in solchen Fällen durchgeführt wird, in denen mehrere Wahrnehmungsbereiche an den Fehlleistungen beteiligt sind, erhält das Problem von Ausfallkombinationen besonders Gewicht. Es lässt sich nämlich nachweisen, dass bei gehäuften Ausfällen bestimmte Kombinationen bevorzugt auftreten, andere Kombinationsmöglichkeiten sind dagegen selten. Bei Schülern zum Beispiel mit massiven Schwierigkeiten beim Erwerb der Schriftsprache wurden folgende Kombinationen ermittelt:

Ausfälle in 2 Bereichen:

/ n = 25 /

<u>Kombinationen</u>	<u>% der Fälle</u>
kinästhetisch-phonematisch	72 %
kinästhetisch-rhythmisch	8 %
phonematisch - optisch	8 %
kinästhetisch- optisch	4 %
phonematisch-rhythmisch	4 %
melodisch - rhythmisch	4 %

Ausfälle in 3 Bereichen

/ n = 28 /

<u>Kombinationen</u>	<u>% der Fälle</u>
phonematisch-kinästhetisch-rhythmisch	39 %
phonematisch-kinästhetisch-optisch	36 %
phonematisch-kinästhetisch-melodisch	7,1%
phonematisch-rhythmisch-melodisch	7,1%
kinästhetisch-rhythmisch-melodisch	3,6%
kinästhetisch-rhythmisch-optisch	3,6%
phonematisch-rhythmisch-optisch	3,6%

Ausfälle in 4 Bereichen

/ n = 24 /

phonematisch-kinästhetisch-rhythmisch- melodisch	46 %
phonematisch-rhythm.-optisch-kinästetisch	38 %
phonematisch-rhythm.-optisch-melodisch	8 %
phonematisch-kinästh.-optisch-melodisch	8 %

Wie hier bei den Schülern mit massiven Schwierigkeiten /bei normaler Intelligenz/ im Lesen und Schreiben, so lassen sich auch bei Vorschulkindern bevorzugte Kombinationen aussondern. Diese Kombinationsanalyse ist auch theoretisch sehr aufschlussreich, weil auf diese Weise die neurophysiologische Verankerung des Sensomotorischen angedeutet wird. Mit der unterschiedlichen Verankerung hängt zunächst zusammen, dass die von uns erfassten Wahrnehmungsbereiche nicht in gleicher Weise trainierbar sind. Der Lernfortschritt ist bei gleichem pädagogischem Aufwand verschieden, so dass über eine Kombinationsanalyse auch prognostische Aussagen differenzierter erfolgen können.

Die ungleichmässige Verteilung möglicher Kombinationen, dass heisst die Konzentrierung bestimmter Varianten der Kombination von Fehlleistungen besitzt grösste Bedeutung für die Therapie, weil damit auch Kompensationsleistungen innerhalb der Sensorik angedeutet werden.

Aus der logopädischen Praxis wissen wir zum Beispiel, dass ein phonematisches Training auch immer sprechkinästhetische Verbesserungen bewirkt. Das hängt mit der einfachen Tatsache zusammen, dass phonematisches Training immer komplexes Sprechtraining darstellt. Das drückt sich in Transferwirkungen so aus, dass mit der Anbildung eines bestimmten Lautes der nächste anzubildende Laut bei weitem nicht die Übungsintensität beansprucht, wie das bei der ersten Korrektur nötig war.

Die entwicklungspsychologische Bedeutung elementarer sensomotorischer Leistungen wird besonders unterstrichen, wenn man die Untersuchungsergebnisse der Vorschulkinder mit den Untersuchungsergebnissen von 7 - bis 10-jährigen Schülern der 1., 2.,

und 3. Klasse der POS beziehungsweise mit den Ergebnissen gleichaltriger Schüler mit besonderen Schwierigkeiten beim Erwerb der Schriftsprache vergleicht.

Da der Erwerb der Schriftsprache einerseits ein bestimmtes Differenzierungsniveau unabdingbar voraussetzt, andererseits die Differenzierungsfähigkeit /bezogen auf die mit der Laut- und Schriftsprache geforderten Besonderheiten und Qualitäten/ ständig weiter vervollkommenet, müssten Schüler, bei denen im Schulalter immer noch Differenzierungsmängel nachzuweisen sind, auch schlechtere Zensuren in den Fächern Lesen und Rechtschreibung /wegen der generellen Bedeutung der Differenzierungsfähigkeit für höhere geistige Prozesse und für Sprache und Denken überhaupt auch in anderen Unterrichtsfächern/ erreichen. Um diese Frage beantworten zu können, wurden 274 unausgewählte Kinder im Alter von 8 - 10 Jahren aus den Klassen 1 bis 3 der POS mit der Differenzierungsprobe für Vorschulkinder überprüft und mit einer gleichaltrigen Gruppe von Schülern mit massiven Schwierigkeiten beim Erwerb der Schriftsprache verglichen.

Die nachfolgende Tabelle 4 gibt Auskunft darüber, wieviel Kinder in wieviel Wahrnehmungsbereichen Ausfälle zeigen.

Tabelle 4

Häufigkeit von Differenzierungsmängeln bei Schülern der POS /Klassen 1 - 3/

Anzahl der Bereiche, in denen Fehlleistungen auftreten		Anzahl der Bereiche					
		0	1	2	3	4	5
Alter							
7,0 - 10,0	222	37	11	4	-	-	
n = 274	/81,4 %/	/13,1 %/	/4,0 %/	/1,5 %/			



Die Verbesserung der Differenzierungsfähigkeit gegenüber den Vorschulkindern ist deutlich. Die durchschnittliche Fehlerzahl beträgt nur noch 0,26; extreme Ausfälle kommen nicht mehr vor. Vergleicht man jedoch die Durchschnittszensuren der Schüler mit 0 Ausfällen mit denen derjenigen Schüler, die immer noch Differenzierungsmängel besitzen, dann bestätigt sich unsere Vermutung über den Zusammenhang von Differenzierungsniveau und Schulerfolg /siehe Tabelle 5/.

Tabelle 5

Durchschnittszensur in den Fächern

	Rechtschreibung	Lesen	Mathematik
Schüler mit 0 Fehlleistungen /n = 222/	1,8	1,8	1,8
1 - 3 Fehlleistungen /n = 52/	2,6	2,6	2,4
2 und 3 Fehlleistungen /n = 15/	3,4	3,3	2,9

Dieser signifikante Unterschied in den Durchschnittszensuren bestätigt die Indikatorfunktion der Differenzierungsleistung für den Schulerfolg. Interessant ist dabei, dass sich die Beziehung im Fach Mathematik zwar ebenfalls deutlich nachweisen lässt, in Rechtschreibung und Lesen aber noch klarer durchsetzt. Dieser Unterschied in der Beziehung hängt mit den Items der "Differenzierungsprobe" zusammen, die in erster Linie Basisfunktionen der Sprache ansprechen. Durch den Zusammenhang von Sprache und Denken wirken sich Unzulänglichkeiten in diesen Basisfunktionen zwangsläufig hindernd auch im Mathematikunterricht aus.

Natürlich ist für eine Differentialdiagnose wichtig, in welchen Wahrnehmungsbereichen Mängel in der Differenzierungsleistung auftreten. Darüber gibt die Tabelle 6 Auskunft.

Tabelle 6

Anzahl der Schüler, die in den einzelnen Wahrnehmungsbereichen Fehlleistungen aufweisen

n = 274  
Alter 7,0 -  
10,0

phonen.	optische	kinästh.	melodisch	rhythmisch
14	8	18	9	22
/5,1 %/	/2,9 %/	/6,6 %/	/3,3 %/	/8,0 %/

Die Fehlleistungen verteilen sich relativ gleichmässig auf die einzelnen Wahrnehmungsbereiche, wobei die Häufigkeit vor allem im rhythmischen, kinästhetischen und phonematischen Bereich bemerkenswert erscheint. Diese diagnostische Aufgliederung liefert Hinweise für die Erarbeitung von Förderprogrammen, in denen Kompensationsbeziehungen komplex berücksichtigt werden.

Der bei Normalschülern festgestellte Zusammenhang zwischen Differenzierungsniveau und Schulerfolg tritt besonders deutlich bei solchen Schülern hervor, die auf Grund massiver Schwierigkeiten beim Erwerb der Schriftsprache für die Aufnahme in Sonderklassen für sogenannte LRS-Kinder vorgeschlagen wurde. Die Kinder wurden aus verschiedenen Schulen der Stadt Rostock in der Sprachheilschule vorgestellt und in einem gründlichen Aufnahmeverfahren /auch mit der "Differenzierungsprobe"/ überprüft. Uns liegen die Unterlagen von insgesamt 91 Schülern im Alter von 7,10 bis 11,2 Jahren für den Ver-

gleich mit der Normalpopulation zur Auswertung vor.\*

Tabelle 7

Häufigkeit von Differenzierungsmängeln bei Schülern, bei denen LRS vermutet wurde

Anzahl der Bereiche, in denen Fehlleistungen auftreten					
0	1	2	3	4	5
n = 91	9	24	29	24	5
/0,0 %/	/9,9 %/	/26,4 %/	/31,9 %/	/26,4 %/	/5,4 %/

Zunächst fällt auf, dass alle diese Schüler mehr oder weniger häufige Unsicherheiten in der Differenzierungsleistung zeigen. Ihr durchschnittliches Differenzierungsniveau beträgt 2,9. Es ist damit schwächer als das der wesentlich jüngeren Vorschulkinder /2,2/ und signifikant schwächer als der gleichaltrigen Schüler einer unausgewählten Population /0,26/. Ein Vergleich der Durchschnittszensuren kann entfallen, da diese Schüler wegen ihrer extrem schwachen Leistungen in Lesen und Rechtschreibung zur Aufnahme in die sogenannten LRS-Klassen ausgewählt wurden.

Differentialdiagnostisch ist bei diesen Schülern von grossem Interesse, in welchen Wahrnehmungsbereichen die Ausfälle auftreten. Darüber gibt die folgende Tabelle Auskunft.

\* Frau Oberlehrer I. Below stellte uns freundlicherweise die Untersuchungsprotokolle zur Verfügung.

Tabelle 8

Anzahl der Schüler mit massiven Schwierigkeiten beim Erwerb der Schriftsprache, die in den einzelnen Wahrnehmungsbereichen Fehlleistungen aufweisen

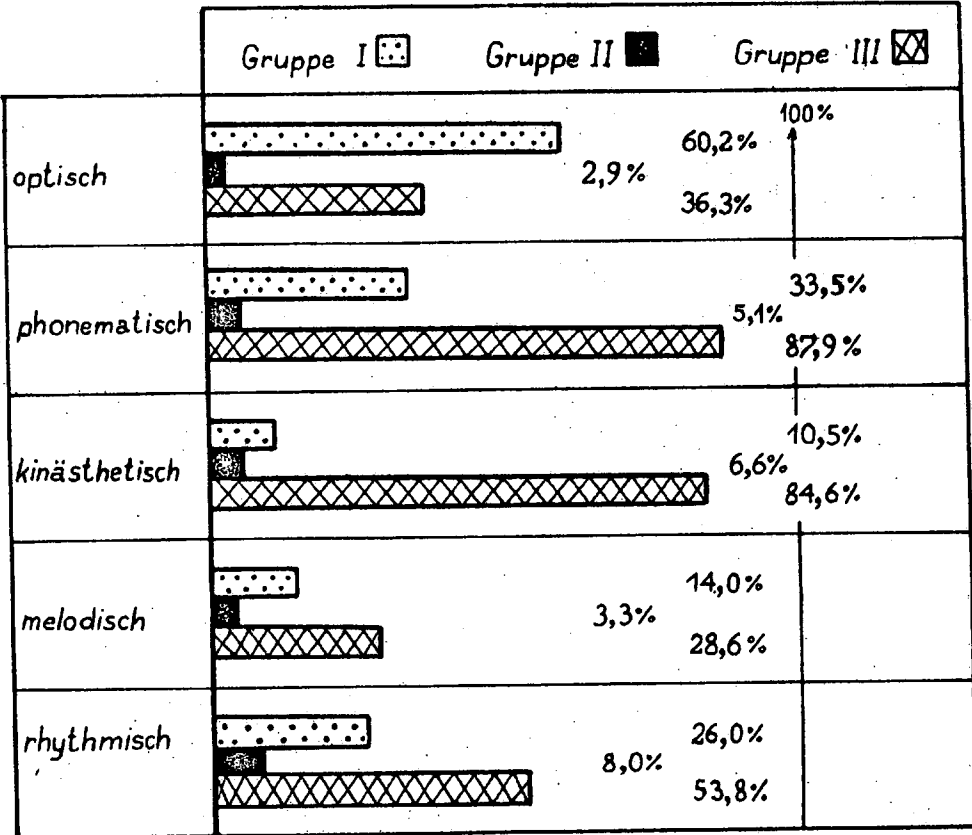
n= 91  
Alter 7  
10-11,2

phonem.	optisch	kinästh.	melodisch	rhythmisch
80 /87,9 %/	33 /36,3 %/	77 /84,6 %/	26 /28,6 %/	49 /53,8 %/

Zur besseren Veranschaulichung der Unterschiede zwischen den Vergleichsgruppen /Gruppe I: Vorschulkinder, älteste Gruppe, unausgewählt, Gruppe II: Schüler der POS, unausgewählt; Gruppe III: Schüler der POS, ausgewählt nach dem Merkmal "massive Schwierigkeiten beim Erwerb der Schriftsprache"/ dient die folgende Übersicht in Tabelle 9.

Tabelle 9

Vergleich der Gruppen I, II, III hinsichtlich des Anteils von Fehlleistungen in den untersuchten Wahrnehmungsbereichen



Kinder, bei denen LRS vermutet wird, haben insgesamt gehäufte Fehlleistungen in allen untersuchten Wahrnehmungsbereichen gegenüber den Gleichaltrigen in der Normalschule. Bemerkenswert ist der massive Ausfall bei fast allen diesen Kindern im Phonematischen und Kinästhetischen. Auf die mangelhafte phonematisch-kinästhetische Differenzierungsfähigkeit wird in der LRS-Literatur immer wieder hingewiesen /BECKER 1967, KOSSAKOWSKI 1961, KOSSOW 1972, KLUGE 1967 u.a./. Auf die Mitbeteiligung anderer sensomotorischer Grundleistungen wird in der Literatur nur am Rande verwiesen. STEINKOPF /1969/ hebt in einer sehr interessanten Analyse von LRS-Kindern den Ensemblecharakter der für den Erwerb der Schriftsprache vorauszusetzenden sensomotorischen Leistungen hervor. Sie macht besonders auf die Bedeutung des Rhythmusgefühls, des Gefühls für Takt und Tempo, sowie auf die optisch-räumliche und akustisch-agnostische Komponente aufmerksam.

Im Unterschied zur diagnostizierten Dominanz phonematisch - kinästhetischer Mängel bei LRS-Schülern deutet sich bei etwa gleichaltrigen Hilfsschülern folgendes an:<sup>3</sup> im optischen, phonematischen und kinästhetischen Wahrnehmungsbereich liegen die Fehlerzahlen unter denen der LRS-Schüler, die Ausfälle im melodischen und rhythmischen Bereich liegen dagegen über den Fehlerquoten der LRS-Schüler. Es ist zu prüfen, ob diese Tendenzen zufällig sind, bzw. ob es sich um defektspezifische Kennzeichen handelt.

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\* Diese Untersuchungen führte Frau F. Gentes, Sonderschulpädagogin, durch.

Das unerwartet bessere Ergebnis in einigen sensomotorischen Voraussetzungen bei Hilfsschülern im Vergleich zu jenen Schülern, bei denen LRS vermutet wurde, wirft eine Reihe von Fragen auf. Die Gruppe III ist leider keiner speziellen Intelligenzdiagnose unterzogen worden. Das Urteil über ihr intellektuelles Niveau stützt sich auf Angaben der unterrichtenden Lehrer. Zur Auswahl für eine Aufnahme in LRS-Klassen wurden Schüler vorgeschlagen, die in Lesen und Rechtschreibung versagten, in den übrigen Fächern aber gute bis befriedigende Lesitungen aufwiesen. Dabei ist allerdings zu vermerken, dass ein grosser Teil von ihnen die erste oder zweite Klasse wiederholt hatte beziehungsweise später eingeschult worden war. Damit sind für eine präzise LRS-Diagnose manche Probleme verbunden. Unabhängig davon erscheint uns der Unterschied zwischen beiden Gruppen bemerkenswert. Unter Umständen liegt die angedeutete defektspezifische Symptomatik in Unterschieden der Bedingtheit beider Defekte begründet. Das könnte einmal mit Besonderheiten in den Beziehungen zwischen der sensorischen und semantischen Ebene zusammenhängen. Wenn der primäre Ausgangspunkt für isolierte Schwierigkeiten beim Erwerb der Schriftsprache /LRS/ in der sensorischen Ebene liegt, die semantische Ebene\* relativ einwandfrei funktioniert, so würde eine LRS-Therapie das sensomotorische Training besonders zu beachten haben. Eine Frühtherapie /im Vorschulalter/ würde hier naheliegen. Beim Hilfsschüler dagegen ist das Bedingungsgefüge vermutlich komplexer und differenzierter. Insgesamt liegt das Niveau der Differenzierungsfähigkeit - wie

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\* Das ist jene Ebene, die den inhaltlichen, begrifflichen Reichtum, den Umfang und die Genauigkeit des Wortschatzes und vor allem das Niveau der Denkstrategien umfasst.

bei den LRS-Schülern - weit unter dem der Normalschüler. Die höhere Ausfallquote im melodischen und rhythmischen Bereich bei Hilfsschülern gegenüber den Schülern, bei denen LRS vermutet wurde, könnte mit der physiologischen Grundlage dieser Bereiche zusammenhängen. Für eine defektspezifische Unterscheidung von Schwachsinn und LRS im Vorschulalter könnten die beschriebenen Sachverhalte eine gewisse Rolle spielen. In Verbindung mit einer Intelligenzdiagnose dürften differenzierte Analysen der einzelnen Wahrnehmungsbereiche für eine Abgrenzung nützlich sein. Vom Wesen her steht eine LRS als partielle sensomotorische Störung anderen Sinnesschädigungen /Schwerhörigkeit, Sehschwäche/ weit näher als dem Schwachsinn. Unseres Erachtens ist eine weitere Klärung der Beziehungen zwischen der sensorischen und semantischen Ebene unbedingt notwendig, vor allem auch unter dem Gesichtspunkt, wie über die semantische Ebene eine Qualifizierung der sensorischen Ebene erreicht wird /ANANJEW 1963/. Ausserdem ist für eine bessere Abgrenzung der Einsatz standardisierter Intelligenzprüfverfahren erforderlich.



3. Mangelnde sensomotorische Differenzierungsfähigkeit kann teil oder global\* und mit unterschiedlicher Intensität auftreten.

Eine partielle Schädigung liegt dann vor, wenn von der Behinderung vor Schuleintritt 1 bis 2 Bereiche betroffen sind. Dabei kann die Behinderung innerhalb der Bereiche unterschiedlich intensiv sein. Von einer globalen Differenzierungsschwäche ist dann zu sprechen, wenn 4 - 5 Wahrnehmungsbereiche Rückstände aufweisen und der Lernfortschritt zwischen der Erkundungsuntersuchung und Kontrolluntersuchung unbedeutend ist. Die Zuordnung der Gruppe mit 3 Ausfällen erfolgt in ähnlicher Weise. Wird zwischen der EU und der KU kein Fortschritt nachgewiesen, muss eine globale Differenzierungsschwäche angenommen werden. Typisch für Differenzierungsschwächen globaler Art ist offensichtlich, dass in diesen Fällen Kompensationen nicht zustandekommen. Die Folgen davon sind Behinderungen beim Erwerb der Schriftsprache, manchmal auch generell für die geistige Entwicklung, weil die Gesamtstruktur der Sensomotorik Defekte aufweist. Für Schwierigkeiten beim Erwerb der Schriftsprache im Sinne einer partiellen Lese-Rechtschreibschwäche ist das Vorhandensein einer globalen Differenzierungsschwäche bei der inneren Verarbeitung äusserer Reize auszuschliessen. Mit der Diagnose einer globalen Differenzierungsschwäche innerhalb der

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\* Global ist hier im Sinne von ausgeweitet gemeint, 4-5 Wahrnehmungsbereiche umfassend; im Unterschied dazu würde eine totale beziehungsweise global-intensive Differenzierungsschwäche eine Ausformung kognitiver Leistungen generell behindern.

sensomotorischen Grundlagen für den Spracherwerb und die Denkentwicklung wird die Möglichkeit einer erfolgreicher pädagogischen Beeinflussung nicht ausgeschlossen. Vielmehr betrachten wir eine eindeutige Diagnose als notwendige Voraussetzung für eine gezielte pädagogische Förderung. Eine partielle bzw. mehr oder weniger globale Differenzierungsschwäche kann sicher auch Bereiche erfassen, die wir mit der Differenzierungsprobe nicht prüfen, wie zum Beispiel die Raumlage - oder taktile Differenzierungsfähigkeit. Ausserdem sind mnestiche Fähigkeiten auf allen Ebenen - sicher auch auf der elementaren sensomotorischen Ebene - an der Differenzierungsleistung mitbeteiligt.

Zur Bedeutung der Raum-Lage-Differenzierung im Zusammenhang mit dem Erwerb der Schriftsprache sind Untersuchungen in unserer Forschungsgruppe begonnen worden. Zur Frage der mnesticen Voraussetzungen vertreten wir gegenwärtig noch folgende Auffassung: Das Versagen bei einer Aufgabe kann sowohl durch sensomotorische Unzulänglichkeiten als auch durch Mängel im Kurzzeitspeicher bedingt sein. Es müsste geprüft werden, ob Kinder, die bei den Rhythmusaufgaben versagen, in ihren mnesticen Leistungen retardiert sind. WEUFFEN /1969/ fand bei Agrammatikern fast immer Ausfälle im rhythmischen Bereich, die mit den mnesticen Ausfällen der Agrammatiker korrelierten. Daraus ergibt sich eine wichtige Forderung für den Aufbau von Trainingsprogrammen. Sie müssen beachten, dass während der Übungen die Kinder ihr Tun ständig sprachlich formulieren oder begleiten, weil von der semantischen Genauigkeit die Entwicklung der sensomotorischen Differenzierungsfähigkeit ebenfalls abhängt.

Untersuchungen an normalen Vorschulkindern. Vergleiche ihrer Differenzierungsfähigkeit kurz vor Schuleintritt mit ihren Zensuren in Lesen und Rechtschreibung, deuten darauf hin, dass derartige Ausfälle kompensierbar sind, sich zumindest nicht in geminderter Schulleistung nachweise lassen. Wir verweisen darauf, dass wir diesen "kritischen" Wert bereits beschrieben haben.

4. Eine LRS-Diagnose müsste deshalb in erster Linie den Nachweis erbringen, dass die im Anfangsunterricht auftretenden Lernschwierigkeiten auf partiellen Schwierigkeiten beim Erwerb der Schriftsprache beruhen /Differenzierungsmängel, Schwächen im Sprachgedächtnis usw./ und nicht mit einer allgemeinen Leistungsschwäche zusammenhängen. Kompliziert ist diese Diagnose auch deshalb, weil eine partielle, ursprünglich nur für den Erwerb der Schriftsprache zuständige Schwäche später auch Sekundärsymptome in Form eines allgemeinen Schulversagens bewirken kann. Von LRS wäre dann nicht zu sprechen, wenn als Ursachen für Lernschwierigkeiten entweder globale Mängel der sensomotorischen oder höheren geistigen Fähigkeiten beziehungsweise motivationale Bedingungen verantwortlich zu machen sind. Dafür reicht allerdings eine Untersuchung mit der Differenzierungsprobe nicht aus. Sie liefert lediglich Hinweise für den methodologischen Ansatz und müsste durch andere Items hinsichtlich ihrer Trennschärfe erweitert werden, um gegebenenfalls eine spätere LRS prophylaktisch diagnostizieren und pädagogisch behandeln zu können.

Allerdings werden mittels der "Differenzierungsprobe" im Vorschulalter spätere LRS-Schüler als auffällig erfasst. Ihre Einbeziehung in das Differenzierungstraining im Vorschulalter dürfte für sie sehr nützlich sein.

5. In der Fachliteratur werden einzelne Wahrnehmungsbereiche als Ursachen für LRS stark betont. Das hängt sicher mit der Tatsache zusammen, dass Differenzierungsschwächen in einem Bereich häufig bevorzugt mit Schwächen in anderen Bereichen korrespondieren. Der Stellenwert einzelner Schwächen kann sich im Verlaufe der individuellen Entwicklung und in Abhängigkeit pädagogischer Einwirkungen /wenn diese bevorzugt auf die Korrektur einer Differenzierungsschwäche ausgerichtet ist/ verändern. Als Musterbeispiel dafür sei die optische Differenzierungsschwäche genannt. Bei Kindergartenkindern tritt sie in Abhängigkeit der pädagogischen Arbeit seltener auf als bei Kindern, die keinen Kindergarten besuchen. Im Vorschulalter besitzt demnach eine optische Differenzierungsschwäche nur einen geringen Indikationswert für den Gesamtzustand der Sensomotorik. Im Schulalter wiederum tritt sie seltener isoliert auf. Ihre Indikationsfunktion für den Gesamtzustand der Sensomotorik ist dann höher. Fast immer können dann auch Schwächen in anderen Bereichen /meist in mehreren/ nachgewiesen werden. Ausfälle sind also von unterschiedlichem Gewicht in Abhängigkeit davon, in welchem Alter sie /noch/ auftreten. Eine optische Differenzierungsschwäche zum Beispiel vor Schulbeginn /ermittelt mit der Differenzierungsprobe/ ist anders zu werten als die qualitativ gleichartige Schwäche nach einjährigem Schulbesuch. Damit sind viele komplizierte diagnostische

Probleme verbunden.

Für die Kindergärtnerin ergeben sich daraus keine Schwierigkeiten. Wenn einige wenige Kinder unnötig in eine spezielle pädagogische Förderung einbezogen werden, dann entsteht ihnen dadurch keinerlei Nachteil.

6. Das eigentliche Anliegen von Untersuchungen zur sensomotorischen Organisation im Vorschulalter, einschliesslich der konditionalgenetischen Analyse des LRS-Syndroms besteht darin, den betreffenden Kindern zu helfen, die Anforderungen in der Schule erfolgreicher zu erfüllen. Neben vielen anderen Wegen dürfte der über eine prophylaktisch orientierte pädagogische Beeinflussung auf der Grundlage von Frühdiagnosen besonders effektiv sein. Wir wollen deshalb zu der grundsätzlichen Frage, ob Differenzierungsschwächen beeinflussbar sind und ob damit die Voraussetzungen für den Erwerb der Schriftsprache günstiger gestaltet werden können, einige Beispiele aus unseren Untersuchungen anführen:

Von einer Förderung der Differenzierungsfähigkeit bei Vorschulkindern kann man dann sprechen, wenn ihre Tätigkeit, ihr Spiel, inhaltlich und organisatorisch auf die bewusste Beachtung sinnlich wahrnehmbarer Sachverhalte und ihrer Modalitäten /Unterschiede der Form, Farbe, Bewegung, Geräusche, Zeitabstände, Raumlage, Töne und Laute, Ton- und Lautfolgen usw./ gerichtet ist. Auf diese Weise werden immer feinere Modalitäten erkannt und im Handeln berücksichtigt. Zwingt die Tätigkeit nicht im erforderlichen Masse zur Modalitätsbeachtung, dann kann sich diese Differenzierungsfähigkeit

nicht entsprechend ausbilden. Gleichzeitig kommt es noch auf zwei andere Gesichtspunkte bei der Entwicklung von Förderprogrammen an. Da die Ergebnisse der sensorischen und motorischen Prozesse einerseits das Material für die semantische Verschlüsselung und Entschlüsselung von Signalen liefern /ALBRECHT 1967/, andererseits von der Reichhaltigkeit und begrifflichen Exaktheit des Wortschatzes abhängen /ANANJEW 1969/, ist bei bestimmten Sinnesübungen die sprachliche Kommentierung des Tuns /als sprachliche Formulierung des praktischen Tuns, als sprachliche Begleitung usw./ das wesentlichste an der Förderung. Nur dann wird der Übergang von der sensorischen /erstes Signalsystem/ zur semantischen /zweiten Signalsystem/. Ebene zielstrebig gefördert. Die Bedeutung der Sprachentwicklung für die Präzision der Wahrnehmungen wird häufig unterschätzt. Im Prozess der Förderung kommt es ausserdem immer darauf an, dass die Kinder die Genauigkeit ihrer Wahrnehmungen und sprachlichen Leistungen permanent kontrollieren, ohne dass sich die Kontrolltätigkeit verselbstständigt und zusätzlich Verunsicherungen bewirkt. Das wird nur dann erreicht, wenn die aktuellen Möglichkeiten des Kindes und die gestellten Anforderungen relativ übereinstimmen. Gleichzeitig benötigt das Kind vom Erzieher oder /noch besser/ vom Verlauf der Tätigkeit her Informationen, die es von der Qualität seiner Differenzierungsleistungen und deren sprachlichen Bewältigung in Kenntnis setzen, ohne dass es dadurch zu Entmutigungen u.ä. kommen darf. Die Grunddiktion für jede Art der Rückkopplung muss sachlich konkret, das heisst für das Kind überschaubar und die sich daran anschliessende Korrektur Forderung muss realisierbar sein. Vor tadelnden Bemerk-

kungen ist ebenso zu wahren wie vor unbegründeten Belobigungen. Auf keinen Fall ist die Leistung mit Zensuren zu bewerten.

7. Nach dem Gesetz der Einheit von Funktion und Struktur /RUBINSTEIN 1958/ wird durch die gezielte Tätigkeit die strukturelle und funktionale Voraussetzung des sensomotorischen Apparats ständig vervollkommenet. Dabei treten auch individuelle Unterschiede im Tempo und in der Qualität auf. Das hat zum Beispiel zur Folge, dass gleiche Anregungssituationen bei verschiedenen Kindern im gleichen Zeitraum zu einem unterschiedlichen Niveau der Differenzierungsfähigkeit führen /Dialektik von Lernen und Reifen/. L. und O. HOLTZ /1972/ untersuchten die Frage, ob sich eine qualitativ unterschiedliche pädagogische Förderung von Vorschulkindern auf deren Differenzierungsfähigkeit auswirkt und ob sich derart bedingte Unterschiede in der Differenzierungsfähigkeit später in der Rechtschreibung nachweisen lassen. Verglichen wurden zwei erste Klassen. Die Kinder der Klasse 1 b besuchten alle vor der Einschulung einen Kindergarten. In der pädagogischen Arbeit mit den Kindern wurde der Erziehungs- und Bildungsplan für die älteste Gruppe ausgezeichnet verwirklicht. Da die Erzieherin ausserdem ein Instrument beherrschte und für den musischen Unterricht gute Voraussetzungen besass, erhielten die Kinder viele konkrete Anregungen im melodischen, rhythmischen und optischen Wahrnehmungsbereich. Die Kinder der Klasse 1 c hatten im Vorschulalter keinen Kindergarten besucht. Eine Überprüfung der Differenzierungsfähigkeit unmittelbar vor Schuleintritt\*.

ergab für beide Gruppen signifikant unterschiedliche Ergebnisse. Die durchschnittliche Zahl der Fehlleistungen betrug bei den Kindergartenkindern 0,9, bei den anderen Kindern 1,6. Die Folgen dieser unterschiedlichen Startbedingungen innerhalb sensomotorischer Grundleistungen liessen sich besonders deutlich in der Rechtschreibung nachweisen. Die Klassenlehrer beider Klassen waren ausgebildete Unterstufenlehrer. In 3 Kontrolldiktaten\*\* am Ende der ersten Klasse erreichten die Schüler der Klasse 1 b durchschnittlich 3,4 Rechtschreibfehler, die Schüler der Klasse 1 c durchschnittlich 9,3 Rechtschreibfehler. Die Leistungen in den anderen Fächern

\* Dieser Zeitpunkt wird anstossten für den Einsatz Differenzierungsprobe nicht gewählt, weil dann Schlussfolgerungen für die pädagogische Arbeit im Vorschulalter nicht mehr zu verwirklichen sind. Der von Holtz gewählte Zeitpunkt erklärt auch die besseren Durchschnittsergebnisse.

\*\* Die Diktate wurden den Diktatbeispielen für die Klasse 1-4 entnommen und hatten folgenden Wortlaut:

1. Diktat: Auf dem Schulhof

Alle Mädchen und Jungen sind auf dem Hof. Hier können sie spielen.

2. Diktat: Junge Pioniere

Die Pioniere helfen der Mutter und dem Vater.  
In der Schule lernen sie gut.

3. Diktat: In der Schule

Alle Mädchen und Jungen sind heute in der Schule.  
Viele können schon gut lesen.



wiesen sonst keine feststellbaren Unterschiede auf, was darauf schliessen lässt, dass für die unterschiedlichen Rechtschreibleistungen nicht ohne weiteres die pädagogische Qualifikation der beiden Unterstufenlehrer verantwortlich zu machen ist. Das unterstreicht sowohl den Zusammenhang von Differenzierungsleistung und Rechtschreibung, als auch die Abhängigkeit des Differenzierungsniveaus von der Qualität der Sinneserziehung.

HOLTZ liess die gleichen Diktate auch von Hilfsschülern schreiben. Diese - obwohl fast 4 Jahre älter - erreichten in der Differenzierungsprobe den Wert 2,2, im Diktat die durchschnittliche Fehlerzahl von 24,3.

Das folgende Beispiel stammt aus der logopädischen Praxis unserer Erziehungsberatungsstelle: Das Kind Martin L. wurde im Alter von 5,11 Jahren mit multiplem Stammeln vorgestellt. Die Untersuchung mit der Differenzierungsprobe ergab Ausfälle in allen fünf Wahrnehmungsbereichen. Im ambulanten Sprachunterricht wurde zweimal wöchentlich ein gezieltes Training der Differenzierungsfähigkeit durchgeführt. Die Mutter nahm an den Übungen teil und übte in ähnlicher Weise die von der Logopädin formulierten Aufgaben zu Hause weiter. Im Alter von 6,6. Jahren bestanden nur noch Ausfälle im kinästhetischen Bereich. Parallel dazu wurde das Stammeln überwunden. In der Schule erreichte das Kind gute bis durchschnittliche Leistungen.

8. Beim Differenzierungstraining unterscheiden wir zwei Varianten. Die eine Variante bezeichnen wir als indirektes Differenzierungstraining, welches die Möglichkeiten des Erziehungs- und Bildungsplanes des Kindergartens vor allem auch hinsicht-

lich einer exakten Sinnesschulung ausnutzt. Dieses Training vollzieht sich in der Gruppen- oder Einzelbeschäftigung /auch während der Spiel- und Lernnachmittages/ und auch im Rahmen der Familienerziehung. Entscheidend ist, dass der bewussten und permanenten Beachtung von Modalitäten wahrnehmbarer Sachverhalte und beim Vollzug der Tätigkeit des Kindes ständig Aufmerksamkeit geschenkt wird. Im Unterschied dazu ist für ein direktes Differenzierungstraining ein spezielles, didaktisch geordnetes Übungsprogramm jeweils für die "Sinnesschulung" entweder eines Wahrnehmungsbereiches oder für ein Ensemble von Wahrnehmungsbereichen zu entwickeln. Von der inhaltlichen und methodischen-didaktischen Gestaltung her müsste dieses direkte Differenzierungstraining den Charakter der sonst üblichen Beschäftigungen und Tätigkeiten haben und damit weitestgehend den in der logopädischen Praxis angewandten "Sinnesübungen" im Sprachheilunterricht ähneln. Wertvolle Hinweise dazu finden wir bei BECKER /1971/. Es wäre für die Kindergärtnerinnen und auch Unterstufenlehrer sicher eine grosse Hilfe, wenn erfolgreich erprobte Trainingsprogramme für die Schulung der Differenzierungsfähigkeit in den verschiedenen Wahrnehmungsbereichen bald zur Verfügung ständen. Von grossem Nutzen können hierfür die vielfältigen Erfahrungen aus der logopädischen Arbeit mit Stammelern, Agrammatikern und Aphasikern sein.

Die frühzeitige Erfassung von Kindern mit massiven - im Alltagsverhalten nicht immer erkennbaren - Differenzierungsmängeln und ein auf die Ergebnisse der Diagnose abgestimmtes Differenzierungstraining würde zweifelsohne dem Versagen beim Erwerb der Schriftsprache in der Schule und den damit verbun-

denen Sekundärkonflikten in der Entwicklung der Kinder prophylaktisch entgegenwirken.

#### ZUSAMMENFASSUNG:

Der Verfasser ist der Meinung, dass dem Auftreten von Schwierigkeiten beim Erwerb der Schriftsprache vor allem auch prophylaktisch begegnet werden muss. Sie sehen im Niveau sensomotorischer Grundleistungen eine wichtige Voraussetzung für den hierarchischen Aufbau höherer geistiger Funktionen. Der Erwerb der Schriftsprache - als neuer Typ der Tätigkeit - wird im Vorschulalter durch die Vervollkommnung der sensomotorischen Differenzierungsfähigkeit entscheidend vorbereitet. Der Prozess der Konstituierung dieser Voraussetzungen ist pädagogisch beeinflussbar, wenn auf eine gesicherte Diagnose aufgebaut werden kann. Da im Alltagsverhalten bestimmte, für den Erwerb der Schriftsprache erforderliche Toleranzen in der Differenzierungsfähigkeit nicht erkannt werden /weil das der Typ der Tätigkeit noch nicht fordert/, ist der Einsatz standardisierter, einfach handhabbarer Methoden unerlässlich. Diese Methoden müssen auf einer differenzierten entwicklungspsychologischen und logopädischen Analyse der Vorleistungen für "Schriftsprache" beruhen. Im vorliegenden Beitrag werden theoretische Aspekte diskutiert und empirische Befunde mitgeteilt. Nach Auffassung der Autoren ist eine prophylaktisch orientierte Frühbehandlung der LRS im Vorschulalter ebenfalls möglich und notwendig.

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Диагноз условий усвоения письменной речи на раннем этапе  
с точки зрения методики и методологии

Хелмут Бреуер

По мнению авторов трудности, возникающие в усвоении письменной речи, должны трактоваться и в профилактическом плане. Авторы считают, что уровень сенсомоторных основныхпродукций является важной предпосылкой иерархического построения высших усмтвенных функций. Усвоение письменной речи как вида деятельности может быть подготовлено в дошкольном возрасте прежде всего усовершенствованием сенсомоторной дифференцирующей способности. Процесс создания этих предпосылок, если он базируется на правильном диагнозе, поддаётся педагогическому воздействию. Так как определённая выносливость дифференцирующей способности, нужная для усвоения письменной речи в поведении не познаётся / ибо этого со стороны вида деятельности ещё не требуется /, необходимым является введение стандартизированных, легко применимых методов. Эти методы должны базироваться на дифференцированном эволюционно - психологическом и логопедическом анализе предварительных продукций, нужных для письменной речи. В статье авторы обсуждают разные теоретические позиции и сообщают эмпирические данные. По концепции авторов раннее профилактическое лечение ЛРС в дошкольном возрасте возможно и необходимо.

Early Diagnosis of the Conditions of Written-  
Language Acquisition from the Methodical and  
Methodological Points of View

Helmut Breuer

According to the opinion of authors, the difficulties that occur at mastering the written language must be treated prophylactically, as well. They hold the level of the sensori-motorial basic accomplishments for an important preliminary condition of the hierarchical construction of the higher spiritual functions. The mastery of written language - as a type of activities - can be prepared, in the period before school-days, decisively by perfecting the sensori-motorial faculty of differentiation. The process creating these pre-conditions can be influenced pedagogically in so far as it is founded on a sure diagnosis. As in the everyday behaviour certain tolerances of the differentiating faculty, that are necessary for mastering the written language, are not recognized /being not demanded by the type of activity/, it is indispensably necessary to introduce standardized methods easy to manage. These methods must be founded on the differentiated psycho-evolutionary and logopaedial analysis of the previous accomplishments that are necessary for the written language. In the paper, the authors are discussing theoretical points of view and publishing empirical results. In the opinion of authors, a prophylactically oriented early treatment of LRS in the period before school-days is both possible and necessary.





PUPILS OPINION OF THEIR TEACHERS

BEHAVIOUR FORMS

Senior lecturer Dr József Veczkó



As the instructional and educational effects of "family preponderance" the social tasks of the same character in schools are increasing continuously which also lays a new duty upon schools. Colleges, our society takes care with little help of the teachers training that the teachers of primary and secondary schools prepare themselves suitable for meeting increased intellectual requirements. At the same time, however, the instruments serving a more efficient handing down of that educational knowledge are developing rather slowly. Finally, the task-complex multiplied in this way is to be tackled by the teachers who are, in addition to other things, expected by society to put new life into the above-mentioned educational material, making it an interesting personal experience for children. In the "transitory" school situation charged with the quantitatively and qualitatively increased requirements and the difficulty of their realization necessarily the teacher's person comes into prominence even more. A further cause of the teacher's getting into a social limelight is that in the period of the so-called transitory difficulties the teacher can considerably decrease, or possibly strain to the outmost, the contradiction between school and society.

Simultaneously with the formation of "school-centred education" a quick change is taking place in the "social domain" which forms the scene of human life-activity. The model of the conditions of group-homogeneity is succeeded by the models of group-multiplicity /group-diversity/ and heterogeneity. At the same time students are surrounded by the various effects of mass-communication. The problem of what group-formation and effects become in children a group of reference, or with which group-formations they get into contact, i.e. which of these gives rise to a personal commitment, interpersonal relations, or what is more, intellectual and emotional experiences of belonging there, depends on those effects of the micro-groups which correspond to the children's interests and with which they get into an intimate contact. In this period of increased effect-system it is of crucial impor-

tance for society that schools should be capable of creating a special climate /positive school-atmosphere/ among pupils, in which, by exerting influences based on mutual cooperation, they can ensure the formation of children's self regulating capacity, the development of their ego-consciousness, the regulation of their value-system, habits positive behaviour-patterns etc. In the complicated mass and system of social effects, teachers are playing a highly important role in society by bringing about a school atmosphere in which the co-operative and creative demand of pupils can be developed in connection with their social activity. Information, relation- and value-systems mainly find their way to pupils through the teachers. Teachers may determine the orientation of pupils to social values, help to turn these values into inner conviction - often even for a lifetime. The personal -human medium /teacher-student relation/ produced by them, as the group-connections developed in the groups /class, Communist Youth League, study circle, etc/ directed by them /a psycho-social factor/, contain concrete "experiences" of belonging to an ethical orientation /interest, aim of life, ideological conviction/. This selective activity can only be performed by somebody who has transformed the social-value-systems into inner experience and conviction. In that, too, the personal and human effect of the teacher has a decisive role. The teacher's conduct plays also an extremely important influencing role in turning the requirements of the microsurrroundings /external effects/ into an ego-model man of internal content, in self-realization and self-perfection /interiorization/.

Under the influence of their teachers' conduct the pupils in the group-communities controlled by themselves, already experience the outlines and content of their future social existence. It is therefore that pupils should be able to develop a relation of the best possible "coexistence" with school life. The school and inside that the teachers, should establish such personal group-conditions that these activity forms, turning into inner, personal forms, may determine the future social activity, motives, orientations, mental attitudes of the pupils, controlling in this way their later behaviour. Only in this way is it feasible to prepare every pupil for a particular social "role" which is nothing else than the absolute structure /organized at school/ of the social activity in which the given individual participating. Teachers

very well know however that the "ego" is the most difficult dimension of the personality to approach. Under the conditions of the present mass-education this causes great problems today, and it is easy to understand why it still has not been realized. It is again only the teacher's person, his positive human properties that can give this confused situation a pleasanter aspect.

The problems of the connection between school and society drawn above in outline- the increased information, the slow development of educational instruments, the multiplicity of the effects of social coexistence /group-heterogeneity/, the realization of the mutual personal connection with pupils- have become in our days extremely important. All these make the practical examination of the school-behaviour of teachers prominently important.

The method used in revealing  
the theme

The nationally representative data of our investigation were obtained by using questionnaires. Taking into consideration the confidence interval, according to a layered pattern, we had to put questions to twelve-thousand pupils. This is the numerical ratio whose data already, give us the probability that our conclusions drawn from them may be true approximately with 95 per cent security and 0.05 precision, probability level respectively. Our data have been obtained from pupils in the 5-th-8-th classes of primary schools /10-13year-olds/ and 1-st-4-th classes of secondary schools /14-18year-olds/.

In our question-series we have investigated the following groups of the behaviour-forms of teachers:

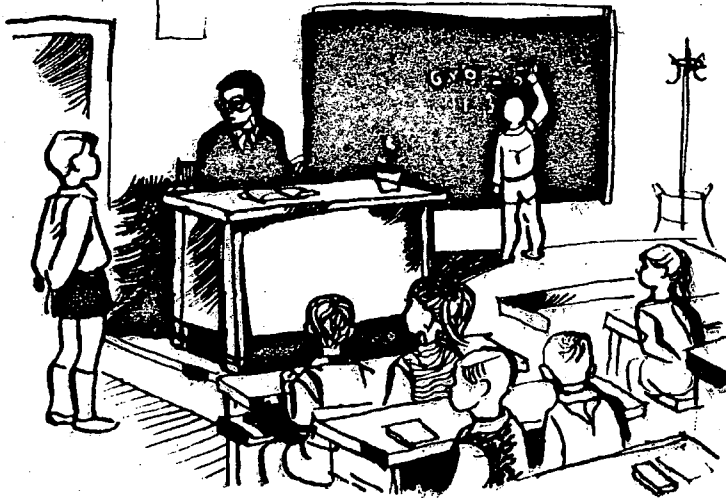
- /1/ opinions about the teacher's intellectual activity /knowledge, communicating and organizing faculty/
- /2/ manifestations of his moral conduct and character;
- /3/ conduct-forms related to his orientation;
- /4/ characteristics of the personality condition of teachers.

As in this case we have investigated how the students see their teachers that is to say, as we have attempted to establish the above properties of teachers by means of the students' observations, the questionnaires were filled in, of course, anonymously. In our paper we are trying to give answer only to the first question of

the investigation, in fact, only to a part of it.

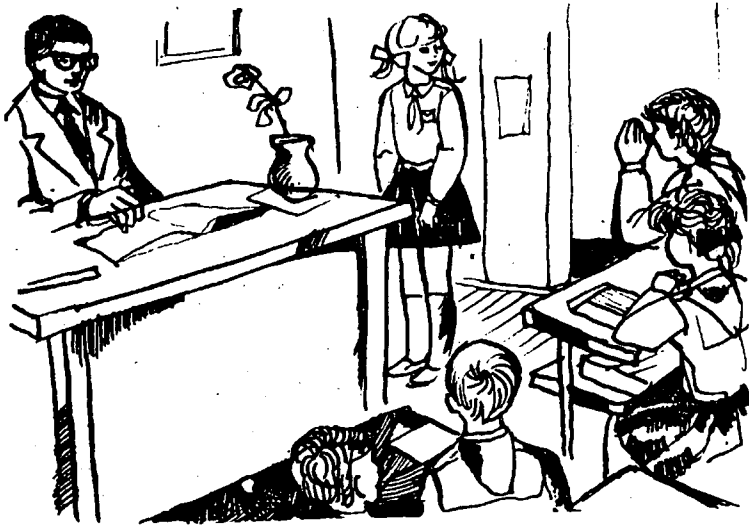
• The qualitative evaluation of the investigation- and then, within that, the exploration of its' depth- was strongly helped by the projective pictures by means of which, from class I of the general /primary/ school up to class 4 of the secondary school we had a conversation with the students..

Here two of the pictures used in our investigation:



Picture 1

A lesson of primary-school children /6-9 years old/



Picture 2

A lesson of 10-14 years old primary school children  
We are showing only two of the twelve pictures used.

These two pictures belong to a series of twelve which we used in our investigation, the rest of the series repeat the same subject varying according to the characteristics of age-groups.

In addition to what has been mentioned so far, by means of questionnaires and interviews information has been obtained from teachers as to their most frequent behaviour-forms in school-practice and whether or not they thought them suitable. We also asked them about their expectations. The questionnaire is representative for the whole country and interview for a county.

We have transformed the "votes" and personal opinions obtained with the help of the methods discussed above into point-values and data, reckoning by means of them averages, percentages, dispersion and correlation. This we can show the relative occurrence of the teachers behaviour-forms with the help of numerical data. We want to emphasise again that our investigations do not mean to display any adverse criticism of teachers. We only try to answer the question, how teachers are seen through the eyes of their pupils. We only wish to give a general survey analysis of some educational life-situations, without aiming at compliments.

Some basic theoretical problems that determine  
our scientific approach

Among other things, society preserves its structure through handing down social information by means of its various institutions, the information being coded as a specific system of signs /culture, ideology etc./ The "taking over" of the envolved material and mental activity is carried out in special organizations. For this very reason, while investigating any of the school's functions, we cannot leave out of consideration the question of concrete social totality. Consequently, the teacher also is to be considered as the bearer of the concrete social-historical development, as an individually integrated result of that, who is at the same time burdened with the conditions of the past, as well. He has, nonetheless, to regulate his activity in a way that it can become a "seed of the future". This attitude secures in the possibility that by no means - not even during the investigation - should the teacher be torn away from the social conditions of his age. More than that, it makes it possible for us to investigate him with his unavoidable contradictions. By social role those functions /normative and accepted patterns of our behavior/ are meant which can, in a concrete position, be expected of each situation and individual. Thus we consider the school as an institution of society, playing a special system of roles. The school in many respects enables the individual to recognize his own social situation /position/ and play his parts in a creative way. The same can be formulated from the view - point of teachers in the following way: teachers, as members of an institution /school/, control the socializing process of pupils under them, with the task of preparing the children for the active realization of definite social role - system. The functioning of the school is therefore determined by the system of social claims set up for it, by the material and cultural possibility at its disposal, as well as by the personal qualities of the teachers which turn all these into a living experience. We have, of course, started our investigations from the basic stand-point that teachers are to be considered as individuals having different fundamental qualities but also definite and common behaviour-forms to play their historical part well. We want to get to these specifically organized personality qualities by examining the frequency of teachers behaviour-form at school.



We compiled the basic questions of our investigations in such a way that the methods applied should always show up the essential properties forming the structure of the teacher's personality /ability, ethical and moral character, orientation, personality-stage./ We wish to ensure in that way that we never look for isolated teacher's qualities but always take into consideration the teacher's homogeneous personality-structure. In the way we can avoid the error of attaching one-sided and exaggerated importance to the so-called "theory of qualities" and its related trends which seek the so-called ideal educator's qualities separated from the personality-structure.

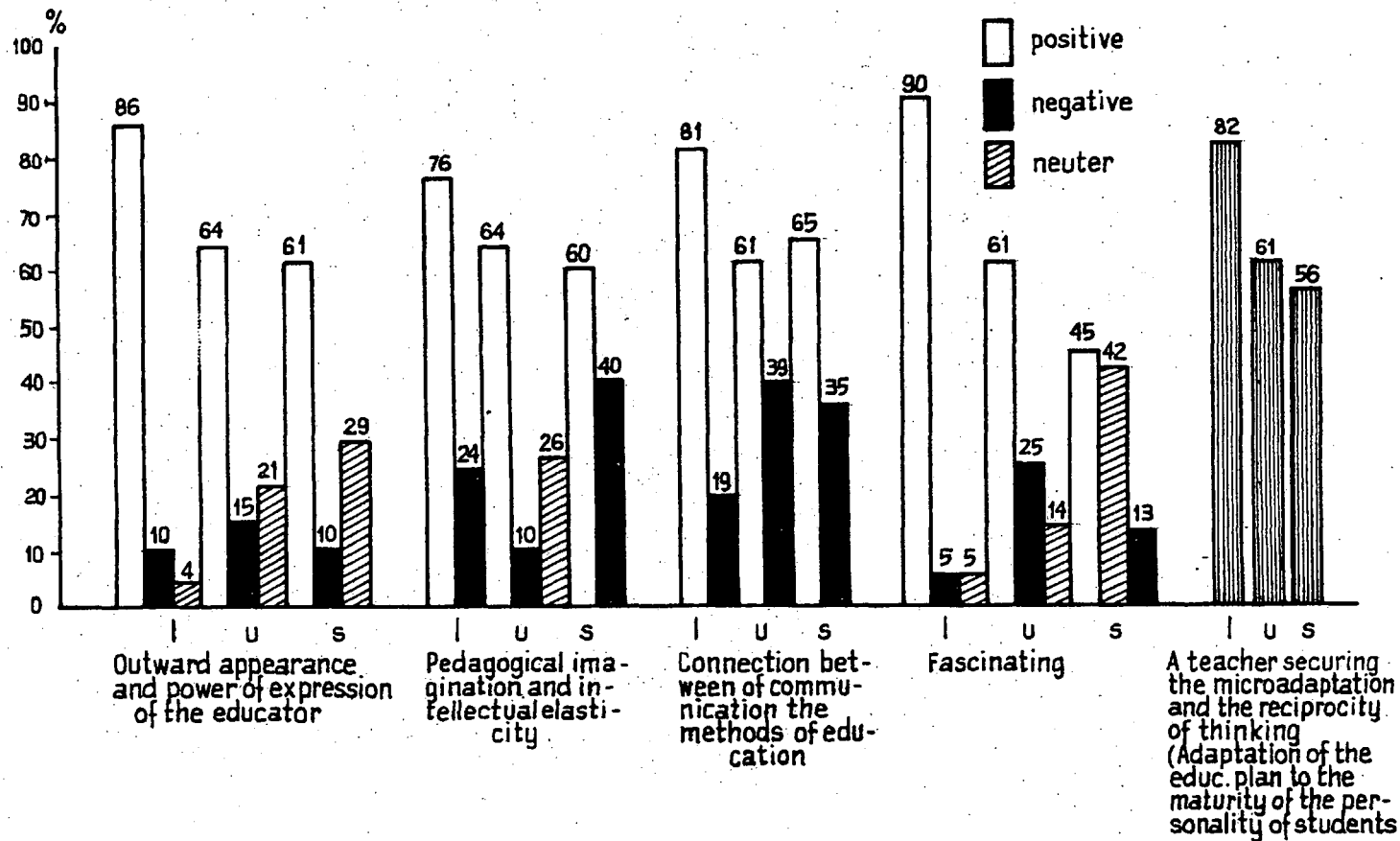
Relatively frequent behaviour-forms of  
teachers intellectual activity

"Men and women are not only the bearers of their past, heirs of a world, persons responsible for a number of actions, but they are the seeds of future, as well. "This beautiful statement of eternal value, by L. Aragon, is even to a greater extent true of teachers. One of the teachers most important tasks is to acquire a definite quantity of scientific and relational /behaviour/ information with all the correlations so that it can be realized at school for social developmentsocial self-regulation. In the functions of selection and transmission the teacher is in fact a key-man who realizes the above mentioned tasks with his intellectual activity.

The level of this special self-regulation of society is determined -depending considerably upon the given systems -by the historically expected maximum level of the development of teachers abilities. This means, first of all, a knowledge of cultural information. At the same time, however, we expect the teacher, to carry out in some special domain a creative and enriching work as well.

The third task can be connected with the previous two in the following way: the teacher can only fulfil his task if he is familiar with his special subjects on a scientific level, being in some degree an active worker in scientific fields and, at the same time, if he can hand down the knowledge to be communicated to his pupils in a correct way.

## THE BEHAVIOUR CONNECTED WITH HANDING ON SCHOOL KNOWLEDGE



Since an educator pursuing his profession keeping abreast with the times is by no means a mere mechanical meditator but ensures the students co-operation by re-forming knowledge, he must be a good organiser, as well.

Now we summarize the data of our investigations and the considerably important elements of their instructions:

First we investigate the teachers' behaviour -forms connected with the amplification of knowledge in the field of their special subjects and that of their general culture.

Opinions of primary school pupils concerning  
the amplification of knowledge in the field  
of general and special subjects.

We must touch in a few sentences on the problem, if the 6 to 10 years old pupils are capable of forming any judgement of their teachers behaviour. Ferenc Mérei for example writes about school-maturity, as follows: "Thinking becoming dispassionate and the interest objectivized, a way is opened to the child for beginning to measure his own activity from outside, as well. Among the motives of their thinking emotional elements, are still present nevertheless, they are able to establish - elaborate in their thinking what is good and what is bad for them in the behaviour of others." And H. Wallon puts his views into the following words: "Objectively has had his place in his environment even before. Now, however, he has an exact idea about what kind of place is due to him. At present he already knows himself as a bearer of different possibilities at the same time. In that way, his personality has achieved the level of the category of consciousness.

During our investigations we experienced that the majority of students gave evaluable answers. It is true,

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<sup>x</sup> It is reflected by the data given how the students saw their teachers. We do not claim, of course, that these opinions

however, that the pupils in classes I and II do not as yet observe the properties of their teachers consciously, and they do not meditate upon them. But we can learn from their narrations - as concrete educational life situations - what they appreciate or reject in their educator. Our investigations also proved for instance, that the prestige of the educator in the eyes of six-seven-year-old children comes first of all from his given position. From class III.on, however their authority-bound attitude and their respect of authority become a little closer. At the same time, we have established that in the eyes of children the most central problem in the human conduct of their teacher. We may understand clearly from the conversations that pupils feel and can express on the level of their own thinking - or, at least they can refer to it- that by entering school, their position has changed in every micro-group. To put it more exactly, the new measure of value of their "group -positions" will be the successful or unsuccessful school-activity. "Daddy plays with me only if I bring a red point" /1.14/. They love my brother more than me because he learns better than I do" /2, 72/ "Children laugh at me if I do not know the lesson. They only play with me if there is nobody around" /3, 176/. As children feel that almost everything depends upon their teacher, his behaviour will be fundamentally important for them. As pupils do not only want to preserve their old, positive "roles" in their family and among their companions but they also want to get new ones it can be understood easily that they turn to their teacher with full devotion. By this we mean that they respond to the positive behaviour of the educator with full attention and their adaptation becomes faster.

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of pupils are of absolute value. But a situation report is anyway given by numbers and testimonies. And that may be a beginning of further investigations and educational-psychical experiments.

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<sup>xx</sup> Merei, F.-Binet, Agnes, 1970; Gyermeklélektan /Child Psychology/. Publishing House "Gondolat", p. 173.

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<sup>xxx</sup> Wallon H. A gyermek lelki fejlődése /Mental Development of Child./ Publ. House "Gondolat", p. 156.

Further on, we will investigate to what degree the school can meet the need for turning towards the external world. I/a in Fig 1 clearly shows that, according to the opinions of six to ten-year-old pupils, 79 per cent of their teachers regularly add to the scope of knowledge in schoolbooks, and the majority of children is glad about that. This amplification does not mean the enlargement of the curricular material with additional facts, but it means an adaptation of knowledge prescribed by the curriculum, to the students life-situations, which necessarily means connections with other factors as well. In this way, the material of knowledge becomes a living reality of everyday life for children. Only in this way can lessons in this age of life be really true to life. Therefore, answers like the following were. Therefore, frequently: "I like reading lessons because then we speak about a lot of things" /cl. 2, 199/. It turned out from the interviews with pupils that they were pleased with the enlargement of their concrete reading passages. 85 per cent of teachers state about the same problem that they regularly amplify the compulsorily prescribed subject-matter of instruction. The arithmetical mean of the opinions of teachers and pupils is 82 per wich displays in this case only a difference of 3 p.c. which can be considered a good congruence. At the same time, in the opinion of pupils, it is only 4 per cent of teachers who are teaching only the text of school-books /Fig. 1:2/a/. By way of illustration, we quote here the answers of a few pupils: "During reading lessons, we do not, speak about anything else than what is written in the book. I am bored with that." /cl. 3, 179/. "We are learning only the arithmetic problems contained in the book. I should like to invent and to sums" /cl. 4, 71/. "In grammar lessons, we have to learn even the examples from the book" /cl. 4, 7/. At the same time, 25 per cent of teachers claim that they "present only the text of school-books."

Pupils think that 7 per cent of teachers cling rigidly to the text of school-books: /cl.: Fig. 1:3/a/. This "complaint" was raised first of all by pupils in classes III and IV. "The lessons in the grammar book are to be learned by heart, and I do not like that" /cl. 3, 211/. Pupils are protesting against learning examples in addition to learning rules. I do not like "environment study" lessons because I am supposed to learn every-

thing by heart /cl.4.21./ The above-mentioned 7 per cent is surely a low number, yet, we make mention of this behaviour-form because it exposes the pupils in question to an overburdening which is unjustified with its mechanical character and is harmful to the school-atmosphere. 9 per cent of the teachers thought this form necessary.

The problem of how thinking becomes of a higher standard /4/a/ is listed among the behaviour-forms in Fig.1 in order to indicate the two main fields of interest /orientation/ of the age groups /8-10-year-olds/: discovering and learning about the external world, and developing an original thinking capable of getting to the core of problems. It is therefore, no accident that the pupils in classes III and IV already notice and even take as their pattern a well-proportioned logical system of lessons and the many-sided knowledge of their teachers. This is true even if they themselves have just realized its importance and even if it is not always characteristic of their thinking.

Pupils consider 80 per cent of all their teachers' classes as having a logically well-proportioned structure. This problem is touched upon by those pupils as well who still think in many regards in images. Let us quote some typical examples: "I am pleased to go to school because in class I can easily learn what is important." /cl.3, 102/. "The most difficult thing to recognize is what our teacher considers to be important" /cl.3, 52/. "Our school-mistress always says it louder what she thinks important." /cl. 3, 12/ "Our teacher always arranges in groups the things learned in class, it is therefore easy to remember the lesson well" /cl.4, 23/. If somebody can summarize the lesson shortly and well, we consider him to be a clever child. It is shown by these few quotations, that in the pupils in classes III and IV the desire for seizing and grouping the essence of problems already begins to take shape. "I look up to our teacher because she knows so much. Our teacher can answer any question." /cl.4,151/ "Our school-mistress is the dearest of all for she knows everything /cl.3,172/. "I ask the teacher what I do not know for she knows everything. If somebody is clever, I believe everything he says" /cl.3,75/. "I shall become a teacher so as to know a lot" /cl.2,191/. "I like our teacher because she is clever" /cl.2,12/. In the majority of lower-grade pupils the knowledge of their

teacher inspires respect, they like her therefore and are more "obedient" to her, that is to say, one of the most important conditions of the educational influence is the teacher solid knowledge.

85 per cent of those teaching these classes have the opinion that their lessons are logically well proportioned and arranged in a suitable way. The two statements, that is the 80 per cent of pupils and the 85 per cent of teachers are near enough each other, the difference being only 5 per cent.

/b/ Opinions of 10-14-year old pupils concerning their teachers general and special knowledge.

The teacher who regularly enlarges the special teaching material and is able to present it in a way much appealing to pupils.

It is generally known that pupils belonging to this age group turn more definitely towards the world and they are fairly curious to know their environment. They become more and more able to get rid of their one-sided subjective intentions, desires, and to examine the world objectively. It is easy to understand that they judge a class in school by the amount of knowledge they get during it. They say that 65 per cent of their teachers regularly enlarge the subject-matter of instruction with something taken from life and interesting for them.<sup>x</sup> By way of illustration let us quote a few characteristic answers: "I like zoology because we visit stock-breeding farms, and because we have formed a group for breeding small animals" /cl.6,7/. "I like zoology because we do some dissecting, as well. I have also dissected animals and shell perhaps never forget that experience. We all dissected three animals each" /cl.6, 172/. "I find history to be interesting

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This statement of pupils was summarized by taking into consideration two sources: on the basis of the answers given in the questionnaires and of the opinions obtained with the help of the projective pictures. In the case of the latter method, we have compared the statements of pupils with the material of school-books.

since our teacher completes several parts with original stories" /cl.7,13/. "I look forward to history lessons because the material of the book is completed with interesting adventure-stories by our teacher" /cl.6, 21/. "I am glad to learn physics our teacher completes the parts in our book with detailed experiments and, in that way, they are understood by everybody" /cl.6, 23/. "I like Hungarian lessons because our teacher completes the material of the book with details that had actually happened, and because we read selected passages in class". The teachers' demonstrations, experiments, extracts read out from reference books, the use of encyclopaedias, excursions, film-strips, trips to museums and archives, anecdotes, the discussion of contemporary events, adventures, etc, are all regarded by pupils as completion. It is particularly highly appreciated if the teachers, in the course of teaching the concrete school topics, demonstrate recently published books or other up-to-date materials. We have observed that in the domains investigated 8 per cent of the teachers of Hungarian teaching in classes VII and VIII make the students read systematically, or teacher and pupils together read the most recent literary products /from periodicals, details from books/. In the classes of these teachers, 81 per cent of pupils are really enthusiastic about literature lessons. Only 2 per cent of the pupils remained entirely indifferent.

Talking about the enlargement of the special knowledge to be communicated to various classes, it is striking that the higher the form a pupil is in, the less additional and lifelike presentation is felt on the part of the teacher. It is, however, proved by our investigations that the teacher's completion of the teaching material neither decreases numerically /in quantity/, nor does it grow. In accordance with the personality-development of pupils, the increasing complicatedness of textbooks and the curricular demands, only a quantitatively increasing and qualitatively constantly reorganized extra-curricular material would satisfy the pupils. Only this would make them feel they have acquired some extra-knowledge.

In connection with the same problem, 71 per cent of the teachers in the upper grades claim to complete the material of school-lessons systematically /cf.: Fig.1: 1/f/. The variance between the opinions of pupils and teachers is of  $\pm 3$  per cent



from the arithmetical mean, which can be considered as a good congruence.<sup>x</sup>

In the course of our investigations we have come to the conclusion that the relation of pupils to the school is largely determined by the adequate completion of the teaching material of any given subject.

### The teacher with thorough knowledge

One of the important subjective conditions of the personality-development of the upper-grade student is to regard some members of their vicinity as patterns to be followed. While the majority of students from the age 6 to 10 look upon their teacher - owing to several causes - with admiration, from 10 to 14 - corresponding to the development of the faculty of abstraction - they regard adult persons controlling them on the basis of new standards. Prominent human knowledge becomes the most important basic condition of the social relation of commitment and belonging. It is obvious that the students, owing to their limits of development, are not yet able to judge the knowledge and faculties of their teachers objectively. Nevertheless, they are capable of recognizing in an indirect way the teacher of outstanding knowledge who is important for them. "He speaks easily about the subject-matter of school-instruction" /cl.7,21/. "He calls our attention to surptizing relations" /cl.8, 74/. "We cannot but admire his many-sided and deep knowledge" /cl.8, 34/. "He can explain the material of lessons in such a logical and clear way that everything seems to most obvious simple, and convincing. The student is in an easy situation with a teacher of such a high knowledge" /cl.8,21/. He can argue in a way that every counter-argument colapses" cl.8, 3/. "His every statement is based on verified experiments and a deep conviction" /cl.8,2/. "I should like to be a man of such thorough knowledge as our teacher of history" /cl.6, 22/. Our pupils raise, therefore, the following demands: teachers

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In the case of upper-grade students we consider a variance of  $\pm 6$  per cent to be acceptable and satisfactory.

should satisfy pupils' enlarged interests, present problems in a simple, clear, convincing way, and all this should result in a quick and solid increase of the knowledge of pupils.

In the course of our investigations we have experienced that students speaking about the thorough knowledge of their teachers, connect that in their minds with an advanced refinement of thinking. The answers of students mentioned so far also refer to that. Pupils express most often the following expectations: "... we understand the subject-matter of instruction if we learn enough concrete rudiments during the lesson". "The teacher greatly helps us if he can disintegrate the given phenomenon into elementary steps of thinking in such a way that these can be arranged in a well-connected chain". "He directs the attention to the essence, this thinking is disciplined and, at the same time, always exact." "His statements are always supported by strictly proved facts and documents". "We are pleased to listen to him for he begins the lesson with an interesting problem. Then one problem follows the other and we think together." "His thoughts are new, they scintillate with wit, he is courageous, critical; he can argue in an admirable way". "He never interprets things rigidly and he can take incredibly many variations into account". "...he can also look at problems through our eyes."

Students attach great importance to the teacher's good observational capacity, his rich imagination /creativity/, as well as they admire him if he has reasoning power above the average flexibility of thinking, creative activity, self-critical thinking that can reflect significant relations, etc.

Teacher's behaviour adhering rigidly to the text of a  
schoolbook or lecture notes

Upper-grade students assert that 20 per cent of their teachers use only the text of the schoolbooks while teaching. Students state: "I do not like to go to school because the teachers only bore us by telling us the text in the schoolbooks" /cl.8,91/. "I do not like history because we always have to learn only the countless dates and tedious events contained in the book. Our teacher also presents the text of book" /cl.8, 12/. "Geography lessons are boring since the teacher recites the text of the schoolbook almost literally" /cl.7, 9/. Most students complain of being condemned to a full physical and psychic passivity. Many of them suffer from the lack of subjective experiences, from the mechanical, uninteresting, dry, and spiritless school-lessons. It is proved by our investigations that if in a class /with five-six teachers/ only one teacher displays this behaviour it does not determine the general relation of students to learning /only that to the given subject/. With two-three such teachers, however, the relation of students to school will be negative in 80 to 90 per cent and they are all agog to leave school.

22 per cent of the teachers themselves, too, have declared that they present only the text of schoolbooks during school-lessons and do not consider any additional material necessary. The majority of them are arguing that the schoolbooks give enough information, therefore they do not consider even partial completion desirable. "The schoolbook should be up-to-date and contain all the facts." /21/. "The schoolbook should be suited to the development-level of students and it is not the teacher who should devise teaching material," /93/ Out of deviation from the text of schoolbooks follows the overloading of students" /19/. Underlying these opinion we must suppose the existence of a kind of rigid outlook. Our investigations prove that of the most frequently occurring motivations of a negative school climate is the teacher who presents only the text of the schoolbook. As a result of this

behaviour we witness among students fatigue, boredom, indifference, aimlessness. The statements of teachers /22 per cent/ and students /20 per cent/ differ from the arithmetical mean only  $\pm 1$  per cent, which may be considered a good congruence.

Getting pupils to recognize the social  
importance of what they learnt

One of the considerable motives of the positive relation to school is that the students, during their activity, recognize the social importance of the knowledge learned - and in that the direct or indirect significance of their own part. Pupils estimate that 21 per cent of their teachers /cf.: Fig.1: 5/f/ take systematically care of this problem, that is to say, they set every school-lesson, resp. the communicated material of instruction in such a utilitarian aim-system. Thus the knowledge learned adapts itself subjectively, as well, to the system of the individual's spheres of interest. Following such an effect, there appear interest, enthusiasm, spontaneous activity, attitude, diligence, resoluteness to act etc.

The opposite of the teacher's behaviour-form in question is when the teachers cannot set the material of instruction in the aim-systems of the personalities of the individual students. Such a state of affairs is not favourable to the activity of students, the spontaneous activity, and it even retards the development of a positive relation to the school. It is yet more surprising that 47 per cent of the teachers think in connection with their own work that they comply with this educational expectation. The deviation of the percentage values of students and teachers from the arithmetical mean is  $\pm 13$  per cent, which we consider a bad congruence. The question is, therefore, essentially that we make the student recognize some social roles that he can perform by means of the knowledge learned. It is generally characteristic of the adolescent that he looks for roles to play - even if he is hesitating. If we offer them such roles during learning then we can usually ensure their positive interest in school. Consequently it is easy to understand that the personality-development of adolescents is influenced to a great extent by the recognition of the individual and social significance of the knowledge learned at school. Within that, it exerts a great effect on the formation of the expectation of students, as well as on planning the indi-

vidual patterns of the connection with concrete social reality.

Teachers behaviour helping pupils  
to amplify their knowledge independently

Below we shall investigate what percentage of students is caused by the above-mentioned positive behaviour-forms of teachers to complete their knowledge in a domain independently, spontaneously and, at the same time, systematically. 47 per cent of the upper-grade students /cf.: Fig.1:6/f/ have declared to have begun an independent activity to acquire knowledge as a result of school-influence and the example of their teachers. Most frequent forms are /according to their occurrence/ the following:

- /1/ becoming a reader /"... since then I have been going systematically to a library"/;
- /2/ interest in travel books, geographical discoveries, space exploration;
- /3/ study of works on historical topics;
- /4/ effort to express clearly what they have to say;
- /5/ engagement in handicrafts, carving, fixing simple machines, constructing detector radios, telephones, simple electrical installations, book-binding, taking photographs, etc.;
- /6/ writing poems and short stories;
- /7/ dealing with chemical problems;
- /8/ breeding small animals;
- /9/ needlework;
- /10/ collecting insects;
- /11/ stamp-collecting;
- /12/ using reference books and encyclopaedias.

/c/ Opinion of secondary-school students concerning  
teachers' general knowledge and that of special  
subjects

The teacher possessing thorough /impressive/ knowledge

Our investigations also confirmed the well-known fact, that the central problem of the intellectual activity of secondary-school students is characterized by purposiveness and the

endeavour to obtain thorough knowledge. This comprises the whole psychic development of the age-group. And even we may experience day by day with what a particular interest they turn to the scientific cognition of single phenomena. But at the same time we may establish, too, that such a scientific interest and purposiveness can only develop in classes /schools/ where students consider the knowledge of their teacher as having an outstandingly high level. On inquiry the students declared that they considered the knowledge of 41 per cent of their teachers as outstanding, and a number of them imagined scholars and scientist to be like their teacher. /Fig.1.: 4/k/.

In connection with this let us quote the following rather typical answers: "The geography lessons give a spiritual refreshment to me since our teacher knows the subject of the lesson in a fascinating, scintillating way. Luckily, his diction is also very good. I like, as well, that he is capable of elucidating the given problem in a comprehensive way. He is demonstrating the questions that seem to be the most sophisticated ones in such a simple and nonetheless high level as if we were not participating in a school-lesson but in a mental exercise. I often discussed it with my class-mates, speaking about the causes of this unusual impression made on us. Most of us attribute this attractive force first of all to the scientific grounding of our teacher. How do we know it is scientific; The class feels it somehow. His comprehensive knowledge, erudition systematical thinking, his talent for thoroughly approaching given questions make us think him a scientist /cl.3,11/. "I admire our teacher of physics, and so do most members of our class, what I like best is that he knows the material with enviable unerringness and can communicate it all in a very simple way" /cl.4,1/. "We are looking almost spontaneously - and a little competing with one another - for the possibilities of getting as much knowledge as possible. And it would be simply a shame for us to be inexact in oral tests. We feel it, as well, to be an internal duty to systematize the material of knowledge in a suitable way. And everybody is proud of being able to recite the lesson in his own words" /cl. 4, 23/. "Our teacher of literature has a particular respect since he is a writer as well. In our class, everybody has read our teacher's volume of short stories. Since then, each of his words has a particular weight and exerts a very great

influence on us. Many of us began writing poems and short stories. I did it as well, I wrote three short stories. I have found, to be sure, that I can never be a writer but these few months left their indelible mark on me. I feel as if I had just gone over from childhood to adulthood for good". /cl.4,29/. "Our teacher of history is held in great respect because he is writing a historical book and works, in his free time, in archives, museums. He devotes all his spare time to this work. We consider him as a man of great knowledge" /cl.4,25/. "Everybody in the class likes singing and is, therefore, a member of the choir. Our teacher is a composer. His composition was sung by our choir on the radio. He is a man with unbelievable persistence and diligence. Many would be glad to have such a will-power and energy" /cl.2,29/.

We attempt to summarize the most important property-elements of the behaviour-form discussed above, as follows:

- A teacher is attractive if he is well-read, knows a great many data, events, formulae, regularities, connections etc.
- if he has an expert knowledge and is creative in some field /writes books, is an ethnographic field-worker, experimenter, innovator etc./
- if his knowledge is beyond all doubt of uncertainty
- if he systematize teaching points well and conducts school-lessons logically,
- if he presents teaching material clearly /comprehensively/,
- reveal the connections on the level of the students thinking, taking into consideration the age-group characteristics of students,
- understands well the content elements of phenomena,
- trains pupils for thinking critically.

On the basis of student opinions and with the help of our own observations, we have endeavoured - by fixing some property-elements - to reveal the effects exerted on students and found to be the most significant:

- such teachers motivate students "to acquire much knowledge",
- they encourage them to explore phenomena fundamentally and deeply, to be precise, to systematize their thoughts, develop the comprehensive properties of thinking,
- to be critical, etc.

At the same time, approaching problems actively, creative initiation, an ability to overcome external and internal difficulties and continuously rising intellectual expectations all become a natural part of pupils' behaviour.

It has also been noticed that these effects can only become the behaviour-form of the students personality if the property-elements of educators enumerated earlier are combined with other positive properties of teachers /good-naturedness, good-will, readiness to help, enthusiasm, respect for students, etc./ With the intellectual, moral, aesthetical, etc. requirements of such teachers the majority of students come spontaneously, out of inner conviction. It is evident already from the above that teachers speed up their students personality-development /social maturity/ by means of the weight of their social connections. Their undying merit is connected not only with the transfer of knowledge but also with transforming other social standards /norms/ into internal convictions.

During our investigations the following experiments were made with two teachers having the above mentioned activity-forms and 4 classes: A.J., a teacher of history, held in great respect because of his knowledge, was asked to tell the distance between the classroom and a house /3 kilometres from the school/ which could be well seen from the classroom. On inquiry he said before the pupils that the distance was 2 kilometres. All in the classes were asked the same question.



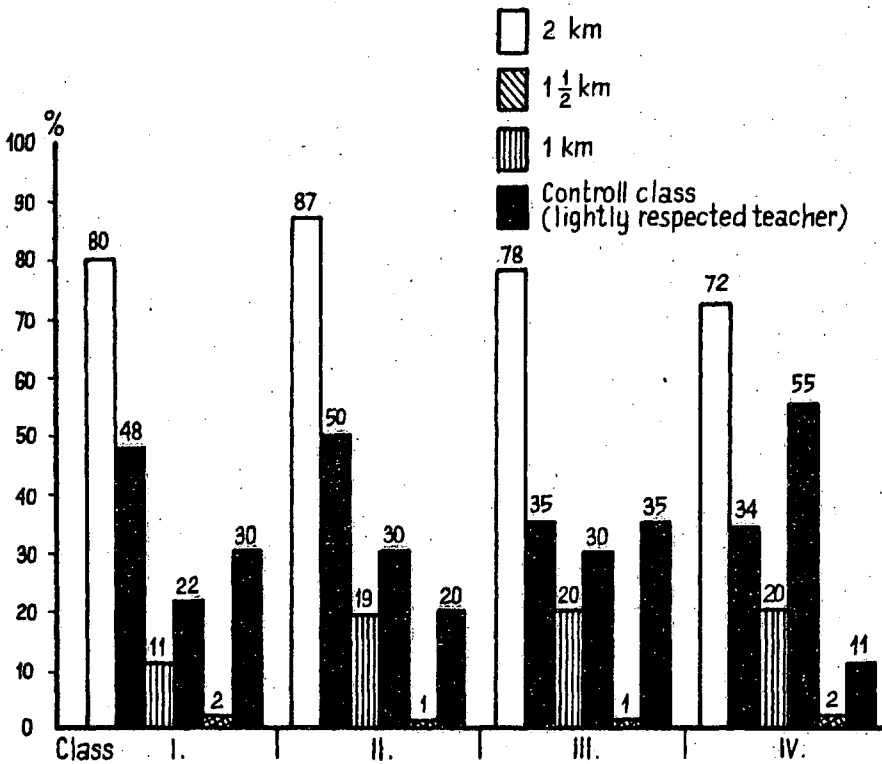


Fig.2

Investigation of the interpersonal and social weight of teachers

It is shown by the values of statistics that the majority /80 p.c., 87 p.c., 78 p.c., 72 p.c./ of students have accepted in every class the estimation of the respected teachers of the teaching-staff and pupils of the same 4 classes. Now it was another building whose distance from the school was to be estimated. The result can also be seen in Fig.2. It is evident at first sight that the values esteemed by students were influenced to a smaller degree by the less respected teacher and thus the estimation data shows a considerable variety.

The teacher who enlarges the teaching material of his subject and is able to present it in a way that much appeals to pupils

Looking at the psychic characteristics, we may establish that a rather resolute and conscious endeavour to get balance and harmony is undoubtedly characteristic of both age-groups. This is the very reason why pupils consider it important for their teachers to complete the text of the textbooks with additional information related to practical life. They declared in the course of our investigations that 55 per cent of their teachers amplified the compulsory material of the subjects of instruction systematically, which was a positive help. They have also stated that the teachers mentioned are able to make the material presented vivid, thus speeding up the development of their interest considerably, enlarging the circle of their knowledge, and even connecting school knowledge with the scientific, artistic, and other questions, e.g., those production, dealt with by the adult society. /Fig.1: 1/k/.

On the basis of the statements given so far, the following ways of amplifying general and special knowledge are considered important by students:

- /a/ making the generally dry facts contained in the material of instruction vivid,
- /b/ making the given facts important for students,
- /c/ recognizing the essential elements of notions, knowing their connections,
- /d/ connection of results gained in recent investigation with new knowledge,
- /e/ introduction to the use of teaching aids which help pupils study problems without their teacher /reference books, encyclopedias, journals, books, museums, various institutes
- /f/ exposing far-reaching connections. Clearly, the opinion of those questioned is this: the ideal teacher has a wide range of general and special knowledge and is able to open up new intellectual horizons for them.

## The teacher repeating only the text of the schoolbook

A considerable proportion of secondary-school teachers - unlike their above mentioned colleagues - expound only the text of schoolbooks in class. Students estimate that 42 per cent of their teachers belong to this group /Fig. 1: 2/k/. This or that way, these teachers communicate the text of school-books to pupils. They do not even make any changes in the order of items presented. Let us quote a typical students' opinion: A typical case of our sittings -in and informations by the help of students is discussed here below: "geography lessons are boring because our teacher only repeats the material of the schoolbook. He adds nothing to it, leaves rather unknown concepts unexplained /e.g., force of gravity, the process of metal-formation, he does not show the climatic zones either on the map or on the globe./ At oral examinations, however, we most know these. We do not follow the sea currents on the map, either."

On the basis of the teachers observations, projective pictures, and of the answers obtained by means of questionnaires, we have noticed the following major deleterious effects:

- the defective knowledge of essential elements of some fundamental notions causes students difficulties in understanding the new material
- the dry factual data make the majority of students bored, uninterested,
- such pupils' range of interest narrows down, their memory, however, is developing well,
- at the same time, the independence of their thinking, its systematizing and critical faculty, as well as its flexibility are developing in an unfavourable fashion,
- their inventive power, combinative faculty are obviously poorer,
- the consciousness of their self-esteem is rather uncertain, their choice of profession is less careful,
- a part of them become rather restless and another part more or less impassive. Luckily, the teachers mentioned

above are in most schools in a considerable minority, their harmful effect is, therefore, partly counteracted by their colleagues.

The teacher adhering rigidly to the text of the  
schoolbook or lecture notes

A teacher adhering rigidly to the text of the schoolbook or lecture notes is very near to the behaviour-forms already investigated above. According to the students questioned, 26 per cent of their teachers belong to this group. Let us see some remarkable pupil's opinions: "I go out of my way to break away from the narrowed-down, schoolbook-like world. Unfortunately, I have neither time nor other possibility to realise this desire. I have to cram 4 to 5 hours a day to be above the general mark 4" /cl.4, 13/. "It is terrible even to think of Russian lessons where we have to learn every piece of reading by heart. If somebody make more than one single mistake, he or she gets an unsatisfactory mark. Our teacher would sometimes give 15 to 20 fail marks during a single school-lesson. We never learn words or independent expressions, and grammar is, taught only through rules. The truth is that nobody is interested any longer in this teacher. This essentially impossible situation can neither be understood nor accepted. It can only be endured somehow." /cl.2, 5/.

The deleterious effect of this situation can be summarized as follows:

- this spiritual despotism necessarily narrows down the many-sided interest of students,
- in a part of students it induces intellectual simplicity, in others, however, the result is defiance, revolt, lack of self-reliance, dependence /rigidity, stereotyped pattern/ of thinking,
- in this teacher-student relation most students lose their beliefs and trust in adults,
- the development of the purposiveness of students is decreasing,
- this daily feeling of defencelessness prevents the pupil from becoming an independent individual personality
- it slows down the activity of young people full of ambitions.

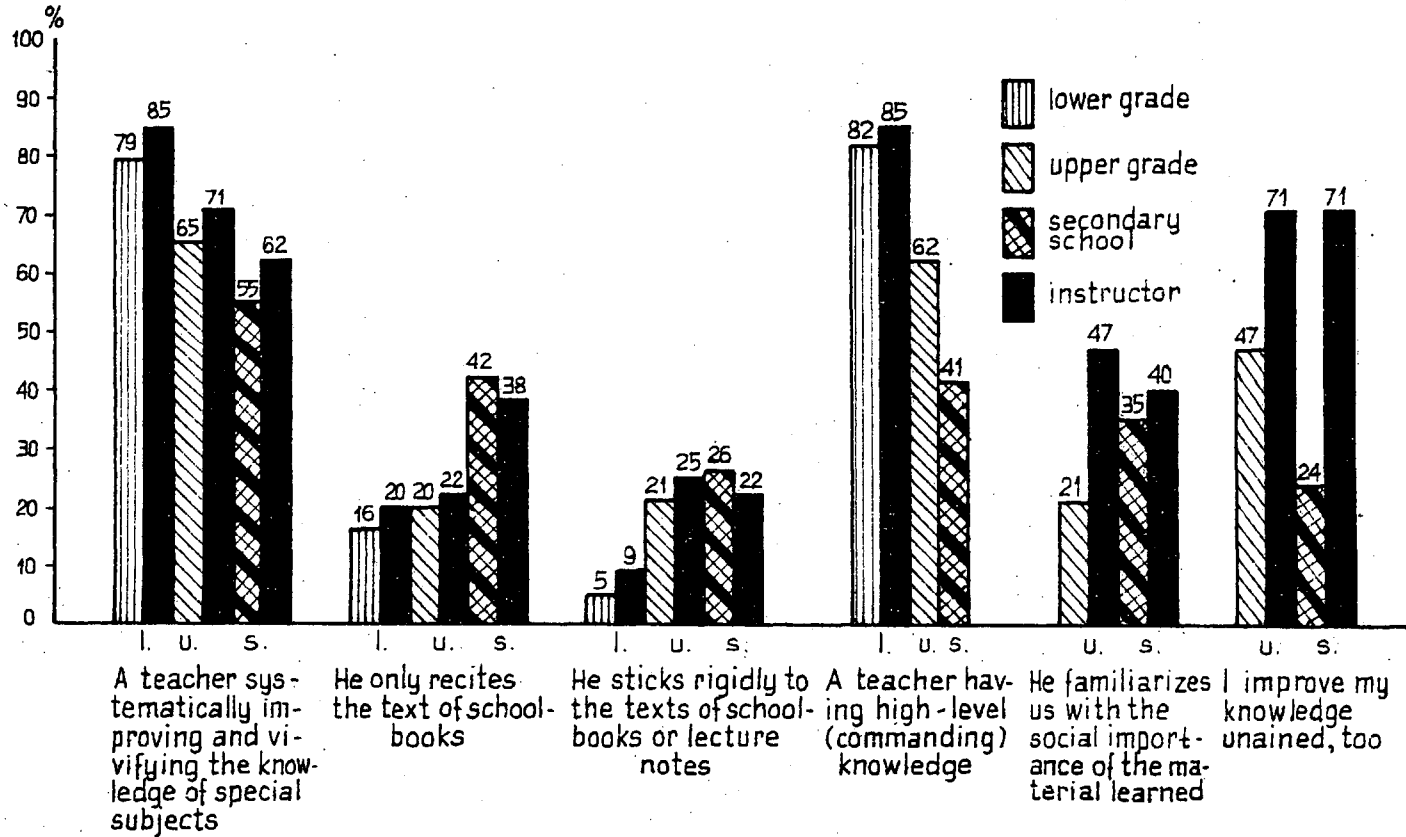
In most cases, of course, the deleterious effects cause a personality-trouble only if they appear together with other endangering factors.

Getting pupils to recognize the social importance  
of what they are taught

Our investigations also call attention to the fact that the present-day secondary-school age-groups are formulating their aspirations of their integration into society much more definitely, purposefully and in a more clear-cut way than the generations of 40-50 years ago. And even the recognition of their social demands and their looking for solutions concerning the ways of realizing them take place about one, one-and-half, sometimes two years earlier. From about the age of 15 or 16, secondary-school pupils think about questions of their passing into adulthood, and, what is related to it, the most suitable career they would like to choose. They turn, therefore, with a particular attention to any problem /at school or outside school/ that they can use as a means for increasing their scientific and other knowledge, abilities, etc. They are striving to increase by all possible means the social usefulness of their activity, and to successfully integrate into society both as a man and a specialist. It follows necessarily from this outlook that with the great majority /85 per cent/ of students one of the central measures of decision is the usefulness of things learned at school and the degree of their social importance - by this they mean a practical utilizability. It is only natural, therefore, that pupils attach great importance to all the behaviour-forms of their teachers that support them in their ambitions discussed above. According to the judgment of pupils, 35 per cent of their teachers /Fig.1: 5/k/ - within the limits of their possibilities - regularly make them understand the intended social purpose of the single topics of school-curricula.

Fig. 3.

## GENERAL KNOWLEDGE AND THAT OF SPECIAL SUBJECTS



TEACHER'S COMMON BEHAVIOUR-FORMS MANIFEST IN THEIR PRESENTATION OF TEACHING MATERIAL

As shown by practical experience, observations and the numerical data of investigations, the efficiency of teachers' interpersonal influence is determined by their knowledge and, besides that, to a large extent by their ability to pass on knowledge to pupils. It may be said without exaggeration that the teacher's educational and instructional activities as well as his ability to exert social influence have as their bases two above behaviour-complexes, i.e. knowledge and the ability to transmit it.

Fig.3.

4. 6-10-year-old pupils' opinions about their teachers' behaviour-forms as regards transmission of knowledge  
The teacher's outward appearance and sense of phrasing
5. The results of our investigations are shown in column 1/a Fig.3. According to 86 % of the 6-10-year-old pupils their teachers' outward appearance and speech /sense of phrasing/ are engaging. This can, in all probability, be considered a good result. Pupils have a negative opinion of 10 % of their teachers and they are indifferent to 4 %
6. "when our teacher stands up in front of the class, she manages to attract our attention even without saying a word. Then her face has a rather strict expression and her eyes command silence." /3.cl. 7./

"When in front of the class, she is always determined but her eyes smile. This makes all of us cheerful. She encourages us with her head, eyes and movements as well. Sometimes it would happen that first I cannot answer her questions, but when she looks at me I can almost always give her the right answers. Her eyes and voice are so encouraging." /4.cl. 3./

7. In consequence of their age-group characteristics and personalities, 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> class pupils observe first of all their teachers' outward characteristics. This is, however, not to deny the significance of social contents attached to forms. Such are: beauty in general, smiling, motion, pretty dresses, the face, beautiful hair and hands, tone, complexion, laughing etc. With 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> class pupils these forms increase and the behavioural elements related to teachers' outward appearance and other modes of bodily expression are more and more received by pupils as social signals.
8. Outward disharmony of figure, uncoordinated motion, tasteless clothes, never smiling complexion, distrustful look, shy appearance, behaviour full of inhibitions, over-energetic, rough behaviour, uneducated and discomforting speech, lack



of metacommunicational transmission of thoughts, feelings and aspirations are all considered as negative features both by pupils and teachers.

9. Pedagógical imagination and intellectual flexibility

One of the fairly important preconditions of the teacher's ability to transmit knowledge is his good pedagogical imagination matched with flexibility /76 %/. Lessons are always preceded by the concrete planning of the material to be taught. While making lesson plans, teachers put the items to be taught into some logical order and they also picture for themselves the various aspects of pupils' /individuals and group/ learning, i.e. what, how, with what precision and how quickly can be taught to them. In addition to this, the teacher should also be aware of the difficulties which might arise in pupils' understanding what is newly taught to them. Consequently, the teacher plans not only what is to be taught but also the didactic process of learning. And, he is clear about the attainments his pupils must have.

0. Teachers, as it were, must see their pupils' reactions, pace of development and their occasional logical mistakes. For this very reason the various learning processes are planned in a variety of ways so what they can flexibly change according to different feedbacks. Thus we can arrive at what has been put by a teacher as follows: "As a matter of fact I look at problems through the eyes of pupils, I do not think in terms of subject matter of instruction. I depend on my pupils' activity. Everything else is considered as means, teaching material as well as teaching methods." /121/.

1. Connection between the ability to transmit knowledge at school and teaching methods

The teacher's behaviour referred to as transmission and communication can also be called "ability to transmit". Among other things, it means the ability to transmit knowledge and the ability to radiate the intellectual fullness of emotions and will. This traditional interpretation has to be completed with the ability to control the child's personality. This

teacher behaviour postulates in the teacher's thoughts and actions the dialectical unity of the material to be taught, teaching methods, pupils' achievement known by feed backs and pupils' pace of understanding /81 %/.

12. Let us examine the ration of methods used in oral learning in our field of observation /Fig.4./.

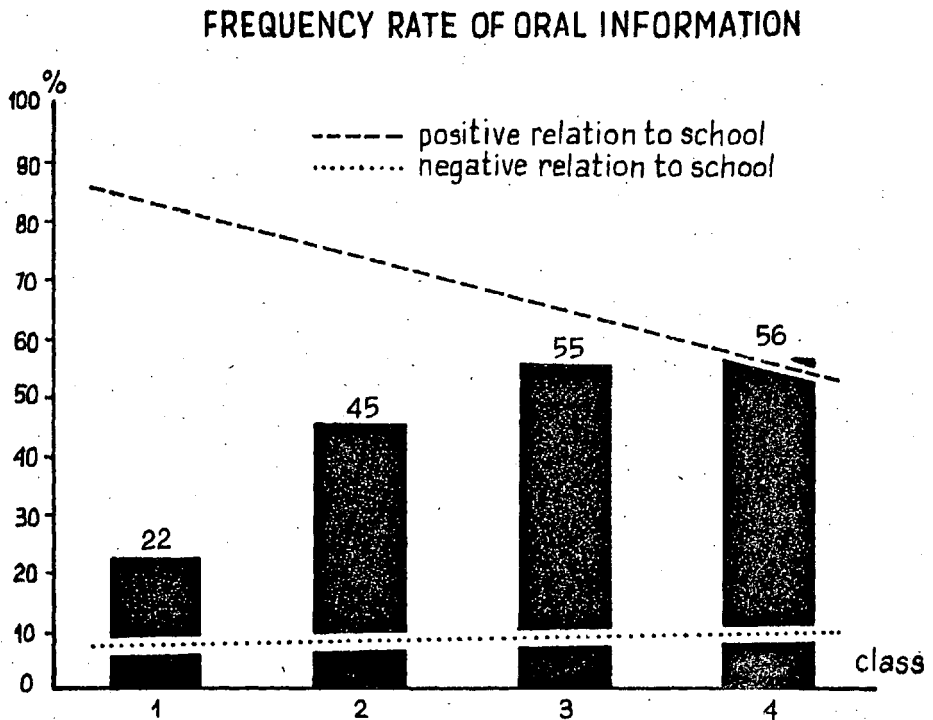


Fig.4.

The chart well indicates how oral methods come to the fore class by class /cl.1.22%, cl.2. 45 %, cl.3. 55 %, cl.4. 56 %/. We think, however, that this development is too fast if we take into account the rather smaller development of age-group characteristics.

13. The ratio of activation method

### FREQUENCY RATE OF THE ACTIVATING METHODS

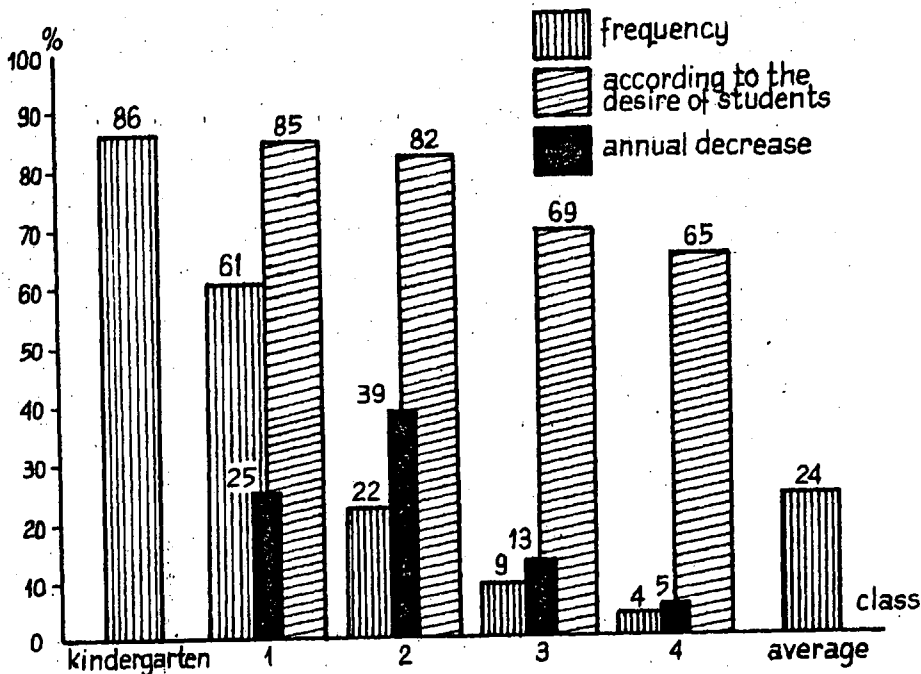


Fig.5.

14. The breakdown of percentages according to classes shows the natural situation that teachers in the 1<sup>st</sup> class use the activation method as long as 61 % of every lesson. This percentage seems to be small for in kindergartens the time allocated to activation is 86 %. Their being a difference of 25 % between the above percentages, one can conclude that the method of learning changes faster than the personality develops. In the light of our investigations this difficulty has a disad-

vantageous effect on 25-30 % of 1<sup>st</sup> class pupils.

In the 2<sup>nd</sup> class activation is reduced to 39%, which causes serious troubles in learning. It is to be regretted that in the 3<sup>rd</sup> class there is yet another reduction of 13 %, followed by 5 % in the 4<sup>th</sup> class. As testified by Fig. 5. as well, our investigation as to which method is most popular with pupils shows a multiple of the actually used activation method /cl.1. 85, cl.2. 82, cl.3.69, cl.4. 65%/

15. In consequence of the application of the activation method, it was not only the pupils' achievement that increased but also their positive relation to school improved, their efforts to discover phenomena remarkably multiplied, those experiencing success became larger in number, praxic emotions get a significant role and thus interest, activity and individual efforts to solve problems /volitional activity/ became general. All this resulted in the increased functioning of realizing capacity, remembrance, imaginative, speculative and attentive psychic processes.

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## Мнение учащихся о формах своих преподавателей

д - р Вецко Йозеф

Вводная часть статьи занимается увеличением роли поведения преподавателей. В ней подчёркивается проблема непрерывно нарастающих научных знаний, усовершенствования пособий и методов преподавания. Преподавателей озабочивает и изменение в контактах учащихся, поскольку гомогенность групп сменилась мультиплицитностью. Общество, однако, с нарастающим нетерпением торопит улучшение психической атмосферы и умение оказать более эффективное влияние на учащихся.

Из позиций исследования проистекают отвержение традиционного подхода, основывающегося на раскрытии качеств и стремление поставить в центре внимания личность.

В ходе исследования было опрошено устным и письменным методом 12 тысяч учащихся общих и средних школ, а также 3 тысячи педагогов: следовательно, полученные нами результаты и показатели являются репрезентативными для всей страны.

Форм поведения преподавателей рассматриваются нами в четырех важнейших плоскостях:

- 1./ в сфере интеллектуальной,
- 2./ в сфере этической и сфере характера ,
- 3./ в сфере целевой установки,
- 4./ в сфере состояния.

В опубликованной статье охватывается только первый комплекс проблем / главные формы деятельности в области интеллектуальной /. Названный круг деятельности рассматривается в трёх аспектах.

- а/ в отношении общей и специальной подготовленности,
- б/ в области организаторского таланта и
- в/ в области форм поведения уметь посредничать.

В статье делается нами попытка получить ответ на упомянутые вопросы в отдельности в кругу учащихся младших и старших классов общеобразовательных школ и средних школ.



Schülermeinungen über Verhaltensformen ihrer  
Lehrer

Dr. József Veczkó

Die Einleitung der Abhandlung beschäftigt sich mit der vergrößerten Rolle des Verhaltens von Lehrern. Das die Lehrer belastende Problem der unaufhörlichen Anhäufung wissenschaftlicher Kenntnisse sowie die Langsamkeit der Modernisierung von Unterrichtsmitteln und -methoden wird hervorgehoben. Eine besondere Sorge für die Lehrer bedeutet die Vergänderung in den Kollektivbeziehungen der Schüler, weil die Gruppenhomogenität durch Gruppenmultiplizität abgelöst wurde. Die Gesellschaft stellt auch immer strengere Anforderungen an die Verbesserung des schulischen Klimas und die effektivere Einwirkungsfähigkeit auf die Schüler.

Aus der Betrachtungsweise der Untersuchung folgt, dass die traditionelle atomisierte Annäherung an Eigenschaften abgelehnt, und eine Konzentration auf die ganze Persönlichkeit angestrebt wird.

Im Laufe der Untersuchung wurden an 12000 Schüler von Grund- und Oberschulen und an 3000 Lehrer /schriftlich und mündlich/ Fragen gestellt, um dadurch landesrepräsentative In dieses gewinnen zu können.

Es werden 4 Hauptbereichen der Verhaltensform von Lehrern untersucht; und zwar:

- 1./ intellektuelle
- 2./ etische und charakterabhängige

3./ zielsystemabhängige

4./ zustandsabhängige.

Die jetztige Abhandlung erörtert nur den ersten Problemkreis /nämlich: die wichtigsten intellektuellen Tätigkeitsformen/. Die erwähnte Tätigkeitsgruppe wird unter 3 Aspekte untersucht.

Es sind die folgenden:

1./ die allgemeinen und Fachkenntnisse

2./ die mit der organisatorischen Fähigkeit zusammenhängenden Tätigkeiten

3./ die Verhaltensformen der Wissensvermittlungsfähigkeit.

Bei der Auswertung werden die Antworten der Schüler der Unter- und Oberstufe der Grundschule bzw. der Mittelschule getrennt behandelt.

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE IDEALS OF SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

Elemér Kunsági



Ideals have an important role in the development of youth. The living person, historical hero, character from literature on an imagined person to whom the child, the young man would like to be similar, can be an important source of the development of his personality.

In the practice of Pedagogy many do not pay proper attention-not even in the education of teenagers-to the fact that inquiries should be made into the particular characteristic features of people who are highly esteemed by their pupils. During the course of their work within education with regard to teenagers it is completely arbitrary who should be the ones most likely to be characterized, to be put in the centre of interest so that they may be the models of action for their pupils.

This opinion and practice can be traced even better in the education of youth. Teachers often say that choosing an ideal and following it is common only in the case of small children. This opinion is based on the fact that small children have strong imitative propensities, they do not have their own principles, their affection for an attractive ideal is merely emotional. Their emotional instability, imaginative fantasy make small children choose a new type of ideal very often.

According to certain practicing teachers, young people form their own characters on the basis of their moral education, on their established world view. There are no examples, ideals in front of them, they even consider it a "childish thing" if they are thought to look upon some person or persons or certain human characteristic features as fit to be imitated. As they say, they are 'themselves' and they do not wish to be like anybody else. They form their own characters. This self-characterizing and, proclaimed opinion of young people about themselves is understandable in respect of their desire for self-research that is so characteristic of teenagers and young people. But the practice of

education, the frank, open statements of young people and our inquiries prove that it is "at the end of the teenager-age and mainly the youth-age that the development of ideals take place. One of the ideals, or a figure of an imaginative person made up by mixing together the various characteristic features of numerous ideals is the most likely to become the ideal, the embodiment of the desires and wishes of a young man." /Agoston, 1970, 284.p./

Because of the experienced and above-mentioned theoretical obscurities that occur in the practice of education we think we should declare very clearly that an ideal is different from a model. A model is always a living person. An ideal is the result of an abstraction on a higher level. It is most desirable that the human characteristic features represented by the ideal should correspond to the exigencies of society. Obviously it is impossible to set up an ideal for young people which realizes all social expectations. Persons who could realize certain human characteristic features on the most perfect level should be looked for, should be characterized and made attractive. For the sake of forming and developing an ideal, various models must be set for the pupils during the course of their education, in this way making it possible for the ideal to be formed and developed in their private life in accordance with the social conditions. It is the individuals i.e. pupils who put into words what they demand from their ideals during the course of their education. More exactly, the characteristic features considered to be worth following are realized, reflected in the individual. We agree with the following statement: "...ideals develop through the influence of social evaluation...they determine socially the general tendency of the personality..." /Daróczy, 1970, 80.p./

On the realization and on the acceptance of the important role that the above-mentioned facts play in the practice of education we declare it very important to make inquiries from time to time into how young people evaluate certain human characteristics, which are the most favourably accepted and most attractive characteristic features. On the basis of this we compare whether the socially determined scale of values is in accordance with the ambitions of our young people. The diagnosis developed in this way can be one of the planning of our educational work.

Ideals develop through the influence of many factors. Family environment, its cultural, educational level, its moral scale of values and its political atmosphere play an important role in it.

In their development the role of schools, the youth organization, the mass media, readings and any other spontaneous effect is very important, too.

One of the important aims of our investigation was to find out at what rate the school affects the development of ideals with the teaching material, with its special means and methods. We wanted to extend our inquiries about how the school directs its pupils towards out-of-school experiences that could be the source for developing their ideals and that could help them strengthen their imagination about a certain ideal. We also wanted to find out what they liked the most, what they selected from the various items of information they got during the time of our investigation and, we wanted to find out whether the chosen characteristic features which they found attractive and worth following are indeed of value, or only the product of a fashionable, second-rate, intellectual, trend.

In 1967 we started our investigations about the ideals of children. We got the inspiration to start our work from a special investigation which was done in France. The investigation we did in 1967 was the reproduction of the French one. Naturally we took into consideration the special Hungarian conditions, especially with regards to various institutions of education we visited during the time of our investigation.

The questions put to the pupils initiated in the investigation were the same as in the French investigation and the analysis of the matter of our investigation was done in accordance with the view-point of the French authors. /Dumazedier-Hassendorfer, 1965./

In the above-quoted study we referred to the fact that it is advisable as well as necessary- we declared- to discover the interest and follow with attention the tendencies and cultural development of our young people and, to repeat the investigation from time to time i.e. every five years. In the quoted material we also mentioned that it would be advisable to extend the investigation about ideals to an investigation about motives. Therefore during the recent investigations we tried to find out about the attractive human characteristic features and personalities which we declared to be worth following in the chosen ideal.

In the present study we present some extracts of a longer dissertation; we would like to enlighten the bases of the investigations only. Besides that, we also undertake the formulation of some relationships and conclusions.

### Methods Used During the Investigation.

We got the data of our investigation- we took a countrywide sample- by the means of a questionnaire. Taking into consideration of confidentialia intervallum -in a layered sample- we asked 2,500 pupils but got only 2,434 usable answers. The conclusions we got from the data of this population may be about 95 % true.

To get the necessary information through the method of filling in questionnaires we visited third classes in Hungarian secondary schools-grammar schools, specialized secondary schools and schools of industrial apprentices, so we gathered the opinions and confidences of 17year-old people by having them fill in our questionnaires.

We decided in the usual way i.e. by lot, what secondary educational institutions to choose. We paid attention to the fact that the proportion of the industrial and agricultural branches of the various specialized secondary schools and schools of apprentices should correspond to the real percentage.

We treated the material of the various branches in a special way while analysing certain relationships. For example we analysed the effect of the basic curriculum in the various types of schools.

We so devised our questionnaire that it would be suitable for processing by computer. /See the questionnaire/ From the classifyin data one can find out the sex of the young people who filled in the questionnaire, as well as the profession and education of their parents.

These latter data made it possible to find out about the relationship between the education of the parents and the ideals of their children.

The last questions of the questionnaires referring to the motivation of the choice, the chosen profession, the parents and the family environment also gave us precious information about the correlation of the family environment and the ideals as well as about the relationship between the former and the chosen profession

The investigation is very simple, but it is sufficient for gathering material which is suitable for analysis and for multilateral investigation of the chosen ideal.



According to the instructions /See the questionnaire/ given on the questionnaire the pupil was allowed to mention three names, names of personalities, whom they held in the highest esteem, to whom they felt drawn, and, who were the most attractive to them. So the pupils were allowed to make a free choice of the three persons whom they esteem, whom they consider worth following for some special reason, for their attractive characteristic features.

In the respect of the chosen personalities-this is emphasized in the basic material of the investigation, too, - the date of the investigation is very important. The investigation took place in 1973. Referring to the date of the investigation we have to remark that topicalities have a great influence on the choice of young people. But to form a judgement of the attractive moral, political, cultural and general human ideals of the stratum of pupils that was subject to the investigation the person who represents the attractive human characteristic features is of no crucial importance during the time of any investigation.

We composed the basic material in a very simple way. Taking into consideration the various types of schools as well as the whole population the votes given by the pupils for each personality i. e. ideal were counted up. /The number of appearances of each personality were counted up/ Personalities who were chosen by more than 3 percent of the investigated population were only objects of further analysis.

To make the multilateral analysis graphic we put the most important data of investigation in table form and, we present the first ten of the chosen ideals in tables according to the various schools. This order of the chosen ideals is a sort of order of importance itself. We set up an order according to the sexes, too. This part of the investigation is not presented here, but it seemed to be enlightening. In this study we present the percentage distribution of the effect of studies in different schools, the effect of the directing role of the studies. The distribution of the chosen personalities according to the type of school which the pupils attend can be the source of various educational conclusions. Such item of information referring to the whole sample can be very enlightening, but they are even more interesting if investigated according to the various types of secondary schools.

We made separate tables of the various periods of time in which the chosen ideals lived i.e. we wanted to find out whether the ideals

of our young people lived in former centuries or they were great living personalities. We thought it very important to differentiate according to the nationality of the ideals of our young people.

In the tables all the answers i. e. the answers of 2,434 young people can be found. As we said before, pupils involved in the investigation were allowed to mention 3 personalities. But not everybody took advantage of this possibility. There were pupils who mentioned only one or two personalities. This led to the situation that the sum of the various data shown as a percentage is never 300 % or 100 % in each table, but always less than that. The difference results from some pupils not giving all the three personalities. We considered it necessary to emphasize this fact as it would have seemed to be a lack of precision to those who wished to check the percentage.

We want to make another important remark on the method of processing the material. Of the enumerated characteristic features of the chosen personalities/"Enumerate the characteristic features whereby you esteem him, value him, follow him /See the questionnaire we took into consideration only three characteristic features in the case of all personalities and, according to the order they were enumerated. The majority of pupils enumerated more than three attractive characteristic features. When we go into details investigating the material we shall pay attention to which characteristic features were mentioned in first, second and third places. The order of the enumeration may be unimportant, although it is very characteristic. For example a little girl from a grammar school put a famous sportsman in first place. It would be quite natural if she considered his glory, his good reputation and his success attractive. But amazingly even for us, she puts his "exemplary family life" in first place and his success, his sportmanship come only after that.

From the answers of the pupils we amassed nearly a hundred different kinds of characteristic features. In the cases where pupils - because of the rich assortment of the Hungarian language - gave synonyms for the same characteristic features we reduced the synonyms to the most widely used expressions. In some cases we used two or three synonyms to denote the same characteristic feature /e.g. 'consistency of principle, stability of ideas/. Of the characteristic features amassed depending on their relative

frequency we present the first 30 in this study pointing out their frequency rate as a percentage.

Relying on the experiences of the pre-assessment of our investigation in 1967, we decided to exclude the parents, closer relatives and teachers of the pupils from those whom they were allowed to choose as an ideal. Therefore, we gave a definite prohibitory instruction referring to this: "You can choose the names from any kind of human activity, from any kind of profession, with the exception of your parents, relatives and teachers." /See the questionnaire/ We had to make this decision because 90 % of the pupils involved in the former investigation chose a parent as an ideal, and the incidence of teachers was almost the same in their choice. Relying on these data we can declare that the effect of one of the parents prevails even in disintegrating families and that each of our young people finds somebody worth following among his teachers.

While processing the data of the investigation we discovered that our young people find a lot of people whom they consider to be worth following and they choose their ideals from people in different professions. These people usually live in the environment of the young people, and they can be, for example, workers whom pupils of specialized secondary schools were able to meet in the workshop or in the fields of a co-operative farm. We can find leaders of the youth organization among them - they obviously got acquainted with these young leaders in the youth organization. We can also find Young Masters of the Trade among the chosen ideals. The names of these young masters appear in the newspapers and they are known through the mass media. These young masters are not scientists, they are not national heroes, they are ordinary people but they are pre-eminent among the others in their work-places because of their attractive characteristic features, because of their work and their uprightness. These people are called 'the heroes of everyday life' in this study.

We have also to mention that we composed the question on the questionnaire so that it called for a certain orientation. /See the first page of the questionnaire/

Now from the basic material of the investigation we present the first 10 names according to the different types of schools. /See tables I-VI in the appendix/

The most remarkable thing is that people from all the different schools mentioned Angela Davis, the famous fighter for civil rights - her name was put in first place three times! Our young people protested against Angela Davis's unlawful arrest and obviously this unlawful arrest affected their choice. But the reasons why she was put so high were her steadfastness in her principles, her progressive way of thinking and her love for her fellow countrymen.

Speaking about the similarities which were quite remarkable in the case of the lists of names given by the different schools we have to mention that the name of the outstanding personality in the international workers' movement, Vladimir I. Lenin, was on each list. A lot of young people found his character worth following and considered his revolutionary behaviour attractive. This, and the fact that besides V.I. Lenin, Marx and Engels were chosen quite often, prove the positive effect of the Hungarian method of teaching history.

In every layer investigated we find in second place Sándor Petöfi, who was one of the greatest Hungarian lyrical poets, and the hero of the war of independence of 1848. No wonder that he has such an intensive effect on young people even today; the last five years of his exemplary life were so outstanding that we could hardly find anybody else in world literature to compare with him.

We have to mention yet another essential similarity. The category of 'heroes of everyday life' has a high relative frequency-value in each type of school. In both branches of the school of industrial apprentices /industrial and agricultural/ this category was put in first place.

But we can see remarkable differences in the choice in different types of schools. One of the remarkable differences can be seen in the frequency that sportsmen are chosen. We cannot find sportsmen on the list given by pupils of secondary grammar schools. The frequency of choice of sportsmen is only 29.0 % in this category. This frequency can be valued positively, i.e. it can be an aversion to star-cult; but again, this can testify that our pupils are not educated to leading a healthy way of life. The high percentage rate of sportsmen chosen by pupils in schools of industrial apprentices can be explained by the attractiveness of mere physical strength and capacity, and, last but not least, this high percentage rate /48.6 % and 51.8 %/ can also be explained by the possibility of

quick success.

One of the most important effects of our public education, i.e. the effort to use an approximately identical basic curriculum which gives an identical general education in different secondary educational institutions, is illustrated by the fact that the outstanding personalities of Hungarian literature - Sándor Petőfi /1823-1849/, Endre Ady /1877-1919/, János Arany /1817-1832/, Kálmán Mikszáth /1847-1910/, Attila József /1905-1937/ and Miklós Radnóti /1909-1944/ - are amongst the first ten of the chosen ideals.

The effectiveness of the Hungarian method of teaching history in secondary schools is illustrated in a similar way by the fact that the positive heroes of our national history, the outstanding personalities of our progressive national endeavours, such as Lajos Kossuth /1802-1894/, Miklós Zrínyi /1508-1566/ and Ferenc Rákóczi II. /1676-1735/, as well as the heroes of the Hungarian workers' movement, can also be found among the ideals.

As a remarkable fact we have to mention - without the slightest intention of condemning them - that nonserious forms of entertainment are represented only by Jane and Peter Fonda and the Hungarian Zsuzsa Koncz among the first 10 of the chosen ideals. Other representatives of non-serious entertainment indicate our young people's attraction towards this genre, i.e. pop music. This category had 7.6 % in grammar schools; in specialized secondary schools this category had 7.3 % /industrial branch/ and 4.7 % /agricultural branch/. The percentage rate of the outstanding personalities of the above-mentioned genre among the chosen ideals is 24.7 % in the schools of industrial apprentices /industrial branch/ and 25,3 % in the agricultural branch. Nevertheless there is no reason for us to regard or declare this as dangerous even in the case of industrial apprentices. Yet the interests of young people from grammar schools differ quite remarkably from those of young people from specialized secondary schools and schools of industrial apprentices. We regard this interest as natural. This picture does not indicate that the refinement of our young people is poor and that their taste is distorted. This shows only a characteristic interest of young people which has always existed. We think that this last statement of ours is proved by the reasons for which the stars of nonserious entertainment were chosen by our young people.

## BREAKDOWN OF THE SELECTED PERSONS BY LINES OF OCCUPATION

	Grammar school %	Specialized secondary school (Industrial branch) %	Specialized secondary school (Agricultural branch) %	School of industrial apprentices (Industrial branch) %	School of industrial apprentices (Agricultural branch) %	Total %
Sport	29,0	36,4	38,0	48,6	51,8	41,7
Motion picture	14,1	10,2	12,6	13,0	12,0	12,7
Theatre	13,0	17,3	20,6	20,6	16,0	17,7
Song, jazz	7,6	7,3	4,7	24,7	25,3	17,0
Other world star (TV, radio, circus)	12,6	11,4	9,5	17,3	14,0	14,6
Classic literature	68,2	69,7	77,7	54,6	63,8	62,3
Trashy literature, crime stories	2,1	2,0	0,0	3,0	3,2	2,5
Serious music	8,5	7,5	6,3	4,7	2,0	5,9
Fine arts	7,0	6,4	17,4	4,4	2,0	5,5
Scientists, scholars, inventors	34,5	24,7	22,2	9,8	12,8	19,2
Traveller discoverer	8,6	13,9	4,7	8,4	8,8	9,4
Historical and political heroes	52,5	52,6	55,5	41,1	46,5	47,0
Popular heroes	0,8	1,1	0,0	1,0	1,6	1,0
Soldiers, military leaders	4,3	3,6	0,0	3,3	7,6	4,0
Persons of religion	0,5	0,6	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,2
Heroes of weekdays	4,1	13,5	9,5	23,1	29,3	17,1

Their reasons were: artistic interpretation, good diction, cheerfulness and gaiety.

For the distribution by profession of the chosen ideals who were put in first, second and third places according to types of schools and in general, too, see table VII.

By a brief comparison of the different data we can assume a most enlightening conclusion about the deliberate activity of a given educational institution, and about the effect of the out-of-school orientation which is spontaneous or, in some cases, controlled by a particular interest of a given group of pupils.

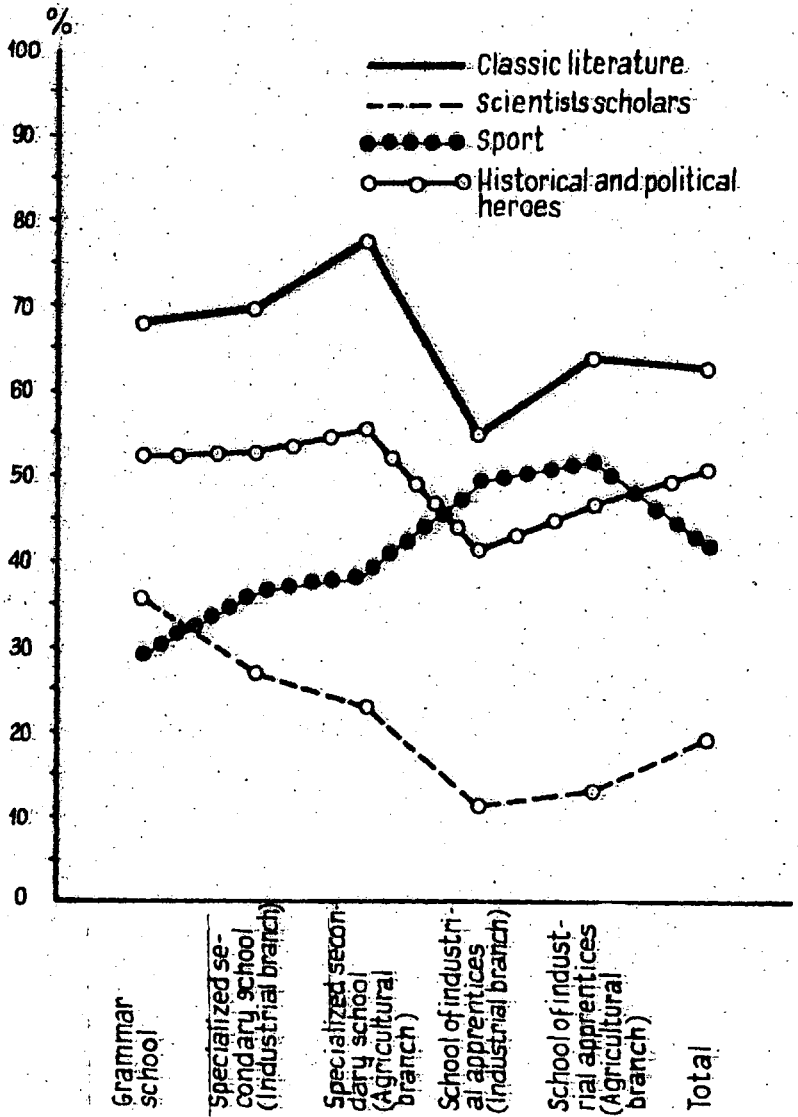
In the case of pupils involved in the investigation, the effect of school on these pupils is illustrated by the 59.89 percentage rate as opposed to the percentage rate /40.11 %/ of out-of-school information /sport, film, theatre, chanson, jazz, television and radio, trashy literature, the heroes of everyday life and religion/. Of course, this rate is different according to different layers:

	Within-school effect %	Out-of-school effect %
Grammar school	72.4	27.6
Specialized secondary school /industrial branch/	67.2	32.8
Specialized secondary school /agricultural branch/	68.4	31.6
School of industrial apprentices /industrial branch/	49.9	50.1
School of industrial apprentices /agricultural branch/	49.4	50.6

We did not intend to set up a standard according to the above-mentioned percentage rates because the out-of-school effects - film, theatre, radio and television, and, first of all, the heroes of everyday life - have their own real cultural values. In the case of schools of industrial apprentices the approximately 50-50 % distribution shows that the effect of the school as a source for choosing an ideal is quite strong; but the pupils have also closer connections with everyday life and activity, and this fact strengthens the effect of out-of-school factors.

It seems to be enlightening to observe the order of the different kinds of professions put in first, second and third places

VIII. table





according to the different secondary educational institutions. Ideals chosen from classical literature are put in first place in every type of school. /We put the classical writers as well as characters in this category/. Historical and political heroes were put in second place in grammar schools /52.5 %/, in the industrial branches of specialized secondary schools /52.6 %/ and in the agricultural branches of specialized secondary schools /55.5 %/. Sportsmen were put in second place in both branches of schools of industrial apprentices /48.6 % and 51.8 %/.

Scientists and inventors were put in third place in grammar schools /34.5 %/ and in the same place we can find sportsmen in both branches of specialized secondary schools /36.1 % and 38.0 %/. Historical and political heroes are put in third place in schools of industrial apprentices /41.1 % and 46.5 %/.

The above-mentioned data are presented on table VIII: for the percentage rates see the diagrams.

Classical literature - besides Hungarian poets and prose-writers - is represented by F.M.Dostievsky, A. Dumas, J.W.Goethe, A.S.Pushkin, L.N.Tolstoy, Jean-Paul Sartre, E. Zola, Harriet Elizabeth Beecher-Stowe, Guy de Maupassant or by characters created by them.

We mentioned before that the representatives of the sciences make a great impression on our young people. It is indeed enlightening to look at the list of names of those personalities who became ideals. Johannes Kepler /1571-1630/, Kempelen Farkas /1734-1804/, James Watt /1736-1819/, Alexander Humboldt /1769-1859/, János Bolyai /1802-1860/, Louis Pasteur /1822-1895/, Alfred Nobel /1833-1896/, Robert Koch /1843-1910/, I.P.Pavlov /1849-1936/, K.E. Tziolkovsky /1857-1935/, Fridtjof Nansen /1861-1930/, Albert Einstein /1879-1955/, A.S.Makarenko /1888-1939/, Albert Szent-Györgyi /1893- /, Christian Barnard /1924- /.

This list of names gives us a picture of wide-reaching interests, but it also shows that our young people do not very well know the great scientists and outstanding inventors of our time.

On the data of our investigation in 1966 we have to declare again that in Hungary the education of young people in art in secondary educational institutions leaves a lot to be desired. We cannot declare even today that this problem is solved, but, partly

## BREAKDOWN OF THE SELECTED PERSONS BY CENTURIES

Century	Grammar school %	Specialized secondary school (Industrial branch) %	Specialized secondary school (Agricultural branch) %	School of industrial apprentices (Industrial branch) %	School of industrial apprentices (Agricultural branch) %	Total %
XX.	192,4	205,9	206,3	227,4	225,7	214,8
XIX.	57,0	59,7	65,0	38,9	54,6	49,4
XVIII.	6,0	4,5	3,1	3,5	3,2	4,3
XVII.	2,0	0,9	0,0	0,5	0,0	0,9
XVI.	5,0	4,3	3,1	4,8	8,8	5,2
XV.	3,1	2,2	3,1	2,0	2,8	2,4
XIII.	0,0	0,2	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
XI.	0,8	0,0	0,0	0,4	0,8	0,4
I.	0,1	0,2	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
B.C.	1,1	0,4	0,0	0,7	1,2	0,8

because of the influence of school education, and mainly by the effect of radio and television, we succeeded in directing a lot of young people's interests towards classical music and painting. At least, the fact that we can find such names as Leonardo da Vinci, Michelangelo, Vincent van Gogh, Auguste Renoir, I.J.Repin and Pablo Picasso indicate this.

Outstanding representatives of classical music - J.S.Bach, Joseph Hydn, W.A.Mozart, Ludwig van Beethoven, Richard Wagner, Georges Bizet, Frederic Chopin, P.I.Tchaikovsky, Antonin Dvorák, Bedrich Smetana, Leonard Bernstein, as well as the Hungarians Zoltán Kodály, Béla Bartók, Ferenc Liszt and Ferenc Erkel - had a great impression on our young people. They found the characteristic features and artistic capabilities of these musicians very attractive.

The material of the investigation was processed with regard to the centuries in which the chosen personalities lived. Looking at the table we learn that the effect of the XXth. century is the strongest. It is quite obvious that this is the result of the school curriculum, but the mass media have an important role in it, too. 64.0 % of the ideals chosen in grammar schools, 68.3 % and 68.6 % in specialized grammar schools, 75.6 % and 75.0 % in schools of industrial apprentices lived in the XXth. century. Because of the effect of the outstanding personalities of literature and the sciences of the XIXth. century, as well as because of the attractiveness of music and painting of the same century, it is quite obvious that the effect of the last century is still very strong. 19.0 % of the ideals chosen by people in grammar schools, 19.6 % and 21.6 % in specialized grammar schools, 13.3 % and 18.0 % in schools of industrial apprentices lived in that century. The percentage rate of ideals chosen from previous centuries is negligible.

We had to consider the important question of our young people's general familiarity with world affairs. Do they know outstanding scientists, writers, historical personalities and political heroes of other nations? Do all these foreign personalities have an effect on our young people? For the different data referring to this point see table X.

The majority of the chosen personalities in every secondary school are Hungarian. The U.S.A. is put in second place and the

## BREAKDOWN OF THE SELECTED PERSONS BY COUNTRIES (STATES)

	Grammar school %	Specialized secondary school (Industrial branch) %	Specialized secondary school (Agricultural branch) %	School of industrial apprentices (Industrial branch) %	School of industrial apprentices (Agricultural branch) %	Total %
Albania	0,1	0,2	0,0	0,4	0,4	0,3
Australia	0,5	0,2	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,2
Austria	0,5	1,4	0,8	0,3	0,0	0,4
Belgium	0,1	0,2	0,0	0,2	0,0	0,2
Brazil	1,1	10,0	1,5	2,7	4,4	2,4
Bulgaria	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,1	0,0	0,0
Cuba	2,8	2,9	3,1	1,1	1,6	2,0
Czechoslovakia	0,5	1,3	1,5	0,0	0,0	0,4
Denmark	0,5	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,1
Egypt	0,1	0,2	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,1
France	10,1	9,3	11,1	6,8	4,8	8,0
Germany (German Federal Republic, German Democratic Republic)	7,3	8,6	7,9	4,8	6,4	6,4
Greece	2,3	0,9	0,0	0,8	1,6	1,2
Holland	1,5	1,1	0,0	0,6	2,8	1,1

Hungary	160,7	160,4	182,5	195,3	220,4	183,2
India	1,8	0,9	0,0	0,4	1,6	0,9
Ireland	0,6	0,6	3,1	1,0	1,2	0,9
Italy	4,6	6,6	4,7	6,4	4,0	5,7
Norway	0,3	0,2	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,1
Poland	6,1	2,7	0,0	1,5	1,6	2,8
Rumania	0,1	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
Soviet Union (Russia)	16,8	19,4	6,3	15,3	16,8	16,4
Spain	0,1	0,2	0,0	0,1	0,4	0,2
Sweden	0,3	1,1	0,0	0,1	0,0	0,3
Switzerland	1,1	0,6	4,7	0,4	0,0	0,7
United States of America	35,2	45,4	44,4	27,6	18,8	32,3
United Kingdom	10,1	9,8	6,3	8,7	6,8	9,4
Yugoslavia	0,6	0,0	1,5	1,9	3,2	1,3

Soviet Union in third. On literature and the arts France is put in fourth place. We find the representatives of the U.S.A. in second place and those of the Soviet Union in third in the industrial branches of specialized secondary schools. In the agricultural branches of the same type of secondary school the U.S.A. is put in second place and France in third. In our opinion, literature and pop music had an important role in determining this order. In the schools of industrial apprentices the attraction towards sports stars and pop singers is illustrated by the order of the nationalities of the chosen ideals. The U.S.A. is put in second place, England and the Soviet Union in third in this case.

We also investigated the sources of the chosen ideals of our young people. The data /see table XI/ regarding this point of view are very enlightening. If we refer only to the fact that, with the exception of the industrial branches of schools of industrial apprentices /with a slight deviation only!/, it is the school studies which dominate, then we can see that even if there are probable differences caused by the socio-cultural environment and that these differences can be traced in our different secondary schools, the result of our great efforts to eliminate the differences can be traced, too.

. In the order of the sources of the ideals, radio and television were put in second place. In both branches of schools of industrial apprentices - not by chance, and completely understandably in view of the above-mentioned connections - sports games, daily magazines /sports magazines/ were put in a very high position.

This outlined material, which referred to the most essential points only, is sufficient to describe the cultural education of our young people during the time of the investigation. By comparing the different data we can gain a picture of the essential characteristic features of this cultural level. We can refine this picture if we make inquiries into the reasons and the human characteristic features which had a determinative role concerning the choice of our young people.

In the present study we cannot go into details in analysing the 90 odd human characteristic features which we gathered in the entire material. We cannot even present whether the most valuable human characteristic feature chosen by a certain young pupil is in accordance with the social scale of values. Now we only enumerate the

WHERE THE SELECTED PERSONS ARE KNOWN FROM

	Grammar school %	Specialized secondary school (Industrial branch) %	Specialized secondary school (Agricultural branch) %	School of industrial apprentices (Industrial branch) %	School of industrial apprentices (Agricultural branch) %	Total %
From:						
School - studies	80,9	76,8	84,1	57,7	81,9	70,1
Compulsory readings	4,0	3,6	1,5	5,7	8,0	5,0
Readings	58,0	57,2	60,3	37,1	38,1	46,6
Radio	22,7	31,8	50,7	26,3	25,3	27,0
Television	53,9	47,8	42,8	63,7	57,4	57,4
Theatre	3,8	2,9	3,1	4,1	2,4	3,6
Cinema	9,8	6,6	12,6	8,7	12,8	9,1
Daily papers	14,2	16,0	7,9	14,0	7,6	13,6
Magazines	2,0	2,5	1,5	3,3	0,8	2,5
Competitions	11,8	19,9	3,1	34,4	79,3	25,9
Somewhere else	7,1	13,2	12,6	23,1	25,7	17,5

XII. Table

talent  
patriotism  
desire to learn  
artistic performance /acting/  
courage, heroism, resoluteness  
exemplary conduct, attractive personality  
persistence, perseverance  
ability to speak in public  
love of sports  
generosity, self-denial  
fighting spirit  
modesty,  
sportsmanship, fairness  
love of the people  
honesty, integrity  
will-power  
moral courage, fighting power  
revolutionary spirit, love of liberty  
gaiety, good-humour  
love of justice  
struggle for civic rights  
success, results achieved  
humanitarianism  
good appearance  
struggle against oppression  
diligence, continued effort  
consistency of principles, ideological firmness  
progressive thinking  
love of work  
popularity, good image  
love and understanding of young people  
purposiveness, determination



first 32 characteristic features according to their relative frequency /see table XII/. We think that these are human characteristic features suitable for the composing of a human ideal, and that a human ideal composed by these human characteristic features illustrates that our young people develop in a healthy way; the majority of them chose an ideal which is in accordance with our social aims and educational ideals.

Nor can we present the connections between the career chosen /or assigned by the parents/ and the ideal.

The negative tendencies traceable in the material of the investigation could be suitable for the presentation of different proposals. So from these negative tendencies proposals could be made for corrections to the curriculum, for strengthening the centrality of education in the secondary educational institutions and for the further refinement of the programme-policy of the mass media so that they might intensify their developments with special regard to programmes for young people.

The possibility of further development is given - according to decisions by the Party and the State - by making a positive change in direction of one very important factor, viz. the socio-cultural environment.

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## Изучение идеалов молодёжи

д - р Куншаги Элемер

В статье публикуется часть результатов исследований, начатых автором в 1972-м году. На основании исследований, предшествовавших данному исследованию, автор исходит из гипотезы, что на учащихся 16-17-и лет отдельные человеческие свойства обязательно оказывают влияние и одни из них являются привлекательными, достойными подражания. Поэтому и для педагогической практики необходимо и полезно исследование в определённые сроки того, какие примеры, качества человека влияют на нашу молодёжь.

Кроме этого автор предпринимает также и выявление мотивов выборов учащихся.

Исследование, лежащее в основе статьи, было проведено анкетным способом и посредством собеседований. Сведения получены от гимназистов, учащихся профессиональных средних школ и училищ. Число опрошенных достигает 4 тысяч. Следовательно, результаты исследования являются репрезентативными по всей стране.

Из данных, годных к разностороннему рассмотрению многих отношений, в статье сообщаются виды занятий, из которых учащиеся выбрали свои идеалы, столетие, в котором жили выбранные личности, указываются их национальная принадлежность и качества / мотивы /, на основе которых они выбирались.

Данные, послужившие для анализа в качестве материала, приведены в наглядных таблицах, могущих оказывать ценную помощь и педагогической практике.

## Untersuchung der Ideale von Jugendlichen

Dr. Elemér Kunsági

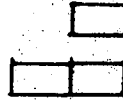
In der Abhandlung berichtet der Verfasser über einen Teil der Ergebnisse seiner im Jahre 1972 begonnenen Untersuchungen. Auf Grund der Untersuchungen, die der jetzt laufenden vorhergegangen sind, geht er davon aus, dass einige menschliche Eigenschaften auf 16-17-jährige Jugendliche unbedingt von grosser Wirkung und für sie sympatisch und folgenwert seien. Deshalb ist es für die pädagogische Praxis durchaus nötig und nützlich, von Zeit zu Zeit zu untersuchen, was für Ideale, Persönlichkeitsmerkmale auf unsere Jugendlichen wirken. Darüber hinaus hat der Verfasser auch unternommen, die Motive der Wahl von Jugendlichen zu ergründen.

Die der Abhandlung zugrundeliegende Messung wurde durch Fragebogenmethode und Gruppengespräche bzw. Gruppenbefragung durchgeführt. An der Untersuchung nahmen 16-17-jährige - Schüler von Gymnasien, Fachmittel- und Facharbeiterschulen - Teil und fast 4.000 Jugendliche wurden in den Gesprächen befragt. Die Ergebnisse sind deshalb auch landesrepräsentativ.

Von den mannigfaltigen, auf die Untersuchung vieler Zusammenhänge anwendbaren Daten teilt der Verfasser hier die folgenden mit: die Berufe, die bei der Wahl von Idealen bei den Jugendlichen vorgekommen sind, das Jahrhundert, in dem die gewählten Persönlichkeiten lebten bzw. leben, ihre nationale Verteilung, sowie die Persönlichkeitsmerkmale /Motive/, auf Grund deren sie gewählt wurden. Die Daten werden in Tabellen veranschaulicht, und auf ihre Grundlage werden Analysen durchgeführt, sowie für die pädagogische Praxis nützliche Schlüsse gezogen und Richtlinien angegeben.

· A p p e n d i x





Seal of the School

BASIC INFORMATION

Sex of the pupil:

1 girl

2 boy

Corresponding figure to be crossed!

Occupation of the father: . . . . .

Occupation of the mother: . . . . .

The highest level of the father's school education:

1 Less than eight years of general school

2 Eight years of general school:

Corresponding figure to be crossed!

3 Secondary school:

4 University, college, institute of higher education

The highest level of the mother's school education:

1 Less than years of general school:

2 Eight years of general school

Corresponding figure to be crossed!

3 Secondary school

4 University, college, institute of higher education

READ THE FOLLOWING PASSAGE CAREFULLY!

On the following questionnaire /I., II., and III.paragraphs/ enumerate the names of three personalities you hold in the highest esteem, who are the most sympathetic to you, that is to say, who had the greatest influence on you.

You can choose names from any kind of occupation, any profession except you parents, close relatives, teachers. If one of the persons you choose is not well known, denote his/her profession and nationality.

The persons chosen can be alive and deceased. It does not matter in which age or century they lived.

Finally, the personalities chosen by you can be natives or foreigners. At school you learned about famous personalities about writers, poets, scientists, discoverers, historical heroes, politicians. You read about noted personalities as well, but you may have had a chance to get acquainted with personalities acting, working in various fields, from newspapers, weeklies, periodicals, pictorial magazines, the cinema, radio or television.

Thus there must be personalities you got to know, for whom you feel respect and sympathy, who had and still have an influence on you. You have to enumerate three of these, and answer questions referring to them.

I. . . . .

a b c d e

f g h i j

k l m n o

--	--

Where do you know him/her from?

/Cross code letter of the correct answer. If you do not find a suitable answer, write your answer on the dotted line!/  
.....  
.....

- a from your studies at school
- b from your compulsory readings
- c other readings
- d from the radio
- e from television
- f from the theatre
- g from the cinema
- h from newspapers
- i from pictorial magazines
- j from sports

ori . . . . .  
.....  
.....

Enumerate those qualities of his/hers, why you respect, hold in esteem, follow him/her.

.....  
.....  
.....

--	--	--	--	--	--



II. . . . .

a b c d e  
f g h i j    
k l m n o

Where do you know him/her from?

/Cross code letter of the correct answer. If you do not find a suitable answer, write your answer on the dotted line!/  
.....

- a from your studies at school
- b from your compulsory readings
- c other readings
- d from the radio
- e from television
- f from the theatre
- g from the cinema
- h from newspapers
- i from pictorial magazines
- j from sports

or: .....  
.....

Enumerate those qualities of his/hers, why you respect, hold in esteem, follow him/her.

.....  
.....  
.....

III. . . . .

a b c d e  
f g h i j    
k l m n o

Where do you know him/her from?

/Cross code letter of the correct answer. If you do not find a suitable answer, write your answer on the line dotted!/  
.....

- a from your studies at school
- b from your compulsory readings
- c other readings
- d from the radio
- e from television
- f from the theatre
- g from the cinema
- h from newspapers
- i from pictorial magazines
- j from sports

Or: .....  
.....

Enumerate those qualities of his/hers why you respect, hold in esteem, follow him/her.

Finally we ask you to answer the next 3 questions!

1. What profession do you prepare for?  
.....
2. Was your choice out of free will? yes - no /Underline correct answer!  
.....
3. If not, what would you/have liked/ to become?  
.....

--	--	--	--	--

I. Table

GRAMMAR SCHOOL

1. Angela Davis
  2. Sándor Petőfi /poet/<sup>+</sup>
  3. Endre Ady /poet/
  4. V.I. Lenin
  5. Attila József /poet/
  6. Lajos Kossuth /historical hero/
  7. M. Curie
  8. Heroes of weekdays
  9. Jane and Peter Fonda
  10. Tamás Vitrai /TV reporter/
- 

<sup>+</sup> The profession of the chosen person was denoted only in case of Hungarians

II. Table

SPECIALIZED SECONDARY SCHOOL

/Industrial branch/

1. Angela Davis
2. Sándor Petőfi /poet/
3. Endre Ady /poet/
4. Heroes of weekdays
5. V.I. Lenin
6. Lajos Kossuth /historical hero/
7. Miklós Radnóti /poet/
8. J.A. Gagarin
9. Miklós Páncsics /sportsman/
10. Jane and Peter Fonda

III. Table

SPECIALIZED SECONDARY SCHOOL  
/Agricultural branch/

1. Angela Davis
2. Sándor Petőfi /poet/
3. Endre Ady /poet/
4. Mihály Munkácsi /painter/
5. Heroes of weekdays
6. Andrea Gyarmati /sportsman/
7. Miklós Radnóti /poet/
8. János Arany /poet/
9. Ernst Hemmingway
10. Tamás Major /actor/

IV. Table

SCHOOL OF INDUSTRIAL APPRENTICES  
/Industrial branch/

1. Heroes of weekdays
2. Sándor Petőfi /poet/
3. Angela Davis
4. V.I. Lenin
5. Attila József /poet/
6. Endre Ady /poet/
7. Gyula Bodrogi /actor/
8. Miklós Táncsics /sportsman/
9. Flórián Albert /sportsman/
10. J.A. Gagarin

V. Table

SCHOOL OF INDUSTRIAL APPRENTICES

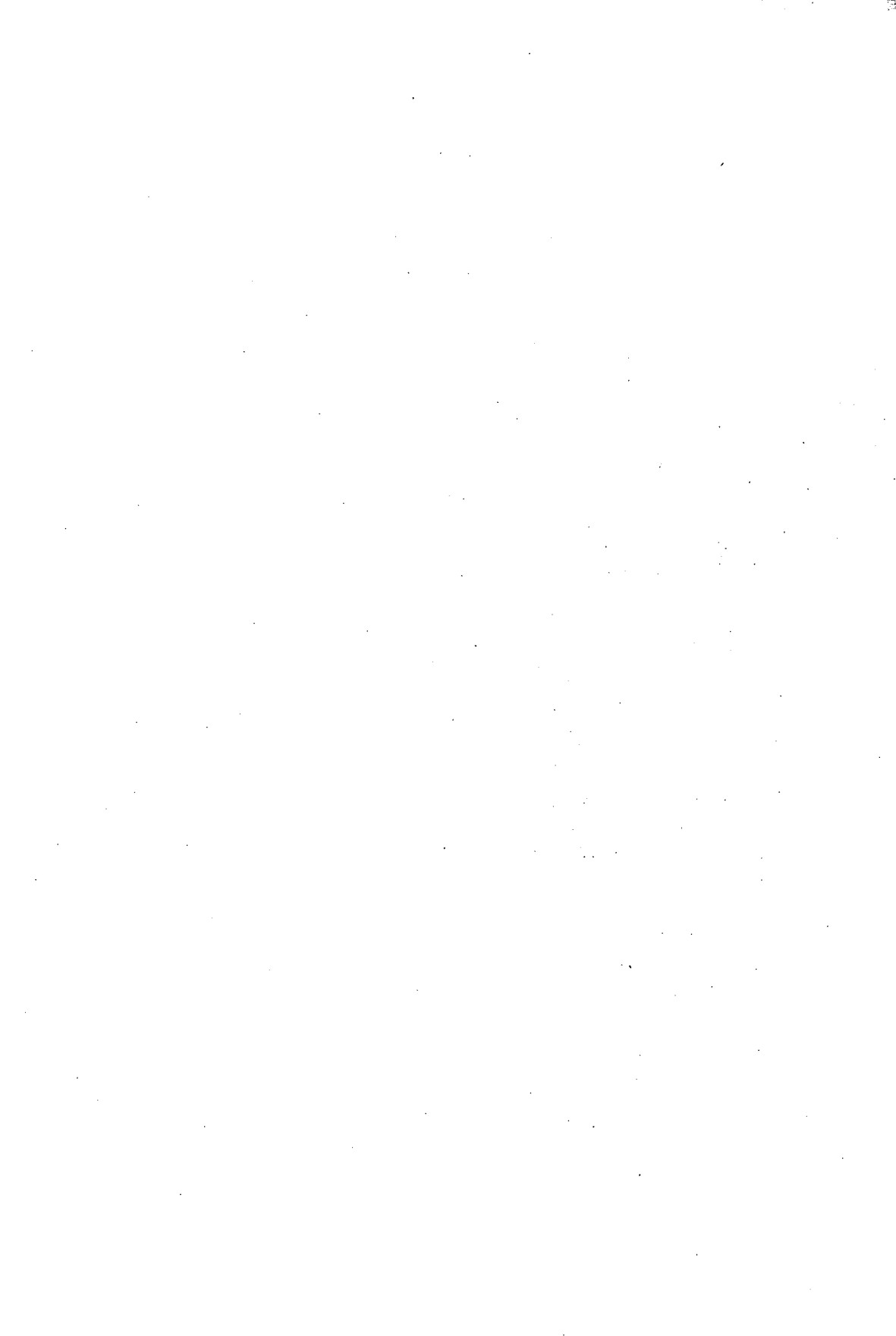
/Agricultural branch/

1. Heroes of weekdays
2. Sándor Petőfi /poet/
3. Angela Davis
4. V.I. Lenin
5. Endre Ady /poet/
6. Attila József /poet/
7. Kálmán Mikszáth /writer/
8. László Papp /sportsman/
9. Miklós Radnóti /poet/
10. Zsuzsa Koncz /pop singer/

VI. Table

TOTAL

1. Heroes of weekdays
2. Sándor Petőfi /poet/
3. Endre Ady /poet/
4. V.I. Lenin
5. Attila József /poet/
6. Lajos Kossuth /historical hero/
7. Miklós Páncsics /sportsman/
8. J.A. Gagarin
9. Miklós Radnóti /poet/
10. Flórián Albert /sportsman/



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Dr. Nagy József: A III. éves tanárszakos egyetemi hallgatók iskolai megfigyeléseinek tapasztalatai  
Dr. Kunsági Elemér: A vidéki iskolai gyakorlatok néhány tapasztalata



8. Gyűjteményes kötet, 1964. A Szegedi József Attila Tudományegyetem Neveléstudományi és Lélektani Intézetében készült disszertációk I. Tartalom:
- Orosz Sándor: Középiskolai fogalmazástanítás /1962/  
 Nagy József: Az idegen nyelvi készségek és jártasságok kialakításának néhány problémája /1963/  
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9. Gyűjteményes kötet, 1965. A Szegedi József Attila Tudományegyetem Neveléstudományi és Lélektani Intézetében készült disszertációk II. Tartalom:
- Németh Kálmán: A tanulói személyiség pszichológiai megismertésének néhány elméleti és gyakorlati problémája /1965/  
 Veczkó József: A környezeti ártalmak és személyiségzavarok néhány pszichológiai problémája /1965/  
 Veszprémi László: A pszichofizikai regenerálódás hatása a tanulók munkateljesítményére /1964/
10. Gyűjteményes kötet, 1966. Tartalom:
- Dr. Ágoston György: Az oktatás korszerűsítése mint társadalmi szükséglet  
 Dr. Duró Lajos: A szociometriai módszerek pedagógiai alkalmazásának metodológiai problémáiról  
 Dr. Orosz Sándor: A középiskolai tanárjelöltek nevelési gyakorlatáról
11. Dr. Orosz Sándor: A tanulók fogalmazási teljesítményének egzakt mérési lehetőségéről  
 Dr. Veczkó József: Adatok a tanulók iskolához való viszonyának pszichológiai vizsgálatához  
 Kerekesné Nagy Mária: A gimnáziumi pszichológia-oktatás személyiségalkító hatásáról
12. Dr. Ágoston György, Kerekesné Nagy Mária, dr. Kunsági Elemér, Nagyné dr. Varga Margit, dr. Nagy János, dr. Rózsa Éva és dr. Orosz Sándor: A IV. osztályos gimnáziumi tanulók körében végzett, a hazafias nevelés eredményeit vizsgáló felmérés tapasztalatai  
 Dr. Rózsa Éva: A pedagógiai szociológia a gyakorló pedagógus munkájában  
 Dr. Veczkó József: A tanulók iskolához való viszonyát alakító hatások pszichológiai vizsgálata

13. Dr. Nagy János: A Tanácsköztársaság közoktatásügyi tapasztalatainak felhasználása szocialista közoktatásügyünk fejlesztésében a felszabadulás után
- Dr. Ágoston György-Dr. Kunsági Elemér: A gyermekek eszményképeinek vizsgálata
- Dr. Duró Lajos: A személyiség szociometriai vizsgálatának módszertani problémái
- Dr. Veidner János: A fajsúly-fogalom, a súly- és fajsúlyszámítás elágazásos programja az általános iskola 6. osztályában
14. György Ágoston: Des formules de coopération gouvernement-Université pour l'application d'un programme de recherche pédagogique /Document de travail pour la réunion d'experts sur la recherche pédagogique Toronto /Canada/, 26-30 août 1968/
- Irena Wojnar: /Warszawa/: L'art et formation humaine intégrale
- Éva Rózsa: Die Formen der ganzheitlichen Bildung und Erziehung in Ungarn und die wichtigsten pädagogischen Erfahrungen
- András Vágvölgyi: Young graduates and identification with their chosen career
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