

Miletta Dina

Crossroads: Effective Methods to Support Adult Learning

Miletta Dina

**CROSSROADS:
EFFECTIVE METHODS TO SUPPORT
ADULT LEARNING**

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E-mail: projekt@jgypk.u-szeged.hu
Web: www.jgypk.u-szeged.hu/df

Translator:
András Bernáth

Lector:
Valérius Cser Antalné Dr.

Cover design:
Lajos Forró

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1. INTRODUCTION: AT THE CROSSROADS

The Teacher is going on the ROAD... One step after another:
"What? For whom? By what? How? Why? Who? What's the point?"

The Student is going on the ROAD... One step after another:
"Why?...What's the point?"

Who? Me???

How???

What!? What not...

In whose... interest? ... Or not?

WHY?... WHY? ... WHY?"

A crossroads is the crossing of two or more roads at the same level, converging into each other, or diverging... well, it is right here that the adult learner and the teacher MEET each other.

Everyone has arrived on their own road, and now stops for a moment, or perhaps just slows down, and goes on ... one's own way or ROAD.

But at the CROSSROADS something happens...

2.THE PROCESS OF LEARNING AND TEACHING, THE BASIS OF THE APPLICATION OF METHODS

2.1. The teaching method "How? With What?"

The term **method** derives from the ancient Greek word *methodos* and it means way or process: the way leading toward the destination, or the processes resulting in the aim are meant by that. The **teaching method** means the way or route leading to the aim of teaching or the processes resulting in getting the knowledge acquired.

The teaching method is the "how?" of the mediation of the teaching material: a constant and repetitive element of teaching.

When an instructor selects a method, he (or she) seeks the answer not only for the question "**HOW?**", but also for the following seven questions. Through these questions combined, whether consciously or instinctively, he can find his own answers for the main question: **what are the effective methods to support adult learning?**

- For whom?
- Why?
- Who?
- For what purpose?
- What?
- How?
- By what?

The teaching method stimulates and regulates the whole process of teaching and learning, and the content of the teaching material is conveyed through that. A method also includes those processes through which the learners are given concrete tasks or exercises: we make them perform concrete tasks of thinking and acting in order to gain and apply information, or to learn to do tasks of thinking and acting. They practise these, so that they acquire skills or, in some cases, algorithms, schemes or stereotypes, and they can develop their reproductive, problem solving and creative skills. The methods include various procedures or tricks. For instance, the procedures of the method of explanation can be the application of examples, the logical structure of the teaching material, or demonstration. Demonstration or illustration can be a part or a procedure of another method as well, but it can also be an independent method.

At the same time, the teaching method itself contains an array of information and processes of thinking and acting, which develop in the instructor of the adults on the level of skills and abilities, and manifest themselves in education: at times as algorithms, schemes or stereotypes, simple reproductions; sometimes through problem solving; at times creatively, occasionally through intuitions.

The methods of teaching can be aimed at groups or individuals (and individuals within the groups), they can be direct, they can aim to cover the learning process in a possibly most detailed and comprehensive manner; or they can be indirect, covering merely a few elements of learning. They can appear in a single oral, written or active gesture of the instructor, and also in a long series of exercises.

The various teaching methods can be applied to achieve not only a single aim of teaching; at the same time, the requirements of the set aims of teaching cannot be fully met by a single method; therefore the various methodological procedures must be based on each other. However, as Seneca warns us, *if one does not know to which port one is sailing, no wind is favorable*. The instructor must develop. Consciously.

The teaching methods move the basic line of learning: the acts of selection, reception, storage, recollection, further use and application, or generate and regulate the phases of repetition and understanding. The main steps of the student's learning process are the following.

1. SELECTION¹
2. RECEPTION
3. STORAGE
4. RECOLLECTION
5. APPLICATION

The teaching methods are such simple or complex activities through which the tasks of given stage of the process of teaching and learning can be solved.²

Our methods responsibly serve the realisation of the aim of teaching and learning, they prescribe the relevant procedures and the order of the procedures, therefore the following points should be taken into account at the selection of the method (ZRINSZKY, 1996): the aim to be realised, the content to be conveyed, the personal conditions, and the objective conditions. That is: Why? For what purpose? What? Who should teach whom? By what and how?

2.2. Learning: the learning adult "For whom? How?"

2.2.1. Learning

The education of adults is not only teaching, but, at the same time, also a **process of teaching and learning**. "The teaching process is realised by one person, the learning by the other; therefore, if we want the process of teaching and learning to progress together successfully, there must be a unique relationship between the two independent organisms: a kind of "connection", link or bridge between the teacher and the student" (GORDON, 1989). The mission of the methods applied in the processes of teaching and learning is to help the possibly most effective learning by the adult, to control and influence the process of acquiring knowledge, that is, learning.

¹ Seizing the relevant and eliminating the irrelevant from the incoming stimuli, information or elements of knowledge.

² FELNŐTTKÉPZÉSI LEXIKON. MPT-OKI-SZAKTUDÁS KIADÓ HÁZ, BUDAPEST, 2002

The learning process of the adult is a universal manifestation of the activity of the psyche, which is characterised by individual traits, and is a multifaceted and complicated development that concerns the whole personality and expresses the relationship of the individual to his natural and social environment (CSOMA, GY., 2009). The phenomenon of the learning adult can be approached from several aspects; theories of learning offer the teacher the basis to support the learning process more effectively, and to select the relevant educational methods.

2.2.2. Theories of learning

The **associations theory** regards the process of learning as a connection of concepts or ideas, an activity of associations. This knowledge-centred practice is based on the assumption that *the more ideas or concepts one has, the more one knows*, or the cleverer one is; it allows more and more diverse associations, therefore the main task of learning is to increase the base of associations. In the teaching practice this is the approach that aims to *"pour as much information as possible into the student's head"*.

According to the **behaviourist theories of learning**, the essence of learning lies in the linking processes of stimuli and responses (S-R), therefore, when they describe the process of learning as a connection of stimulus and response, they lay the emphasis on trial, flawlessness, and the element of confirmation. They have provided the teaching practice with a theoretical background of learning, for instance, in the so-called programmed education, the feedback scheme of distance learning is also confirmed and motivated by learning orientation, diagnostic and assessment tests.

The so-called **problem-solving theory of learning**, which can be associated to Dewey, Lewin and Ferenc Lénárd, regards learning as a *problem-solving process*. Learning starts by facing the problem situations, and arrives at the solution of the problem through trials and errors. The learning process is in fact a of problem-solving process, which leads to new knowledge and *new procedures of action*. In this approach and the related teaching practice, recording and recollecting the information and actions are tied to problem-solving

process; they are never a simple reproduction of the information conveyed by the instructor.

Concerning practice, the integrated theories of learning have been devised, for instance, the **kinesthetic-interiosation theories**, which regard the "*transposition*" of the activities concerning movement, practice or objects into a mental level as the essence of learning. Piaget's cognitive psychological approach and Vygotsky's *theory of cognitive acting* are rooted here.

Another approach is offered by the **sociocultural-communicative theories of learning**, which highlight the *learning code and the forms of the reception and processing of information*, and explore their social stratification and socio-cultural significance in the process of the learner's acquisition of knowledge.

There is not a single theory among the theories of learning that would provide a complex and universal description of the learning process, therefore the methodologies of learning, which are tuned to the various theoretical approaches, cannot be regarded as universal either. As the practice regards the learning adult entity in a complex way, so is the *integrated* approach of the theories valid: supposing that learning is an associative function, as well as a stimulus-response connection; it is also an interiosation of the practical activities, as well as a socio-culturally determined reception and processing of information, therefore it can also be regarded as communication. This integrated approach cumulates in the so-called **cognitive theory of learning**.

Constructivism is essentially a special cognitive theory, according to which human knowledge is the result of construction, that is, the cognitive person constructs an internal world that organises, receives and interprets his or her experiences. A very important function of this inner world or world concept is to process, interpret and structure the information received by the cognitive person, and this is nothing else but learning.

According to the **constructivist theory of learning**, learning is a constant construction, the continuous creation of the internal world (PÁLVÖLGYI, FERENC, 2012). The truth of knowledge is interpreted from the point of its *viability*³, or usefulness for the individual's survival.

³ The English-language literature on the subject describes viable knowledge as adaptability (FEKETÉNÉ-SZAKOS, ÉVA, 2002. 37.).

The essence of the constructivist pedagogy is that learning is a personal, individual, internal constructivist process that creates knowledge. **We do not receive knowledge, but create and construct it within ourselves** (NAHALKA, 2008).

In the constructivist interpretation of knowledge, **prior knowledge** is very significant. Prior knowledge is unique to every learner, a knowledge-construction that is typical solely of the individual. In case of learning adults, the longer life and learning experience results in a much more diverse and complex prior knowledge than in case of children. The new knowledge, which the individual meets in the course of learning, meets the prior knowledge constructions, and is connected to some of their elements. The new knowledge that is conveyed in the course of education is received by the learner through the filter of the individual prior knowledge, and creates new, individual knowledge-constructions, or alters the prior perspective of the learning adult. To put it simply, in terms of the applied methods, all this means that, depending on one's own interpretation of the received information, everyone learns something else and somewhat differently from the same method that is applied to convey knowledge. Therefore, in the course of education, as different knowledge-constructions are created in a group of learners as different and unique the prior knowledge-constructions are.

2.2.3. The learning individual

2.2.3.1. Learning and changing

Learning is also a change: learning can cause lasting changes in the learning individual (NAHALKA, 1998). Change means the development of a new state, which is different from a certain earlier state, until its prolonged nature guarantees that the new state is fixed as a lasting one. As a result of the change, lasting changes can take place in knowledge; these changes can affect the imaginative-conceptual-operational structures: their content, linguistic structures, settings, that is, the systems of knowledge and skills.

The learning process is therefore a change in which new knowledge is generated. In this changing process, through the activity of learning, the learning adult's personality and relationship to his or her environment is changing, developing and forming as a new quality.

The effect of learning on personality development

According to LIEBERMAN – YALOM – MILES'S concept of learning (1973), there is a change in the situation of group learning

1. in **interpersonal openness**, in the learning individuals' attitude to others. They have more trust in each other, they become more open, they express their opinion, and they give and expect feedback;
2. in the **growth of identity, self-esteem and self-evaluation** are increased. The extension of internal control and of the boundaries of the self can be observed;
3. **tolerance** and the **acceptance of others** are increased. This involves a change in general evaluation, in an easier acceptance of others' opinions and faults;
4. the personal problem solving strategies (coping): facing the problems becomes more typical than the denying or evading behaviour;
5. the individual's values change toward humanistic goals. (RUDAS, 1990)

The so-called Johari window shows that our personality is divided in two dimensions: areas known to us or to others, and areas that are not known.

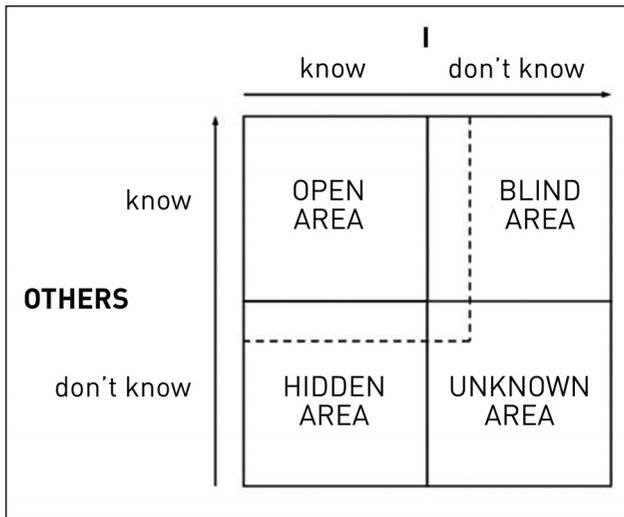


Figure 1.: The Johari window

As the figure shows (Fig. 1. The Johari window), our behaviour can be divided into four fields, according to the two dimensions.

- **Open area:** which is known and perceived by others too.
- **Hidden area:** which is consciously hidden by us from others.
- **Blind area:** which is perceived by others, but which we are unaware of.
- **Unknown area:** which is known neither to us, nor to others; the unconscious.

The borders between these depend on the individual, on the prior events (e.g. prior "school experiences": successes or failures in learning), the situation (the actual context of learning), the nature of the interpersonal relationships (to the other members of the learning group or the instructor).

In the process of group learning the *self-knowledge* of the learning adult develops: after experiencing the borders, the former borderlines are moved, the open space increases; at the same time, as a result of self-reflection and reflection, the blind and hidden areas decrease (RUDAS, 1990).

2.2.3.2. Developing learning

In case of an adult, learning means not only the acquisition of know information, but also the gaining of key competencies according to the social requirements: confidence, the toleration of failure, initiative, entrepreneurial skills, social skills, participation in group work, the ability of attending to others.

Developing learning starts at the moment of birth, and it covers the first half of human life, but, with individual alterations, it continues to the age of 50. As a result of education, the personality is fashioned, and the career and the future prospects are formed. It is centred around developing skills, personal competencies, general knowledge and basic professional skills. In addition to or after the education in the school system, young adults study in order to they find their place and to feel comfortable in their own narrow or

broader environment. The main point of learning is to acquire professional skills and a constructive life style. After the formal education, higher education or vocational schools, as a response to external demands, the employer specialises their knowledge, expecting the acquisition of new professional or vocational skills. In the second half of human life, learning aims at enriching and renewing the personality, to confirm the mature self-awareness and self-knowledge, and to realise one's personal goals. Adults need re-training programmes, because they need new alternatives in their career, and they can remain a part of the changing world and job market in that way. Because of the limited time available and the numerous, heavily loaded social roles, they are forced to study intensively.

In Mezirow's model of **transformative learning**⁴, in adult learning there is a central role of **learning by experience**: critical review, reflection and rational discourse in the changing process of the individual's frame of interpretation, and forming the schemes of meaning, the basic assumptions, attitudes and emotional responses.

However, this process can take place in its full complexity only if the individual is committed to the reflections concerning the experiences and learning. An important element of the transformative learning process is that the students are given the opportunity to learn by their own experience, to face the necessity to solve problematic situations on their own, to experience collaborative learning situations, where they can exchange their experiences and comment on their related emotions and views.

In this case, the *supporting and facilitating role of the instructor* lies in the organisation of group work, debate, discussion and actions aiming at a common frame of interpretation.

As distinct from the traditional education in a classroom (at school), the instructor of adults, in the role of a facilitator, can support the adult

⁴ KISS ISTVÁN: ÉLETVEZETÉSI KOMPETENCIA. ÉSZLELT ÉLETVEZETÉSI ÉNHATÉKONYSÁG MINTÁZAT ELEMZÉSE TANÁCSADÁSI SZOLGÁLTATÁSOKAT IGÉNYBE VEVŐ FELSŐOKTATÁSI HALLGATÓK MINTÁJÁN. PHD DISSERTATION. EÖTVÖS LÓRÁND UNIVERSITY (ELTE), FACULTY OF PEDAGOGY AND PSYCHOLOGY, PSYCHOLOGY DOCTORAL SCHOOL, BUDAPEST, 2009. ACCESSED 20. 03. 2012., [HTTP://PSZICHOLOGIA.PHD.ELTE.HU/VEDESEK/2009/KISSISTVN_LETVEZETESI_KOMPETENCIA_PHD2009K.PDF](http://pszichologia.phd.elte.hu/vedesek/2009/KISSISTVN_LETVEZETESI_KOMPETENCIA_PHD2009K.PDF)

student by creating a favourable emotional learning environment and providing the opportunity of continuous education. As a result, the adult will be able to step out from the daily routine, can think more effectively, better concentrate and respond to the new information. According to Finkel, the motivations of studying as an adult are the confirmation of the social position or the professional status and the renewal of the personality. In the social environment of studying in pairs or groups, words, attitudes, situations, conceptions, people and examples can generate emotional associations; they can inspire the learning process. The communicative environment has a direct influence on the process of teaching and learning. It is enhanced by the sense of freedom and comfort (safety).

2.2.3.3. Success-oriented or failure-avoiding

As learning is a universal manifestation of the personality, we can also evaluate such character traits that, directly or indirectly, influence the learning process and, at the same time, highlight the individual differences in learning. The individual relationship to success and failure can be categorised as the *success-oriented* and the *failure-avoiding character* types.

The level of needs or expectations is formulated at the beginning of the learning process by the learning adult: this is an expectation and an ambition set for himself (or herself) about the performance to be achieved during the studies. Later on, this level of expectations is set against the actual results that are achieved (*level of performance*). By comparing the level of expectations to the level of performance, if the learning adult's performance reaches or surpasses the level of expectations, he or she experiences success; if the performance is below the level of expectations, it causes an experience of failure in the learning process.

Successes motivate the expectation of performance, and raise the level of expectations; failures also raise the level of expectations for a while. However, after a point of a series of failure, this motivating effect ceases, and this causes the deterioration of the performance; moreover, the student may even give up the unsuccessful activity.

Successes and failures function as significant motivational forces. In the teaching and learning process, the attitude to successes and failures has a direct influence on the process and the success of learning.

While learning or studying, the **failure-avoiding character type** is characterised by

- having difficulties in tolerating his failures; his ability to tolerate failure has remained on a relatively low level;
- avoiding experiences that may lead to a failure;
- avoiding risks, that is, those activities that might lead to failure, and
- trying to set his level of needs or expectations as low as possible.
- all this makes him passive and makes it difficult to develop his skills or improve his or her performance;
- the failure avoiding attitude does not reflect the level of individual talent or cleverness, but often it, or hinders its realisation.

In the learning process, the **success-oriented character type** is characterised by

- striving for success;
- coping with his failures relatively easily;
- his level of tolerating success is relatively high, even though his successes do not necessarily motivate the constant increase of the level of his needs; it is rather the guaranteed success that is important;
- all this makes him active, which contributes to the development of his other skills or abilities, if he can indeed raise the level of his needs;
- the success-oriented attitude relatively easily hides the limitations of individual talent or cleverness, but, on the other hand, makes it easier to realise these abilities.

Avoiding failure makes the learning process more difficult, while being success-oriented makes it easier. They affect learning as motivational factors, but they also influence the amount of energy put into the steps of learning. All in all, they determine the personal relationship to learning and the learning or study materials.

2.2.3.4. Extrovert and introvert students

The characteristics of the psychological character types that influence the process of learning are the so-called introversion and extroversion, or the character turning inward or outward.

In the educational situation, the student with an **introvert character**

- turns toward himself; he is closed, quiet, a shy person, whose "attention is inward";
- finds it difficult to talk;
- has difficulties in starting new relationships, prefers the company of books to that of men;
- reliable but somewhat pessimistic;
- tends to lead a regulated way of life, likes to plan ahead;
- feels comfortable in the lonely situations of learning or studying, in the so-called individual process of learning;
- is difficult to be activated when learning is based on group work;
- strictly controls his emotions and seldom behaves aggressively;
- performs better in written exams than in oral ones.

In the educational situation, the student with an **extrovert character**

- turns outward, toward the world; is sociable and tends to like variety;
- is open to the outside world, toward people; needs people around him, so that he can talk to them;
- finds it easy to start relationships;
- likes public life, tends to lead a less regulated way of life, and may even be exuberant;
- does not like to read or study alone, and likes to look for a partner or partners even for doing the individual parts of learning or studying;
- is more active in learning or studies based on group work;

- tends to perform better at exams than the introvert type, tolerates the public at the exams more easily, as well as the interpersonal relationship of the examiner and the examined.

The introvert or extrovert nature of the student's character affects the conditions of learning or studying: the interpersonal relationships of learning, the student's attention, interest, will power, the motivations of learning, and even the realisation of the actions of learning.

Types of learning: conscious and unconscious learning

The learning or studying experiences of the learning adult are not always conscious; thus we can talk about **automatic** or **unconscious learning** (e.g. an activity is done consciously, but it is not regarded as an activity of learning).

Some examples for the various types of learning:

HEBB (1978) describes the so-called **latent (or hidden) form of learning**, the type of learning situations like "I know that... even though I do not know if I have ever learnt about it". In this type, we can find the thing to be learnt, from which one can learn, and the knowledge is gained; the point is that it is gained in a way that the way or path to knowledge or learning itself remains unconscious. The learning process is completely unconscious, and it is not realised as learning. What is realised is the knowledge that is gained. Hebb describes the following situation as an example: someone sees that another driver is stuck with his car on the icy hill. Is there an instance of learning in this situation, and if so, what kind of learning? At this point, we cannot tell, but later on we can see that the person in question puts on chains in the icy weather. Thus we can find the behavioural evidence of learning.

The so-called **model-based learning**, or social model-based learning, is the unconscious or conscious selection of behavioural patterns or social roles, and their unconscious or conscious acceptance. In all this, an original function of the human psyche plays a major role: imitation. Other important constituents are the mental or

emotional attachments, the identification with the model. Empathy, or the ability to identify with the psychological state of the other person, also contributes to the development of identification. Model-based learning is characteristic not only of social learning. It can be typical in the learning of various movement patterns or motor functions (e.g. in sports or work).

In the so-called **additional learning**, which is achieved through another activity that is not aimed at learning, as the original activity realises its goal (which is not concerned with learning something), and its result is achieved, at the same time, it also results in some new knowledge. The "learner" does not recognize the learning component as learning, as he is not actually learning, but is concentrating on another useful activity. He is doing this "other" activity consciously and in a focussed way, during which he learns something, of which it may appear in the course of organised education and learning that he already knows that, even though he did not actually learn that. At work, or at an office, in our conversations, or while using various tools, we acquire and incorporate information, mental and physical activities. This concerns not only that adult who is in the role of the student, but the instructor too.

In **learning as an independent activity** (RUBINSTEIN, 1964), the acquisition of knowledge is not only the result of the activity, but also its aim. The activity is specifically and characteristically organised for learning something, and its result is knowledge. Therefore knowledge is the result of an activity that is aimed at acquiring it. If learning is an independent activity, we experience it as learning. What we do is learning, and, as a result, we acquire new information or knowledge. Then we can use the acquired knowledge in another activity that is not concerned with learning. The course of learning as an independent activity can be longer or shorter, complete or partial too. It can occur spontaneously ("just so happen"), as it is brought about by a certain situation in one's life through the direct condition of the performance of a task that is not concerned with learning, or it can be achieved purely by the power of one's interest. And it can also take place as a result of organised steps, as a more or less lasting programme.

2.2.4. The psychological conditions of learning

The groups of ideas-concepts-actions (organised into pieces of information and functioning as skills) are complemented by psychological functions that are "attached" to learning and are regarded as its psychological conditions or requirements: attention, interest, and willpower. It must be added that in the working and development of these functions, learning has a major role: the ability to pay attention, the ability of being interested, and the ability of willpower are evolved through learning. Attention, interest, and willpower are both the requirements and the results of learning. In the same way, the motivations of learning (motives) and the attitudes concerning learning (orientations) are also "attached" to learning.

2.2.5. Motivation in learning

Motivations (motives) are psychological factors that begin and move the activities. They are present in the personality in a conscious and emotionally loaded manner. They determine the orientation of the activity toward a certain goal, even if the given goal is only opaquely or partially defined, and it is rather the emotions related to it that become conscious.

At the moment our motives are conceived, we already have an *anticipation*: an expectation that the activity we start will satisfy the *needs* related to the motives, that is, the activity corresponds to the motives that trigger it. If the anticipation receives a negative feedback in the course of the activity (the expected result – already noticeably – will not meet the requirements, or will only partially meet them), the *activity starts to stall or pause*, it becomes feeble, or it may even be terminated. The feedbacks concerning the anticipation have a major role in the process of learning, in the development of its results or failures.

The learning motivation of the adult is an important question in choosing the subject of study, in maintaining the successful process of learning, and also from the point of success in the learning performance.

An adult is held back from learning

1. **Lack of interest:** He does not like to participate in an education or training whose aim is not clearly visible and reasonable for him, or if the aim is too detached and general, or perhaps may seem unrealistic or impossible to be achieved.
2. **Pedagogical situation:** An adult is alarmed if he (or she) finds that he is not treated as an adult, but, purely because of his status as a student, he is treated like a child – this is against the style and methods that are typical of a school in the wrong sense.
3. **The relationship is not an adult-adult type:** He is discouraged and drops out if the educational system does not take into account his personal situation, primarily the fact that his familial status and work determine the time for studying.
4. **The environment is not supportive:** He is discouraged from formal or institutional studying if the atmosphere in the group is unsatisfactory or even threatening, which may be caused by an extreme pressure to perform or compete, or perhaps by the inequality of opportunity.

2.2.6. Motivating the learning adult

In the process of learning and teaching, adults think about learning in a *practical* manner, they tend to study *according to their interests*, and seldom because of a motive. In the course of learning, when they are asked why they study, they can better communicate their motivations that are in their own interest, rather than their personal motivations related to their special interests and the development of their skills and abilities.

Adults are typically motivated to learn or study by:

1. better *job opportunities*, the hope of a bigger *salary*, or a rise in *social prestige*;
2. the *need of being up-to-date*, and the fear of lagging or dropping behind;
3. the opportunity of personal *development*;
4. the chance of improving social *relationships*;
5. the *interest* in the subject of study.

	Pedagogy	Andragogy
Situation of the student/ participant	Dependent	Increasing self-control
Application of the experiences	Little (though it would be necessary)	Can be applied abundantly
Readiness to study (motivation)	To social pressure	When urged (external motivation)
Application of the learnt material	Later application in adulthood	Direct application in practice
Study orientation	Subject based	Problem-centred
Atmosphere of the education	Authoritarian	Partnership, mutual respect
Organisation of the education	Formal	Informal
Relationship of students/ participants	Competitive	Cooperative
Study plan	Defined by the teacher	Together
Identification of the needs		Defined through discussions
Identification of the objectives		
The means of progress	Curriculum, pedagogical programme	Problem solving, developing skills according to problem areas
Main method	Frontal work, imparting information	Investigating/ research methods (based on the problems raised by the participants)
Evaluation	Based on the teacher's decision	Based on usefulness and feasibility, self-evaluation

Table 1.: The differences of the pedagogical and the andragogical approaches

Source: Based on KNOWLES

The motive to participate often comes not from the learning adult's environment (working place, boss, "school report", or recognition), at the same time, it can be influenced by internal, personal characteristics, such as human relationships, age, attitudes and aims concerning life.

The **role of motivation is decisive** for all participants in the process of teaching and learning:

1. for the learning adult, because if learning or the education does not meet his prior expectations, he may lose his motivation concerning both the actual and the future learning situations;
2. also for the instructor, as the capacity to involve the adult in the process of teaching and learning determines whether the knowledge will be imparted successfully and effectively.

The adult's relationship to learning is affected not only by motivating factors, but also by inhibiting ones: these are the *negative motives in learning*: e.g. job loss, the lack of promotion at work, the fear of failure concerning the complicated procedures in work, the fear of lagging or dropping behind.

The adult's learning is negatively affected

- if he (or she) cannot see the point of learning;
- if the aim is not clear;
- if he must learn something that is prescribed by others, and he cannot see its usefulness;
- if the objectives that are set for him are too distant or too difficult to accomplish;
- by previous experiences of failure in learning;
- by the actual, present experiences of failure in learning;
- by the social prejudice that adults are unable to learn, or at least they are not so bright as the young;
- if there is a strong rivalry in the student group;
- if the atmosphere is intolerant and performance-centred;
- if the organisation of the process of teaching does not take it into account that work and the family have a natural priority in the adult's life.

2.2.6.1. Types of motivation in the process of teaching and learning

The motivation of the learning adult can be

- **Low motivation:** In this case, the adult's interest is sustained only if the topic is interesting, vivid or exciting.
- **Average motivation:** Then, for the sake of the educational objective that has been set, students can tolerate the less interesting tasks too.
- **High motivation:** In this ideal situation, the adult is interested in everything, he likes learning, and his thirst for knowledge extends beyond the framework of formal education: he reads a lot and acquires new knowledge beyond the curriculum too.

The adult's personal attitude to motivation is also decisive. In this respect, we can distinguish the following types of motivation in the process of teaching and learning.

- **Internal motivation:** An innate ability of the adult to get to know reality, it is essentially his curiosity, which is sustained by interest, and whose goal is to get to know reality, so that it can be calculated.
- **Internalised motivation:** It develops in the adult as a response to external influences, and is triggered by the sense of duty, diligence and conscience.
- **External motivation:** Learning is not for itself, but for a goal that is outside learning: a reward, promotion, recognition, or to avoid a negative outcome. This type of motive can start the process of learning, but if the external motivation is over, the adult's willingness to learn can also decline.

As for the endurance of motivation, we can distinguish the following

- **Prestige motivation:** The adult's internal willpower to realise his goals, based on the desire of external recognition,
- **Actual motivation:** In the process of teaching and learning, it is concerned with doing a given task. It is not lasting: after the task is done, it is over.
- **Habitual motivation:** A motivation that endures for a long time.

2.2.6.2. Tools to motivate students

What kind of tools, techniques or methods can be used by teachers to increase the motivation of students?

- setting a problem;
- outlining the topic in advance;
- collecting the students' problems;
- educational tools: showing novelties, documents, extracts from literature, playing video recordings;
- explaining the practical usefulness;
- creating a competitive situation.

What makes the development of the motivation to learn easier?

According to Thorndike's law of effect, the more a given behaviour can *satisfy the basic needs*, the stronger imprint it can make on the memory, and the more likely it can be reproduced as a response to the adequate stimulus. Motivation has an essential effect on the student's success, performance, as well as on the very ability to learn.

The *self-generating* character of successful learning – the success of learning provides external recognition and reinforcement – develops self-confidence, increases the interest in learning, which results in further successes in learning. Failures in learning can create a similar, but negative, spiral, from which it is difficult for the student to break out.

2.2.7. Learning styles

The different character types prefer to enter the process of learning at different points: some are men of action, while others prefer to make theories. The only difference between these types concerns the point of the learning cycle at which they feel comfortable. For the instructor of the adults, this means that beyond the fact that the students are different, the learning styles of the adults participating in the group are different in several respects.

However, it is unrealistic to think that in the actual group of students such an education could be designed and realised that would perfectly suit the learning styles of the adults learning in the group, and the related individual needs. In case of group work, it is

reasonable to make the right person responsible for the right phase of the learning process. Then everyone does the task that is closer to them actively, and the results will be better for the group too.

As for the various learning/ cognitive styles, according to TENNANT (1990), the following observations can serve the effectiveness of the teaching and learning processes. According to DUNN and DUNN, the learning style is determined by an actual and characteristic combination of environmental, emotional, social, physiological and psychological characteristics, and these are the following.

1. Environmental stimuli	Sounds, lights, temperature, design
2. Emotional stimuli	Motivation, endurance, responsibility, structural features
3. Social stimuli	Individual, pair or group work, support from the instructor, variety/ routine
4. Physiological stimuli	Senses, food, part of the day, mobility
5. Psychological stimuli	Global/analytic, dominant (cerebral) hemisphere, impulsive/ reflective

Table 2.: Factors affecting the learning style (Source: DUNN – DUNN)

2.2.7.1. The learning style in the choice of method

There can be several, equally valuable methods to explain and teach a certain part of the curriculum. Instructors tend to choose from the possible methods according to their own preferences, mostly the one through which themselves were educated while acquiring the given part of the curriculum, therefore teachers pass on their learning methods too, in addition to their knowledge. If all goes well, the method thus meets the learning styles of most students, but the instruction is more effective if the teacher consciously plans the teaching method along with the content of the material to be taught. In this, he can use his familiarity with the preferred learning styles of the students.

In view of the individually preferred learning styles, the instructor can plan the teaching methods to be applied with the group in an optimal way – at least in theory. In practice, this is seldom possible for a teacher, yet he need not give up the advantages that can be drawn from his familiarity with the learning styles when planning the instruction. The characteristic features of the various learning styles can be recognised and identified in the process of teaching and learning.

2.2.7.2. The active – contemplative – theoretical – practical learning styles and their educational methods

According to HONEY – MUMFORD (1989), the different learning styles can be classified into the following four categories: 1. active, 2. contemplative, 3. theoretical, 4. practical.

ACTIVE, EXPERIMENTING	
Their principle: <i>"Once I am going to try everything."</i>	
Characteristics	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – They plunge into getting new experiences whole-heartedly, without any doubt. – They enjoy the "here and now" situations, getting direct experiences. – They are characterised by impartiality; they have no doubts, and they are enthused by every novelty. – First they act, and they measure the consequences only afterwards. – They have busy days, full of events. – They handle their problems with the brainstorming method. – They are sociable people, they tend to make relationships instantly. – They strive to put themselves into the centre of every event. 	
Their strengths	Their weaknesses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – They are flexible, open and impartial. – They like if things "go on". – They enjoy new challenges. – They accept everything new with optimism. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – They may do things without thinking them over, if they seem clear-cut at given the moment. – They often take major risks unnecessarily. – They may start doing things without enough preparation. – Carrying out things can bore them.
What kind of teaching methods suit the purely active type?	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Students must be given tasks constantly. – Interesting exercises related to the subject material should always be prepared in advance. – New challenges must be provided constantly; varied lessons should be given in a good pace. – Small-group programmes involving intense experiences are very useful. – Lengthy explanations and tasks should be avoided. – Only shorter units or parts of the textbook should be assigned for learning from the book. – Lessons should be interactive; students should be involved in the teaching of the new material. 	

Table 3.: The active learning style and its effective teaching methods

CONTEMPLATIVE, OBSERVER, SPECULATIVE	
Their principle: <i>"Be careful."</i>	
Characteristics <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - They prefer to stay in the background, to assess their experiences, and to examine them from various perspectives. - It is important for them to completely assess and analyse the data drawn from their experiences and the events, they tend to draw their conclusions as late as possible. - They prefer to sit in the back seats, to listen to the others, and to consider the power relations before offering their own points. - They tend to be reserved and to keep a low profile, everything is "quiet" around them. - They act in view of the present and the past, considering their observations, as well as those of others. 	
Their strengths <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - They are careful and attentive. - They are thorough and methodical. - They are serious. - They listen to others. - They use the information properly. - They seldom jump to conclusions. 	Their weaknesses <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - They tend to refrain from participation. - They are slow to make decisions. - They may become too careful. - They avoid major risks. - They are not assertive enough.
What kind of teaching methods suit the purely contemplative type? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The most important is to thoroughly cover the topic, whether the task is theoretical or practical. - Those units should be selected that are suitable for an elaborate common work, which takes a lot of time and supporting materials, and the presentation of similar cases. - The less important parts of the textbook can be assigned for individual work. - The time spent on the thorough analysis of some special cases is always well spent, even if consequently there is less time for other parts. - We can trust that those who perform well in a topic will also cover another one conscientiously and on a high level. - The details should also be considered carefully; there should remain no uncertainties about the material. - The difficult tasks requiring a lot of individual work are the best for practice, but the relevant literature should be provided. 	

Table 4.: The contemplative learning style and its effective teaching methods

THEORETICAL EXPERT, WHO ABSTRACT	
Their principle: <i>"Logical things are good."</i>	
Characteristics	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - They offer and use complex theories, which nevertheless appear logical. - They approach problems vertically, step by step, and formulate a coherent theory from the independent facts. - They tend to be perfectionist; they are satisfied only if things clearly and unambiguously fit into a rational framework. - They like to analyse and synthesise data. - They are fond of hypotheses, principles, theories, models and systematic thinking. - They often raise the following questions: "Does it make sense?", "What's the reason for this?", "How does it fit into this?", "What is the starting point?" 	
Their strengths	Their weaknesses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Logical and vertical thinking. - They are rational and objective. - They have a scientific approach. - They are good at asking profound questions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Less able to think laterally. - Less able to tolerate uncertainties. - Less able to tolerate ambiguities.
What kind of teaching methods suit the purely contemplative type?	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Especially deductive conclusions should be used; the required theoretical basis for the deductive conclusions should be reached as soon as possible. - Each problem should be approached from a theoretical background. - A lasting experience should be offered with precise and clear deductions, and with schemes based on pure logic. - It is important to form theoretical models; therefore the parts and the whole should be approached analytically and synthetically. - Short and concisely formulated, theory-centred exercises are the best for practice. 	

Table 5.: The theoretical learning style and its effective teaching methods

PRACTICAL, DRAWING ON CONCRETE EXPERIENCES	
Their principle: <i>"If it works, it is fine."</i>	
Characteristics	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - They like to test ideas, theories and methods, so as to see how they work in practice. - They search for new ideas, and they take the first opportunity to apply them. - They prefer if things "get along"; if ideas can be realised quickly and safely. - They are impatient with those who are not practical. 	
Their strengths	Their weaknesses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - They like to try things in practice. - They are practical, "down-to-earth", realistic people. - They are characterised by seriousness and professionalism. - They are always to the point. - They are concerned with methodology. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - They may reject anything if it does not have an evident explanation. - They are not very much interested theories or principles. - They can be content with the first available solution, which may be only a halfway measure.
What kind of teaching methods suit the purely contemplative type?	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Mainly inductive conclusions should be applied. - All new information should be based on practice. - The problems should be realised and identified by the students, possibly during a work in progress. - Manual activities form an important part of education, which may thus become an interesting experience. - The outcome of the tasks should be tangible. - A theoretical principle is proved only if it has an obvious practical benefit. - Lengthy theoretical explanations should be avoided; carefully selected practical tests are more useful. - The whole topic should be based on a practical task, as its gradual solution. - The most important scene of education is the laboratory or the workshop. 	

Table 6.: The practical learning style and its effective teaching methods

2.2.7.3. The auditive – visual – kinesthetic learning

This is an auditive, visual and motoric (movement) type of memory function, therefore we can distinguish 1. auditive, 2. visual and 3. motoric (kinaesthetic) learning styles.

In the process of recollection, the auditive nature manages better with the information acquired through hearing, while the visual through seeing, or they base learning on the preferred hearing, visual or motoric processes.

The characteristics of the learning style of the visual type of student

a. If learning from a lecture

- He observes the key words on the blackboard or the ppt, so as to arrange his notes into order.
- He tends to seat in the front row, or chooses a seat in the lecture hall from which all presentations can well be seen; he sits far from the door and the windows, or from any possibility of diversion; he chooses a seat from which the instructor can well be seen.
- He tries to listen to what he can hear, and to write it down after every lecture. If he is uncertain about the details, he turns to the instructor for help, and writes down everything exactly as he says, so that later he can be sure that he was right in understanding it.
- He uses symbols and colours to mark the concepts and highlight the important details.
- He asks for the instructor's presentations, if possible; he reads the topic before the lecture.

b. If learning from a written material, text or notes

- He minimises the distracting visual stimuli; he shuts the computer and does not look out the window.
- He arranges the key concepts into a table or diagram.
- He creates images in his mind.
- When making notes, he writes the key words on the margin.
- He looks for diagrams, figures or tables, and rewrites them.

- He writes down the problem or question, and practises through writing down the answers.
- He tries to remember the key concepts by highlighting those parts of the phrases or the terminology that he already knows.
- He uses colours to highlight, making colour codes; he frames the concepts or draws a line at the most important concepts.
- He transforms the texts into images, making a timeline and charts.

The successful learning strategies of the student with an auditive learning style

a. If learning from a lecture

- He primarily listens to the lecture, trying to catch the information conveyed orally.
- He sits in the front rows of the room, so that he can hear well and is not disturbed by the noise of other students.
- He takes a seat far from the door, windows, and all other distracting factors.
- He repeats the information by whispering it to himself.

b. If learning from a written material, text or notes

- He repeats the information aloud.
- He learns with a partner, perhaps reading out the material to each other, discussing the key concepts.
- He looks for a quiet place for work (so as not to be disturbed by music, TV, or noises).
- He uses rhymes to remember the important parts.
- He talks to himself about the diagrams or illustrations.
- He makes sure that he has understood the material; he repeats it aloud.
- He records the key points internally.
- He tries to remember the key terms by focusing on how they sound.
- He reads out the instructions and questions aloud.

The successful learning strategies of the student with a kinaesthetic style

a. If learning from a lecture

- He typically asks questions and always actively participates in learning, whenever it is possible.
- He tends to question the relevance of the course or the usefulness of the knowledge.
- He has small objects in his hand and presses them, playing with them even as making notes.
- He likes to use a laptop for making notes.
- If possible, he chooses a course that is given in three single lessons, rather than having to listen to it in one longer block.
- He takes the breaks for moving.

b. If learning from a written material, text or notes

- He does some kind of physical activity before sitting down to study.
- He tends to highlight, underline or make notes.
- When reading, he follows the text with his finger or a piece of paper.
- He breaks down the reading task into smaller units, and stops after each part to write a short summary.
- He personalises the information, trying to find ways to apply it to himself or his mates.
- He takes regular short breaks, so that he can move.
- He discusses the material with others, answers the practice questions, or, in want of them, he asks questions himself.
- He moves a part of his body, drums or moves his legs, or walks while studying, if that helps him to concentrate.
- He writes the processes and concepts on cards, mixes them, then arranges them in the right order.
- He uses strong gestures when he talks, trying to use his hands even as he studies.

2.2.7.4. Field dependent and field independent learning

The application of the so-called **field dependent** and **field independent learning styles** to the learning situations (WITKIN, 1977) is based on the observation that individuals are different from each other in their cognitive styles as regards whether they can dissociate their perceptions from their environment, or whether all their perceptions – hence also their experiences in an educational situation – are influenced by the environment.

In a simple, "home-made" experiment we can try to identify our own cognitive style or orientation in the following way: 1. take a piece of paper and a pen, and hold them in our hand, so that the pen is held in front of the paper, then 2. move both from the vertical position, so that one of them is inclined to the right, the other one to the left. 3. The task is to move the paper and the pen to the same position by aligning only one of them to the other. 4.a. The person who aligns the pen to the position of the paper is probably field dependent. According to Witkin, this is typical of those whose perceptions are more inclined to be influenced by the context or environment. 4.b. Those who align the paper to the position of the pen are probably able to perceive the examined object without the distorting effects of the environment. According to Witkin, they are field independent.

The characteristics of the field dependent student

- He is less able to clearly distinguish the object of study from its environment (the field in which it is present), and to select the information that is decisive from the the point of learning from a given source of information.
- He performs well in those situations where the task is to perceive and handle an object more globally, e.g. he is more sensitive to the underlying information of a text (reading "between the lines").
- It is more difficult for him to study texts with a precisely defined information content (since definitions distinguish the information from the context of the information).

- The context is necessary for him; it is easier for him to grasp the selected object if he creates a context for it; he is successful in case of studies that require a highly good imagination.
- He is also successful with tasks that require empathy.
- It can be helpful if the information can somehow be connected to life, to the personal experiences of the student.
- He is successful when the overall perception and handling of the information are necessary in the learning process.

The characteristics of the field independent student

- He is able to clearly distinguish the examined object from its environment, in a way, he strips it off the context and the environment, therefore perceives it independently, or does mental activities with it, highlighting the decisive information from the point of learning.
- From an information source – be it the teacher’s explanation or a part of a textbook – he can easily highlight the relevant information from the point of learning.
- He prefers to deal with the details, rather than with the whole.
- He performs well in every situation where the task is to understand or learn clearly defined subject matters.

2.2.7.5. The relationship of the student and the teaching methods

In the process of teaching and learning, the schedule of the acquisition of the study material determines the students’ means of studying and the required knowledge. The requirements set for the students are uniform, but the students’ intellects as well as their ability to conform to the requirements are diverse.

According to PIAGET (1972), *the high or low achievements of the students are based not on the different mental aptitudes, but on the individual adaptation.* In the evaluation of learning in school it is in fact the level of adaptation that is assessed and valued. Students adapt individually to the teaching methods. According to Piaget, good

students become successful not because of their special intellectual abilities, but because they are able to *adapt* to the teaching methods they are taught with. Students of a lower achievement would also be able to learn the subject matter, if they could do it in a different way, through different methods than the good students.

LÉNÁRD (1979) also confirms this view: in fact, *it is not the subject matter that poorer students cannot comprehend, but the lesson itself*. If this is true, it is the responsibility of the instructor or teacher to create more successful conditions of learning through selecting proper methods.

2.3. Teaching

"What? For what reason? Why?"

In the process of teaching and learning, the instructor's work (may) help learning, but – as we have seen, and as we can experience – it is possible to learn without teaching or education. Teaching is an activity that generates and regulates lasting changes; the teaching acts plan, organise, influence, assist or direct learning; they set aims and requirements directly or indirectly, through commands or more leniently, trying to control every step of learning, or allowing the student more or less independence.

Teaching concerns three areas of the student's learning processes by generating or regulating them:

1. cognitive learning,
2. movement learning and
3. affective learning.

Teaching as an activity is related to learning as an activity, and through this relationship teaching generates and regulates the development of those psychological functions that are the psychological conditions of learning: attention, interest, willpower, or the learning motivations and attitudes.

Education or training means the educational programmes with clearly defined, specific aims and contents, or the activities that implement such programmes.

Teaching is regarded as an activity that is 1. *conscious*, 2. *aimed at a specific goal*, and 3. *planned*; it is organised for the development (acquisition) of a specific knowledge through starting the relevant learning activity and regulating it (didactics, methodology).

Teaching constitutes processes, which develop from the acts of teaching and learning affecting each other. In the course of the interactions of teaching and learning, the acts of teaching affect the basic line of learning: the acts of selection, reception, recall, as well as the acts of further use and application, or – for the sake of their realisation – they generate and regulate the phases of repetition and understanding.

When mediating the study materials, the acts of teaching try to aim at the material to be acquired: to raise and prolong the *attention* and the *interest*.

Teaching (and learning) constitutes a coherent and lasting process, where the acquisition of the material to be learnt is constantly maintained and regulated through direct interpersonal relationships and/or an intermediary apparatus. The acts of teaching and learning are interwoven with the events of *feedback* and *evaluation*, so as to check the level of the acquisition of the material to be learnt along with the needs of knowledge. Accordingly, teaching programmes set the precise time frame and organisational structures of teaching and learning. The closed nature of the process means that, according to the above, it has fixed points of beginning and end; the materials to be learnt has prescribed limits, and the extent and level of the acquisition are defined.

1. **The long-term, closed and formal processes of teaching and learning** are aimed to teach (and learn) materials with a specific content and length, selected and edited for learning, in order to meet the uniformly set requirements and levels of knowledge.
2. **The partial, open and informal processes of teaching** are aimed to teach (and learn) materials with a specific content and length, selected and edited for learning, in the same way as the long-term, closed and formal processes. However,

- the materials to be learnt do not form a coherent study material;
- their teaching (acquisition) do not proceed toward meeting the uniformly set requirements and levels of knowledge;
- teaching (or learning) consists of occasional acts that are hardly connected to each other;
- it does not constitute a long-term and coherent process;
- the teaching acts let the students decide when, what and how much they incorporate from the regulations;
- the teaching and learning acts are not interwoven with the steps of feedback and evaluation, but students can make a schedule of *self-assessment*, and set their results of acquisition against the requirements and levels of knowledge set by themselves;
- the openness of the process means that learning does not have fixed points of beginning and end; its borderlines can be crossed by the student, in the same way as the levels of acquisition, which are not defined by teaching programmes.

In the education of adults, in addition to the long-term, closed and formal school processes, different teaching and learning processes are also developed, which can be regarded as partial, open and informal processes.

2.3.1. Teaching strategies

Teaching methods form a teaching strategy. *Strategy* means a major, general *planning*, which starts from a clear understanding of the starting point (A) toward the desired general goal (B), which is set after the analysis of the starting point (A), and is based not only on the previously identified needs (-A) and goals.

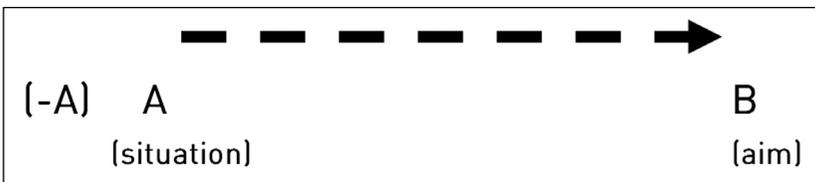


Figure 2.: The teaching strategy (A → B) on the "planning desk"

In the realisation of the education, the specific practical steps conform to this "direction", however, in reality it very seldom happens that there is a straight path to the achievement of the results that have been set as the goal.

In addition to the conscious and major **planning** (A → B), spontaneously occurring teaching steps also form part of the teaching strategy; these ensure the effective achievement of the set goals by *tailoring the teaching and learning process*.

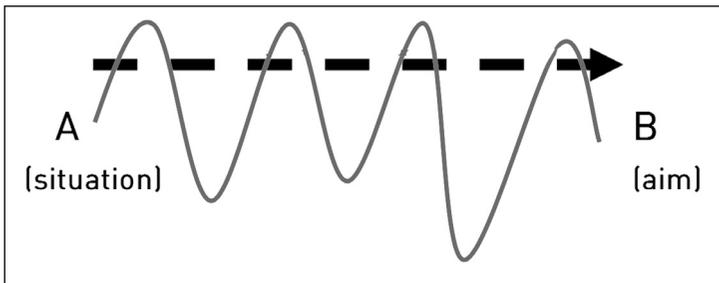


Figure 3.: The teaching strategy (A → B) in the reality of the education

The view of the aim – "B" – in the educational strategy

The view of the aim (B) of the teaching strategy is the andragogical view of the acquired knowledge as a result of the acquisition of the material to be learnt – the **view of knowledge**. "*How do we have to know what we have to know?*"

View of knowledge

- Major points of knowledge,
- major relationships,
- types of activities regarded as important,
- mental and acting processes regarded as indispensable.



Teaching methods (teaching strategies)

- a. The focus is on on informing and reproducing, or
- b. solving problems, or
- c. applying and motivating the creativity of the students.

The "curse of knowledge" – the phenomenon and the teaching strategy

In an experiment a group was divided into two parts: a group of drummers and a group of listeners. The drummers were given a list of well known songs and asked to choose a song and drum its rhythm to the listeners. The listeners' task was to find out from the rhythm which song it was. In the experiment, 2.5% of the students found out successfully. Before the test, the drummers were asked to guess how successfully the listeners would be in finding out the songs. The participants' guess was 50%. Eventually, the drummers could successfully send their message only once (!) out of 40 occasions, even though they had thought that they would succeed every other time.

When the drummer plays the drums, he can hear the tune in his head, whereas the listeners cannot hear the tune, only lots of incoherent knocks. Both roles are difficult: the listener tries to catch the tune, whereas the drummer cannot see what is so difficult in it, as the song is simple. The drummer has a knowledge which makes it impossible for him to **imagine** what it is like to have a **lack of knowledge**.

If we already know something, it is very difficult to imagine what it is like not to know it.

Due to the phenomenon of the curse of knowledge, it is difficult to share our knowledge with others, as it is difficult to realise our students' position. There is a huge gap of information between the sender of the message (the instructor) and the receiver (the learning adult): the former already knows it, the latter does not yet. We cannot forget what we already know.

In order to successfully convey our approach focusing on the instructor (Who?) and the material to be learnt (What?), **we have to transform it, focusing on the participant (For whom?) and the material to be learnt (What?)**, and so to decide on the teaching strategy to be applied and the related teaching methods. Otherwise, our strategy is doomed to failure, and its value will be marked by the unsuccessful education that will be realised with it.

The relationship of teaching strategies and methods

The teaching strategy is selected by the instructor according to the most important educational objective in the given situation, considering the given conditions in the specific educational situation. The selected strategy always involves a specific group of methods. And the applied methods involve certain procedures or tools.

Teaching strategy	Methods
Teaching information through demonstration	Lecture, explanation, discussion, illustration
Teaching concepts through explanation and discussion	Explanation, discussion
Teaching skills through direct education	Explanation, illustration, teacher's presentation, individual practice
Developing thinking by learning from discoveries	Debate, project method, directed experiment (demonstration)

Table 7.: The relationship of teaching strategies and methods

2.3.1.1. The informing and reproducing teaching strategy

In its methodology, it aims *to convey the material to be learnt precisely and accurately* in the acts of teaching, so that the students can reproduce it precisely and accurately.

The required knowledge is the precise and accurate reproduction of the material that has been taught. Its partiality or completeness is expressed by the scale on which the evaluation of the knowledge is based.

The characteristic methods of the informing and reproducing education

- **Oral presentation:** Proceeds from thought to another, conveying trains of thought, reproductive (later the student repeats it as precisely and accurately as possible).
- Presented and repeated phases of actions.

The characteristic of learning in the informing and reproducing education

- The relationships and the mental activities are precisely and accurately received by the student.
- Understanding can take place only in the way it is conveyed, by precisely reproducing the steps of understanding. The development of algorithms, stereotypes and schemes have a given order, and its precise repetition or reproduction leads to the knowledge of the algorithms, stereotypes and schemes.
- The evaluation of the learning performance is the comparison of the aimed and the acquired knowledge; the conveyed knowledge has clear boundaries and main points in its content, and these can well be compared to the way they appear in the reproduction.

The characteristics of the informing and reproducing educational strategy

- It can easily be standardised, and it offers a teaching and learning that can easily be made uniform.
- It can be applied successfully with large groups.
- It is difficult to make the teaching individual.

The activity of the student

According to Báthory, the two main components of the student's activity are: 1. he can do exercises according to the teacher's guidelines; 2. the student can also do exercises related to the content of the education on his own; he can raise problems and answer them.

In a situation of teaching and learning where the activity is formal, learning is limited to reproduction. The secret of activity lies not only in the application of methods that activate and focus on the participants. The activity of the student means that he is not passive and reproductive, but he actively recalls how he can incorporate the new ideas into his already existing knowledge and his practical experiences.

2.3.1.2. The problem-solving teaching strategy and its methods

In its methodology, it aims to present problems in the acts of teaching, and to launch problem-solving processes, so that students can be involved. The material to be learnt appears as a system of problem compositions, which become richer and more complicated in the process of their solutions; it is not a closed, final complex but something that changes and develops during its acquisition.

The characteristic of learning in the problem-solving education

- Learning progresses through problem-solving processes.
- The required knowledge is based on the recognition and solution of problems: knowledge itself is the ability to realise the problems, and to apply the cognitive processes of problem-solving, as well as the working of the so acquired knowledge and the cognitive and acting automatic features.
- It is difficult to standardise the levels of knowledge that can be reached; the levels of the acquired knowledge can also be highly variable.
- The instructor applies methods that form the processes of teaching and learning from problems and their solutions.

The characteristics of the problem-solving educational strategy

- It encourages students' creativity, activity (the realisation and solution of problems).
- Teaching and learning are difficult to be standardised or to be made uniform, and cannot be easily applied in mass education.
- Its optimal context is in small groups.
- Teaching can well be tailored (individualised).

2.3.1.3. The experience-based learning cycle

The experience-based learning model means that learning takes place if the theory is tested in practice, and the experiences are reintegrated into the level of theory, and later also to the level of our actions.

Therefore, it is important that we regard learning as a process: four elements follow each other and raise the level of knowledge by constantly "revolving".

In our work, we tend not to draw the conclusions from the concrete experiences, consequently the so-called abstract opinion formation or evaluation is missing.

The experience-based learning cycle can be described as follows

1. The learning process starts with action, observation, and then with the subsequent experience, which is called "concrete experience".
2. This is followed by responding to the new situation that we experience, the "reflective recognition".
3. In light of the experiences, the learning individual assesses the situation and forms his opinion: this is the "abstract opinion formation".
4. The new assumptions or hypotheses are then tested in new situations (in a "safe" learning situation, or in a "sharp" application at work): this is "active experimenting".

This model of learning is a repetitive learning cycle, in the course of which the student tests the new concepts and, as a result of responding and forming opinions, modifies them. The route of learning thus leads from gaining experiences to knowledge.

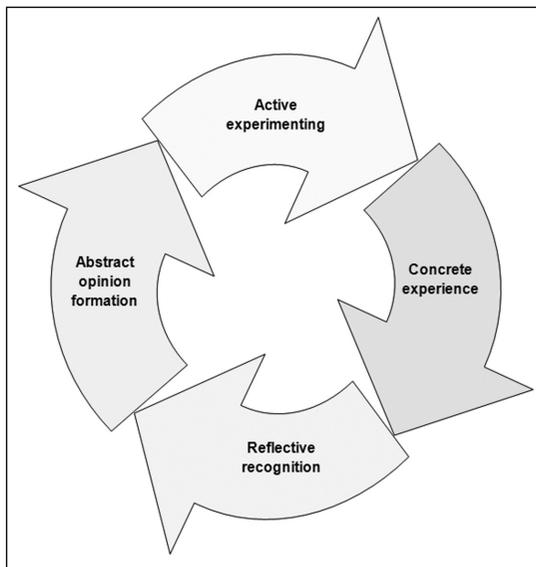


Figure 4.: The experience-based learning cycle

2.4. Knowledge "How? What?"

Knowledge means more than the pieces of information that we can recollect; it is a complicated complex with many factors. It is those pieces of information of the learning adult that are active, stored and that can be recollected; thoughts and actions that have become skills and abilities.

- **Skills** involve preparedness and readiness, which make one apt to apply the information consciously and creatively.
- **Abilities** are automatic elements of the activities, functioning without the direct control of the mind.
- **Knowledge** is created as a result of thinking processes, during which they get stored in the memory, from which they can be recalled during recollection.

2.4.1. Thinking processes

The concepts based on internal images, thinking, the basic unit of getting to know something through thoughts, the abstract and generalised form of our knowledge of things in reality, whose content sums up the relevant features of things.

According to LÉNÁRD (1978), in adult learning we can find the following thinking processes: 1. analysis, 2. synthesis, 3. abstraction, 4. comparison, 5. the realisation of relationships (e.g. similar – opposite; smaller – bigger, equal; whole – part; object – feature; former – latter – simultaneous; subordinated – superior – coordinated; cause – effect; aim and means; condition – consequence; valuable – worthless; relevant – irrelevant, etc), 6. supplement, 7. generalisation, 8. specification, 9. arrangement, and 10. analogy.

2.4.1.1. Specific and abstract thinking

A type of thinking is the so-called **practical thinking**, which is related to practical actions, and is specifically aimed at doing practical tasks. It is integrated into the processes of actions, or the

processes of actions are integrated into thinking. The information content of practical thinking is always concerned with the specific tasks, and its processes are involved with the movements and processes of the actions.

Another level of thinking is the so-called **theoretical thinking**, which is far from the direct, practical actions. It is more comprehensive, more general than practical thinking, it can recognise broader relationships, and it can possess more abstract and more generalised pieces of information. It aims to do tasks that are only distantly related to practice, but the necessary information for practical actions can be deduced from its results or tests.

The pieces of information are attained through thinking and acting processes, and they function with these processes. At the same time, the thinking and acting processes can be attained, and they can function, with information content.

2.4.1.2. Understanding and storing

The two ways of storage and recollection are the intellectual and the mechanic storage and recollection. We can memorise information without understanding it; then the memorisation takes place mechanically, without using the relationships. The understood pieces of information are stored in the memory in a web of relationships, and they are recollected together with their relationships.

2.4.1.3. Interest – attention – willpower

Through his interest, the learning adult aims to get to know the various phenomena; this generates his attention, by which he highlights certain phenomena and information from the rest. Interest has a major role in starting the various activities. Willpower is a conscious function that aims to overcome the difficulties related to our actions, and it is highly charged with emotions. Conscious actions aim to achieve the goals that have been set consciously, while overcoming external or internal obstacles.

2.4.1.4. Emotions

Knowledge is interwoven with emotional contents and emotional reactions, and they cannot be separated from the thinking and acting processes, the behaviour and the communication. Emotions are the direct experiences of the psyche and its relationship to the environment; it expresses the conditions of the psyche as the subject, and its relationship to the objective. Emotional intelligence means emotional rationality, that is, the degree of the ability to "handle" one's own emotions, as well as the emotions of others, with the intellect, in a reasonable (!) manner.

2.4.1.5. The major, interrelated areas of knowledge

1. **Cognitive knowledge**, which means the knowledge manifested in the functions of the mind and thinking; this contains the information and the thinking processes.
2. **Movement knowledge**, which means kinesthetics, or "being mobile"; it is the knowledge manifested in movements, or the knowledge of the acts of movements. It contains the practical, acting processes.
3. **Affective knowledge** is the knowledge of emotional contents and emotional reactions.

2.4.1.6. Attitude

Attitude is a standby condition: it is a more or less constant set of opinions, interests and intentions, interwoven with emotions; it predetermines and prepares the responses for the effects that affect the individual. Knowledge has areas that are organised in attitudes. Attitudes contribute to all varieties of learning, influencing the motives and course of learning.

There are several possibilities to create a condition, a favourable attitude that is motivated to learn or study. Some of them can well be applied in the everyday learning practice too:

1. arousing the interest,
2. showing the importance and usefulness of the material to be learnt,

3. turning learning into an aesthetic experience,
4. rewarding knowledge, punishing the lack of knowledge
5. coordinating the student's individual style of studying and the teacher's style of teaching

2.4.2. Interest

"I cannot teach anyone anything; I can merely create the environment for one in which one can study." (CARL ROGERS)

How can interest be aroused in education?

According to Béla Buda, formal education lays the emphasis on conveying information and on the logical, or at best the practical, aspects of education, but it is not concerned adequately with arousing interest. Interest develops spontaneously, and there are hardly any ideas to seize it.

2.4.2.1. Interest in adult education

Interest generator	Education that generates interest is therefore
1. what we can relate to.	explores the relationship of the material to be learnt with the world and interest of the adult student.
2. what is novel, unusual, out of the ordinary.	it can approach any object in a novel way; novelty can be the reinvention of something old too, or if a misconception is dispelled.
3. what we already know something about.	it gradually develops and strengthens the interest of the adult student. The totally unknown material is as uninteresting as the well known, constantly repeated and therefore already boring one.
4. what is "open", and has a variety of potential in it, therefore a PROBLEM.	it creates a learning context where effort is required from the adult student, therefore the material can become interesting, exciting, observable or experienced. The joy of problem solving, successful problem solving, boosts self confidence and further motivates the interest in the subject.

Table 8.: Methods of generating interest in education

In order to arouse and sustain interest, such a form of teaching and learning is needed that not only allows interest and activity (e.g. in form of a debate or questioning), but appreciates them and builds on them.

If we want our message to be received by the addressee, we have to take into account the basic level of interest: The students are either already receptive about the educational information, or we have to generate receptiveness. In order to relate the students' interest to the topic of the education, and to develop their interest, it is necessary to demonstrate the usefulness of the education and the interesting nature of the subject.

2.4.2.2. The level of interest in the receivers

- The student is interested in everything.
- The student consciously focuses on certain parts of the topic.
- The student is interested in the information that is directly concerned with his own personal interests.
- Of a varying degree: active or constant, occasionally aroused, little, average, or indifference and disinterest in the student's behavior.

2.4.2.3. The role of the instructor's interest in generating interest

An important basis of arousing the students' interest is the instructor's own interest in the discussed topic, and its projection. For the receiver, this creates the basic attitude toward the subject. In some cases, the basis of the relationship of the student and the topic is the instructor's attitude to the topic.

"It is not the other's interest that is decisive, but our own, that is, to generate interest, which happens only if we are essentially interested in a certain topic; therefore, if we talk about it, whether we want it or not, we draw others into it, as if infecting them with our interest; thus we create an interest that has never existed and has never been suspected, which is much more valuable than satisfying an already existing one." (THOMAS MANN, DOCTOR FAUSTUS)

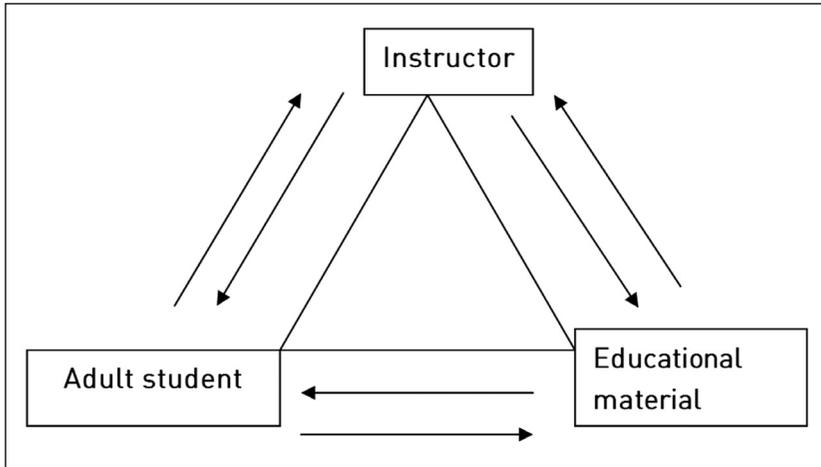


Figure 5.: Interest in the relationship of the educational material – instructor – student

3. THE FACTORS DETERMINING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE METHODS

**“WHO? FOR WHOM? WHAT? WITH WHAT?
HOW? WHY? FOR WHAT REASON?”**

3.1. Didactic principles to serve the effective application of the methods

The principle of being scientific and professional

The covered material must be presented for the candidates at a scientific standard, in the form of an up to date, valid knowledge. As adults attend the education after some prior qualification, the professionalism and the scientific results can be presented on a higher level, therefore we can get better educated professionals who can clearly see the connections. Scientific standards demand that theory and practice be connected to each other, thus acquiring the ability to of applying the knowledge in practice – knowledge is tested in practice, and knowledge is gained from practice. The material must be reliable, and it cannot afford such simplifications that do not meet the professional standards.

The principle of students’ awareness and activity

Without knowing the closer and the more distant aims of studying, students cannot plan their own objectives sufficiently. Knowledge must be acquired consciously, so that students can successfully do

their work in the future. In order to develop students's independence and activity, it is not enough to apply passive reception; they should cover the material on their own, with the instructor's guidance. With this method, we can call for conscious activity, and to direct it toward closer and more distant aims. This applies to the internal, psychological processes, therefore the concentration level of the attention increases, as well as the intensity of thinking and the vividness of memory; consequently the effectiveness of our activity is increased. It is important to activate students differently within the group. With some, the internal motivation is lower, and only a strong activating effect can yield results, while others can already motivate themselves. Students need to get used to working consciously, for they have to do tasks on their own fairly soon. They need to learn how to apply the information in practice, and to reach the maximum efficiency of independence and activity.

The principle of illustrations

The acquisition of knowledge is the most effective if the information is received through as many channels as possible. It is most successful if the students' observation is led by the instructor. After the observation a major task is to analyse internally and to create a sufficient internal image. Experiments were conducted about the necessity of illustrations in education, and they proved their validity, as students could remember the learnt material in a much higher percentage after such an education. The principle of illustrations apply to the whole process of education, thus it is more than the method providing illustrations, which has a major role in presenting the facts. By applying the principle of illustrations, we can demonstrate things specifically. Applying tools, we can also study how to give instructions. It is also easier to arouse the candidates' interest if the material is approached from the point of application, and we can also demonstrate it (by a video or picture, etc).

Illustrations can also help to memorise better, which can be highly significant in later work.

The principle of relating theory to practice

When practice precedes theoretical education, by getting to know the task done in practice, we utilise our experiences in theoretical education and use them in acquiring new information. The new information is gained from practice, and this is complemented by the theoretical education. Studying the theoretical part of the material, based on our practical knowledge, we can connect the two sources of knowledge and create a more comprehensive view. The other approach is when theory precedes practice. The advantage of this type of education is that the acquisition of information provides a deeper background to the practical training. A very important point of the relationship of theory and practice is that there should be no major gap between the two, for the student then does not memorise the information but forgets it, therefore the skills and abilities cannot develop either.

The principle of conforming to the age of the students

With groups of mixed age, we apply andragogical methods.

The principle of systematic education

In the progress, in the programme of the education, we have to make sure that the topics are based on each other. The principle of being systematic is also important in the process of checking and evaluation, as progress is possible only if students have already acquired the prior information. The principle also means that the new units of the curriculum are structured into the already existing system of knowledge.

The principle of confirming knowledge

The principle of firmness means that the students will be able to use their knowledge. They have to be informed about all the information that is to be learnt from the material, and about the requirements, so that they can clearly see the purpose of their studies. The tools to acquire lasting knowledge are repetition (actual, continuous, thematic or periodic repetition), and confirmation (primary, logical and final confirmation).

The principle of community, and the principle of conforming to the level of the students

We have to try to turn the group into a community, even in the short time available. Team work, or studying together, has a positive effect on the poorer students. The community can multiply the effectivity of the acquisition of information, or the academic results, through the instructor's guidance. The principle of conforming to the level of the students means that the participants are instructed according to their prior qualifications. The instructors have to monitor every student. The top students should be given tasks that match their abilities, while those lagging behind should be helped to catch up. Every student in the community should be assisted in their development.

New didactic principles in adult education.

- The process of studying provides impulses and assistance for the entire way of life.
- Students are involved in planning.
- Every participant's personal attitudes and learning habits are taken into account, as well as the group's habits and structure.
- Students are provided with autonomy, personal responsibility and the right to govern themselves.
- Studying is regarded as a complex process. The mind, the emotions, the values and social sensitivity are equal factors.
- In an ecological sense, studying is an active, critical and mutual relationship with reality.
- Students determine the results of their studies own their own (sel-control).
- Students and teachers are regarded as equal participants in the education.
- The study impulses are regarded as a circular process withing the group.

3.2. The instructor's personal and professional competence, serving the effective realisation of the education

The instructor of adults must be able to (Mocker – Noble, 1981):

1. communicate successfully with the students;
2. form a successful working relationship;
3. confirm the positive attitudes toward the students;
4. create an atmosphere that stimulates the students to participate;
5. form the basis of mutual respect between the instructor and the students;
6. to conform the pace of teaching to the rhythm of the students' progress;
7. to regulate teaching according to the personal and group characteristics;
8. to differentiate between teaching children and adults;
9. to plan topics and materials that create trust among students;
10. to sustain students' interest in the activities related to the curriculum;
11. to shape the programme, so as to respond to the changing needs of the students;
12. to use the classrooms or other venues of studying, so that they can serve as convenient environments to study;
13. to recognise students' potential to improve;
14. to place students to the levels of teaching that suit them;
15. to summarise and review the main points of a lecture or demonstration;
16. to make a self-assessment of the success of teaching;
17. to provide continuous feedback about the students' progress;
18. to select those areas and elements of the subject that are relevant for the students,
19. to coordinate and monitor the activities of studying;
20. to define those principles of studying that can be applied to adults;

21. to prove his commitment to innovation and experiments by always being ready for new approaches in the classroom;
22. to plan new analyses with the students;
23. to apply methods or procedures concerning the subject, which have been learnt from other teachers;
24. to relate the classroom activities to the students' experiences.

3.3. The instructor's interpersonal effectiveness: the methods of effective relationship between the instructor and the student group

Every student group consists of individuals having different interests, experiences and aims. The group is a vivid "social creature" that has its own dynamic. As the moderator of the teaching and learning situation, the instructor is part of this system, but, in addition, due to his special situation, he is also outside the system. This does not make work easy.

The role of the instructor as the moderator of the situation of group learning

1. to create and maintain a sense of cohesion in the group, and
2. to lead the group toward a given aim, which means aim(s) of studying in the context of education.

3.3.1. The instructor's work that is adequate for the phases of development of the student group

In the process of teaching and learning, the phases of development of the student groups tend to follow each other unnoticeably for the participating students. However, for the instructor leading the group, the characteristic features of the steps of group development, as summarised below, may clarify which features of group dynamics need to be taken into account for the effective guidance of studying.

In addition to selecting and planning the adequate methods of education, a major element of effectiveness will be the ability to apply to the methods, and this is realised in the context of the group phenomena of the student group.

Group dynamics is a kind of process, the constant change and movement of atmosphere, passions, thoughts, of the emotions directed at each other (RUDAS, 1990). Part of the responsibility and autonomy of the practising student group leader is how much he takes into account the features of group dynamic in his work.

3.3.1.1. The instructor's tasks in creating the conditions of group work

Being an alien: arrival – relaxation – getting information

The basic needs of **recognition** and **safety** cannot be satisfied.

The need of **orientation** lies behind the waiting and mutually scanning behavior. *"Who are the others? How will they receive me? What are the rules? What is allowed? What are the aims? Can I reach them?"*

The **emotions** of the group members are not clear but **ambivalent**: *"I'd like to remain who I am. I want to keep a distance. I'd like to be an individual. I need autonomy. I want to keep my anonymity, which protects me. I would like to meet the usual conditions."*

Willingness to conform, the need of the others' proximity: *"I don't want to be different from them. I'm looking for support. I'd like to show who I am. I'd like to discover new things."*

The instructor's tasks in creating the conditions of group work

- to build a relationship with the group members;
- to enhance the development of relationship among group members;
- to help students in finding their ways to each other;
- to notice the expression of uncertainty, and to respond to it with good will;
- to satisfy the need of safety; to make the existing rules, schedule, work method, etc. transparent for the participants;
- to set an example in respecting the individual differences,
- to discuss and explain the value judgements made in the group, the statements concerning the norms, *"what has to be done"*.

3.3.1.2. The instructor's tasks in creating a supportive atmosphere for group work

Placement: fermentation and clarification

In order to exist in a group, every member needs a **place** that is recognised by others. Everyone seeks room for himself and one's interests.

The **role** and **status** of the individual are determined by his needs and the group's judgements. In the process, strains, rivalries and fears can also surface. This manifests in forms of behaviour like attempting to seize power or control over the group, disproportionate debates to form the right opinion, clashes of status with the moderators, or making taboos, uttering negative value judgements.

For the sake of coexistence and working together, **rules** and **norms** must be made in the group. The open discussion of the norms at the beginning of the moderation – particularly if it is set down, as a "contract" – is a major help later, if we find some deviation, we can refer back to it; moreover, we may even assign someone who is "responsible for the norms" and safeguards the observance of the rules (e.g. time limits, etc.).

The instructor's tasks in creating a supportive atmosphere for group work

Warning. First the instructor must also earn his own place or position.

- the group members should be encouraged to form their positions actively;
- the various individual strengths must be brought together;
- rivalry must be moderated; we have to call attention on synergy of the different, complementary skills and abilities;
- he must set an example about appreciating and respecting each other, by "being on everyone's side";
- the style of communication must be made transparent;
- the constructive forms of behaviour must be strengthened, and they should be set as the norm.

3.3.1.3. The instructor's tasks in supporting effective group work

Homeliness: motivation to work, productivity

Everybody has found their place in the group and knows the rules of cooperation. The **sense of togetherness** releases power and creates a creative productivity. The group members have recognised that it is easier for them to realise their goals together than separately.

The instructor takes the the individual group members seriously, together with their wishes and ideas, involves them in the decision making processes, thus they can realise their own goals within the group too.

The problems arising during work lead to a further differentiation of the roles and the cooperation. The constructive handling of the objective processes of clarification, working on the level of relationships, determines whether the group can maintain its ability to work together in the long run, or whether it falls back into the phase of rivalry for the positions, falling apart to cliques.

The instructor's tasks in supporting effective group work

- to make it clear that everyone is responsible for the group, for the common work and the realisation of the goal;
- to moderate the occurring objective problems and those of the group dynamics through feedback and perceiving the ongoing processes on the meta-level;
- to support the adaptation to the given situation and to change the roles in a flexible way, as opposed to the wish that the achieved status could last forever;
- the active performance of the tasks of the leader: locomotion (aim orientation) and cohesion (keeping the group together).

3.3.1.4. The instructor's tasks at the end of group work and the transfer of knowledge

Farewell: ending and transfer

At the end of a group work, we make an **assessment**, which is often followed by a **sense of inadequacy** and a **sense of guilt**. Certain things did not go according to plan. These cannot be amended now.

Every question that has **“remained open”** must be discussed, so that the step to individual existence from the group can become easier.

Behind the aggressive mood that can occasionally be found at the time of farewell, there is often the pain of separation.

The next step of the assessment is to **transfer** the results into practice, or into the new group. Farewell includes the chance of change. The achieved success must be carried on, and the possible ways of transfer into further work should also be found.

The instructor’s tasks at the end of group work and the transfer of knowledge

- to ensure that farewell and assessment are not at the last moment,
- to consider the questions that have not been answered,
- to make students observe a rule of assessment: look not for the sinners but for the faults, and to highlight a given behaviour,
- but the overall aim of assessment should be to carry on with the successful elements,
- we should leave some time for personal farewell and to express emotions.

3.3.2. Styles of leadership in the regulation of the relationship of the instructor and the group

What is the nature of the relationship of the instructor and the group?

Autocratic style of leadership

- The instructor decides in every major question, and he seeks to maintain this right consistently.
- He is confident in setting the task, but not in its procedure and execution.
- The leader often assigns the tasks of the group members and he selects his colleagues.
- The leader’s assessment and the critique of group members are subjective, rather personal, without justification.
- The leader’s behaviour is rather impersonal, he does not really participate in the group’s activities.

- He has a characteristic style of communication: firm, confident, not allowing contradiction, not accepting others's opinions – this causes stress, strain, distress and fear among students.
- There are antagonisms within the group, which is unstable, and group members often seek scapegoats among themselves.

Democratic style of leadership

- The leader supports the group in the major questions, encourages them, they make decisions together, and discuss the problems.
- When doing the tasks, first they decide on the point that lead to the solution, then work individually, but they can show the leader the partial results, on which he can give advice.
- Group members can freely choose partners to do the tasks, the group can decide on how to do the tasks.
- The leader seeks to offer objective and realistic praises and critiques, he tries to fit into the group as a member, while making sure that he does not participate too much in the actual work.
- His communication is characterised by credibility and congruency, he is honest, curious, he pays attention, therefore the communication results in keeping mutual contact
- The group is characterised by a high level of cooperation and productivity.

Laissez Faire style of leadership

- Decisions in the group are usually made without the participation of the leader.
- The leader starts the work of the group, but he does not really participate in the discussions and debates.
- The leader is completely omitted from the solutions of the various questions and problems.
- He rarely comments on the activities, and does not seek to participate in the events or to influence them.
- With this allowing style the leader rarely emphasises his role as a leader; the signs of uncertainty are common.
- There is no cohesion in the group; there are competitive members who choose an informal leader based on power struggles. (LEWIN)

3.4 The instructor's communicative competence, serving the effective realisation of the education

Indicators of effectiveness	Characteristics of the effective communication by the instructor	Ineffective communication by the instructor
Clarity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Informs the participants about the knowledge required at the end of education and how the material will have to be used. - Provides guiding principles for the participants, by which they can place the material of the education into a more comprehensive system. - Checks the necessary prior knowledge at the beginning of the education, and teaches the missing elements. - The instructions are given slowly and clearly, and it is checked whether they are understood. - Knows the participants' abilities, and teaches on that level or on a somewhat higher level. - Uses examples and illustrations to clarify the written material or the educational information, the new knowledge. - Finishes teaching by repetition or a summary. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Cannot tell how the material of the education will have to be used, and on what level. - Starts to present the material without indicating the broader context of the topic. - Starts a new material without checking the understanding of the basic facts and concepts. - Gives several instructions at a time, too quickly. - Does not realise that teaching is on a lower or higher level than that of the participants. - The explanation is a reproduction of the written material, information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - he tells only that, without interpreting it. - Fails to review or summarise the main points at the end of teaching.

Indicators of effectiveness	Characteristics of the effective communication by the instructor	Ineffective communication by the instructor
Variety	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Applies tools that seize the attention. - Expresses enthusiasm and liveliness with eye contact and various tones and gestures. - Covers the material in a variety of ways (explanation, questions, debate, practice). - Applies a wide variety of confirmations. - Uses the participants' views to realise the aims of education. - Varies the types of questions and clues. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Starts teaching without arousing the interest of the majority of the participants. - Monotonous, does not move, and speaks without any emotional expressions. - Applies the same method for a long time, seldom changes the channels of communication (seeing, hearing, acting). - Fails to acknowledge or confirm when it is due. - Regards himself as the only source of authority and information, neglects the participants' contribution. - Uses only one type of questions and clues.
Task-orientation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The thematic plan and the instructor's plan match the requirements. - Effectively does the tasks of administration and organization. - Applies direct educational strategies to teach the facts, rules, actions, and indirect ones for concepts and trains of thoughts. - Clearly defines the end product for the participants. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Teaches topics that are only loosely connected to the requirements, easily diverges toward the participants' or his own interest. - Much time is spent on organization. - Applies ineffective educational methods to achieve his goals. - Does not provide recurring milestones (for the modules or educational units) that can guide the participants.

Indicators of effectiveness	Characteristics of the effective communication by the instructor	Ineffective communication by the instructor
The involvement of the participants in the process of education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Provides opportunity for guided practice. - Does not correct the participants in a demanding atmosphere during guided practice. - Applies individual strategies for the students with special needs to seize their attention. - Applies meaningful verbal praises. - Follows and checks individual work. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Cannot make students acquire the required knowledge or do the necessary activities. - Draws attention on the failures of the initial attempts, therefore causing anxiety. - Does not attempt to apply individual educational strategies for the students with special needs. - Uses the same verbal cliches (e.g. good, all right), or fails to praise when it would be necessary. - Fails to check individual work, or spends too much time on some participants.
Constantly increasing the rate of success	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The structure of the topics and lessons, the given units, guarantees the necessary prior knowledge for the tasks in the process of education. - Immediately corrects the wrong, uncertain or partially correct answers. - Divides the instruction into small units that are easy to handle. - Plans to introduce the new material in smaller steps that are easy to take. - Adequately varies the pace and intensity of instruction. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Cannot arrange the order of the lessons in a way that the necessary prior knowledge is available. - Delays in checking and correcting the wrong answers. - Plans larger and more complicated units that can be learnt in the given time. - Suddenly changes topics, and the connection is not obvious. - Lack of variety in the pace and of instruction – the pace and intensity are static.

Table 9.: The criteria of effective organization in the instructor's communication

Being informative and the instructor's effectiveness

How can the education be made more informative in the teaching of adults?

1. **More clearly:** The more precisely we formulate the problems in advance, the more we can expect that the process of clarification will be informative and useful, even if the student is not an active participant of the conversation, only an observer. The prearranged questions that raise the problems become sufficiently clear during the conversations with the students, according to the participants's points, and get more articulate for further study.
2. **A common language:** A common information base is needed in order to avoid misunderstanding or the danger of not being understood. Through dialogues, forming groups with different information and opinions, we create the possibility of meaningful communication.

How can we create the common information base?

- a. We organise groups from those who are about equally informed on a given topic.
 - b. If the level of initial information is very different among the participants, the tools to create a common platform of information are important. For instance, the instructor provides information before the discussion, so as to highlight the problems and create a basic level of information.
 - c. The topics can be divided into several smaller parts, and the instructor gives a short and brief lecture for each of them; based on these, the parts of the topics can be discussed separately.
 - d. Another solution is to give a written version of the basic information to the participants in advance, so that they can prepare to discuss them.
 - e. Teaching materials, textbooks, other sources can also provide the common information base.
3. **To the point:** The more a discussion tackles the heart of the problem, the more informative it is. When informing the group, the instructor has to lead the discussion toward the point during the dialogues.

4. **Confirming:** The instructor has to highlight, confirm and summarise the important information that is worth learning and remembering. The instructor is the person who sets the standard, he validates those statements uttered in the dialogues that are acceptable. The highlighted elements also show the significance of the information, stressing what is worth remembering, and noting that a statement is both correct and relevant. The instructor can indicate this by repeating exactly what has been said, or by paraphrasing it in his own words. By applying further tools, he can also visualise the main points, e.g. by a "board register", noting the main points on the board. During the summary, the instructor condenses or complements what has been said, or arranges it according to some new points, or (if necessary) corrects it – thus records the information to be remembered in the form that is best to be stored.

4. METHODS

4.1. The possible classifications of the learning methods

1. According to the leading the process of studying (FALUS, 2003)

- **teacher-based:** e.g. lecture, explanation, illustration;
- **teacher-student cooperation:** cooperative methods, e.g. discussions with the purpose of teaching, debates, trainings, seminars, conversations, role plays.
- **student-based:** students undertake an individual work of research and exploration, do the tasks alone, study individually, e.g. the methods of individual studying, project work.

2. According to the source of information, we can distinguish (FALUS, 2003)

- verbal (oral or written),
- illustrating,
- practical methods.

3. According to the learning activity of the students, we can describe (FALUS, 2003)

- receptive,
- reproductive,
- in part discovering, heuristic, and
- research-type methods.

4. According to the logical direction of education (FALUS, 2003)

- inductive and
- deductive types can be differentiated.

5. According to their role in the educational process, their didactic task, we can describe methods of (NAGY S., 1997)

- teaching or learning new information,
- teaching or learning skills and abilities,
- application,
- systematising and recording.

6. According to the methods of oral information, we can distinguish

- monologue and
- dialogue-type methods.

7. According to the organisation of the methods, we can differentiate

- **basic methods:** 1. teacher's explanation (frontal work): lecture, dialogue (explication through questions); 2. getting works (learning alone, but not independently: variation method, home work (assigned); 3. individual methods (individual, independent learning): individual tasks, home work (chosen)
- **motivating methods:** group work, games, debate, research-discovery method (laboratory work), project method.
- **complex methods:** programmed education, computer-based education, study pack, teaching at master level (optimum acquisition).

8. According to KNOLL (1996), we can make to following typology of methods concerning the partial didactic aims that can be achieved through methods

1. methods that make the beginning and warm up easier,
2. methods that explore the material,
3. methods that focus on the material,
4. methods that are specifically communicative.

- + 1 When classifying the educational methods, we definitely cannot make such a general division that there are
- good (adequate) methods, and
 - bad (inadequate) methods.

At the same time, it is decisive about the effectiveness of the teaching and learning processes if the instructor, when applying the methods, classifies the methods that work in the given educational situation, and those that do not work so well, considering both the didactic and practical points.

4.2. The inventory of the methods and procedures supporting adult learning

4.2.1. Basic methods

4.2.1.1. Lecture

Lecture is a classic tool of conveying information.⁵ It is a monologue-like, detailed discussion of a topic by an expert. The length of a lecture can vary from about half an hour to two hours. In earlier in times, it meant reading out aloud a written text, but now it is more of an oral presentation. It is practical with a large audience. It may seem one-sided, asymmetrical, where the lecturer is active and the audience is passive, but in fact – in case of a good lecture – there is a **hidden dialogue** between the instructor and the audience. The participants play an active role in the reception of what they can hear. Through their reactions, they influence the lecturer and the lecture. The lecturer needs to be highly skilled both from a professional and a methodological point.

When is it worth giving a lecture?

- If a large group has to be informed;
- quickly and
- there is no better way to persuade, e.g. by a written material;
- if we want to arouse interest in a new topic, or
- if a topic needs explication.

⁵ Based on WEIDENMANN, B.: SUCCESSFUL COURSES AND SEMINARS. PROFESSIONAL LEARNING WITH ADULTS.

The basic structure of a lecture

1. Introduction

Its purpose is to make a connection between the lecturer and the audience, to make a good atmosphere, to arouse the attention, to win the audience. The lecturer announces the purpose of the lecture, outlines its main points, as well as the rules of the cooperation and its general conditions. It is useful to recall the prior information, and also to explain the new terminology. The length of the introduction also depends on that of the lecture.

2. Discussion

It is the unfolding of the information, sharing and presenting the facts. Efforts should be made to discuss the material clearly and factually, the attention of the audience must be maintained.

Types of structuring the discussion

1. **Hierarchical:** The main concepts are divided into subordinate concepts, which are divided into further subcategories or parts.
2. **Sequential:** The parts of the lecture follow each other according to some point (chronological, cause and effect relationship, thematic structure).
3. An **analysis** and **comparison of various phenomena** from several points: the repetition of the points can provide a good structure, and it can also be helpful to provide a chart or a table.
4. **The demonstration of the mutual relationships:** If we make a web diagram about the structure of the lecture, the relationships can be seen better.

How can we clarify the structure of the lecture?

- The objectives should be made clear.
- The order of rule – example – rule should be applied.
- Appropriate conjunctions should be used.
- The main points should be highlighted.
- It should be indicated if a new point is introduced.

How to maintain the attention of the audience?

- **Variety:** A variety of tones, movements, gestures, linguistic patterns, vocabulary; alternating the audio and visual channels, using clear figures or illustrations.
- **Humour:** It helps to create a positive attitude.
- The **liveliness, enthusiasm** and **commitment** of the lecturer.
- **Questions** inserted in the course of the lecture.
- **Supporting materials**, which can be handed out.

3. Conclusion

At the end of the lecture, the lecturer ensures that what has been said forms a coherent whole, and it is integrated into the prior knowledge of the students. It is practical to summarise the essence, to highlight the main points, to answer students' questions, or perhaps to ask them to give examples, or to make them summarise the lecture; to relate the lecture to prior information and to the next lecture.

Lecture as a method can be useful, because

- it is an organised and systematic form of conveying information;
- it can be illustrated by technical devices;
- it may have a suggestive effect, and may inspire new standpoints or behaviour;
- it can reach a lot of people;
- the information can also reach those who do not read.

It is reasonable to apply lecture as a method if

- we wish to provide new information that the audience cannot get in any other ways;
- there is no written summary, or if there is one, but students do not read it.

Possible disadvantages of lecture as a method

- only one point of view (that of the lecture) is realised;
- students have no opportunity to express their views;
- lectures may suppress the mental associations of the students;

- the effect is difficult to be measured;
- the lecturer may be wrong; he has no control, and it is difficult for him to correct himself;
- it can be misunderstood by the audience, and there is no correction;
- the dissemination of the information may remain isolated; if it is not continued, it may fall into oblivion;
- it is difficult to hold it at a time that is appropriate for everyone;
- in general, there is no trace left behind – words slip away;
- the interpretation of the lecture is influenced by the so-called tolerance of expectations. This is the measure of patience that one has to have if one does not understand something immediately
 - the higher the tolerance of expectations is, the more one trusts that that what is not clear yet will be understood from the further explanations. If the lecture goes beyond this limit of tolerance, the students "miss the line"; they stop the mutual work and become passive.

What can make the method effective?

It is not alone the "good recipe" that ensures effectiveness, but the careful planning: the planned lecture needs to be adapted in the given andragogical situation, according to the participants' feedback, needs, condition. The audience should also have their say, and their questions have to be answered.

What can the instructor do, so that the lecture is effective?

- **Speech:** Let us speak slowly, our pronunciation must be clear, stress when necessary and reasonable.
- **The structure of the lecture:** Let us make manageable units of information, and at each unit, provide an overview at the beginning, and a summary at the end.
- **Coherence:** We should have a main line of thought, and we should be consistent; the audience needs to be able to follow us.
- We should apply various **methods or techniques of presentation** to the speech: texts (on the board, flipchart, projector, pin board with pieces of paper) and images (figures, graphic overviews, diagrams).

- We have to note our **key points**: the main points should be illustrated, highlighted by examples, and repeated.
- Our explanations should be **clear**.

The specifics of the realisation

The comprehensible lecture

The searching procedure of our brain is the following, if it seeks to receive new information and add it to the already existing pieces.

What is it about? → What's the point? → What does it exactly mean? → Is that all I should know? This characterises the receiver of the lecture. So how should we explain clearly?

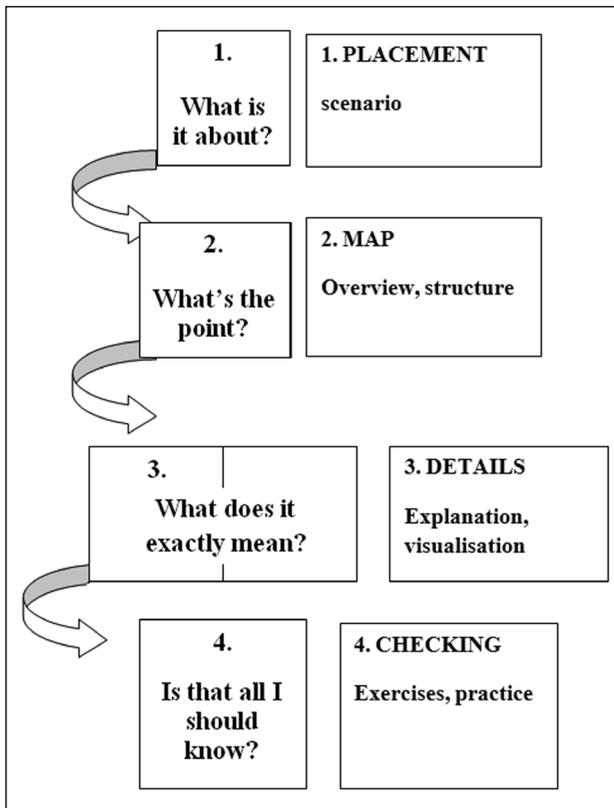


Figure 6.: The comprehensible lecture

How to follow the lecture, and how to learn it?

Students can benefit from the following, so-called method 5 R, so that they can follow the lecture and successfully acquire the educational information.

-1. Preparation	Divide the paper that is intended for taking notes into three parts, and make a 6 cm (2.4 inch) left margin. This will be the column to recollect. Take notes onto the right sideduring the lecture, this is the column to take notes. Below, make a 4 cm margin throughout, and the summary of the page and our questions will be made here.
1. Record (Take notes)	<p>Take notes of as many facts and ideas as possible during the lecture, in a legible and clear form, in the column of notes.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Number each page and write the date on it.- We can start highlighting the main points already at this stage, using different colours or perhaps by framing or underlining. The lecturer may call our attention to these points in various ways, e.g. by writing them on the board or orally: using gestures, facial expressions, volume or tone. He may devote more time to these, or highlight them by examples. He may call the attention onto these by rhetorical elements, e.g. by drawing conclusions, or giving reasons. He may give an overview at the beginning and a conclusion at the end.- Leave some space (a few lines) between each topic.- Do not note the rhetorical and other redundant elements of speech.- Take notes briefly, always make a distinction between using key words and writing whole sentences.- Use signs and abbreviations consistently.- Use your own words in a way that the meaning is not changed.- Note the formulae, definitions, facts and data precisely.- Arrange, list or number the points to outline them.- Make figures or diagrams.- Leave enough space for later additions, write "spaciously".- If you miss something, write some key words about it and leave space for later additions.- Skip the descriptive parts and the complete explanations, when taking notes.

2. Reduce (Brief notes)	After the lecture, as soon as possible, briefly summarise your notes to the column of recollections. This outline will move your memory while studying, recollecting the information belonging to it. From the facts and thoughts of the notes the following, brief elements can be put here: 1. questions on the various parts; 2. key words and concepts discussed in the notes; 3. conclusions or subtitles.
3. Recite (Recollect)	Cover the column of notes, and, based on the column of recollections, try to recollect the whole content of the lecture. Then check it.
4. Reflect	Form your own "expert view", based on your experiences, observations and notes in the following way. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Examine how the learnt information can be related to your prior knowledge and the other subjects. – Which points do you agree with, and which ones do you not? – Which points are clear, and which ones are obscure or difficult to understand? – What new questions does the lecture raise for you? – Is the information applicable, and if so, where?
5. Review	

Table 10.: Taking notes, processing the information and learning with the method 5R⁶

4.2.1.2. Explanation

Explanation is a monologue-like form of conveying information by the teacher, through which the understanding of correlations, rules, theorems and concepts are enhanced. Its length is shorter than that of a lecture, depending on mainly the students' age, it varies between 5 to 10 or 20 to 25 minutes.

⁶ The so-called Cornell method makes it easier to organise, acquire and recollect the information. It was developed by Prof. Walter Pauk at Cornell University in the 1950s. Accessed 15. 03. 2013, [HTTP://WWW.UMANITOBA.CA/VIRTUALEARNINGCOMMONS/FILES/368/TH%20CORNELL%20NOTE-TAKING%20SYSTEM%2006.SWF](http://www.umanitoba.ca/virtualearningcommons/files/368/TH%20CORNELL%20NOTE-TAKING%20SYSTEM%2006.SWF)

The three types of explanation as a method

1. **Interpretative explanation:** It clarifies the meaning of concepts, terms, providing examples. Its typical question word is: What?
2. **Descriptive explanation:** It serves to demonstrate a process or a structure. Its typical question word is: How?
3. **Reasoning explanation:** It serves to reveal the reasons of the phenomena. Its typical question word is: Why?

The effective explanation

It is effective if it is: 1. logical, 2. clear, 3. interesting, 4. brief, 5. simple and 6. related to emotions.

The application of the method

1. **Defining the aims:** At planning it has to be precisely defined what we want to explain or prove; this makes it possible to select the relevant examples, to define the course of explanation, and to choose the appropriate tools of demonstration.
2. **Selecting and applying the examples:** We should apply examples that are familiar to the students too. The examples need to be suitable for the level and interest of the students; we should advance from the simple to the more complicated ones, and we also can offer counterexamples. We should give only as many examples as indeed providing new information. There are two approaches to the order of the rule and the example.
 - Deductive: first the rule is given, and then the example.
 - Inductive: the example is first provided, and this is followed by the generalisation, the rule.
3. **The logical structure of the explanation, using explanatory words and phrases:** Logically constructed explanations are characterised by explanatory conjunctions and phrases: because, for that reason, in order to, as a result, the reasons for this, so that, by this, the reason for this, consequently, that is, etc (the results of research show that there is a link between the frequency of explanatory conjunctions and students's performance).

4. **Using audiovisual equipment and tools of demonstration:** The explanations may need tools of demonstration (models, real objects, audiovisual equipment).
5. **Summaries and revisions of certain parts:** Students may not always receive all the information that is conveyed, therefore the relevant concepts, expressions and sentences should be repeated. At the stage of verification, it may be useful to review the parts that have been explained so far, or to list the results already achieved. At the end of the explanation, the summary is also a revision in character.
6. **Assessing the prior knowledge of the students:** This could take place at the end of the previous lesson, or before and during the explanation too.
7. **Precise wording, using familiar words:** We should finish our sentences, and should not end in mid-sentence; the foreign expressions need to be explained; too many foreign expressions may be distracting. We should not use redundant words or phrases (perhaps, nearly, a kind of, naturally, in any case, something like that, in fact, actually, etc.) We must be sure about the factual information conveyed, and we should not use words that suggest uncertainty (somewhere, someone, not all, about, perhaps, I am not sure about that, I don't know, how should I put it, etc.).
8. **Asking questions:** Questions during the explanation help to maintain the attention and to check the understanding of the explained concepts, or to change the course of explanation, according to the students's needs.

The specifics of the realisation – The rules of development of explanation as a train of thought⁷

1. from the simple to the complicated;
2. from the known to the unknown;
3. from part to the whole, or vice versa;

⁷ A gondolatvezetés logikája – 12 haladási szabály. [SMITMANS H. ,1969]

4. from the concrete to the abstract, or vice versa;
5. from the unique to the common, or vice versa;
6. from the non-controversial to the controversial, or vice versa;
7. from the accidental to the necessary, or vice versa;
8. from seeing to understanding;
9. from the real to the representation, or vice versa;
10. from practice to theory, or vice versa;
11. from the momentary to the lasting;
12. from the positive to the negative, or vice versa.

4.2.1.3. Narratives

Narratives are monologue-like methods of conveying information, which serve to describe a phenomenon, event, process, person or object in a vivid and expressive way. The point is to describe or convey some specific information, mainly by arousing the students' imagination and emotions. It can also be used as a tool of illustration (real objects, film clips, pictures).

4.2.1.4. Short lecture/oral presentation/ short oral presentation

Aim

To get information, or to gain knowledge, to seize the subject in its context, to realise the inner complexity of a given subject, to inspire individual thinking and the personal continuation of the work, or to launch a discussion.

Realisation

Someone talks, the others listen – but this can be made more dynamic by: responding to the questions and situation of the students, making the structure and parts of the presentation clear, imperative questions, additional materials that inspire a debate, different media, examples.

The short oral presentation can be applied as

- an opening and introduction;
- an interim report – after the completed parts, to summarise the results;
- a summary.

Conditions

- **Number of participants:** a group of any number of students
- **Time:** Better keep it short, a lecture/oral presentation: 40 to 45 minutes, a short lecture/short oral presentation: 10 minutes

Possible continuation

- discussion,
- facilitating questions:
 1. Concerning the participants' own experiences: e.g. How is the presentation related to your experiences? What could you add to it?
 2. Interpreting the presentation: What was new to me? What has become clearer to me? What do I not understand? What would I like to know more precisely?
 3. Concerning events, summaries, the continuation of the work: How can I put this into my practice?
- Questions could be given for work in small groups, individual work, or a discussion before an audience.

4.2.1.5. Sandwich method

Aim

The realisation and discussion of the prior individual knowledge, experiences and questions concerning a given topic, getting information and relating it to the prior individual knowledge.

Realisation

The sandwich method includes the following.

1. introductory discussion,
2. a short oral presentation,
3. a second discussion,

4. if the introductory and the second discussion are held in groups, the fourth step is a concluding discussion before an audience.

Then the procedure is

- a. We introduce the whole topic and the method.
- b. We form groups, which can work parallel on the same question, or on different questions, dividing the task.
- c. The groups work on their own questions and record their results.
- d. Short presentation, which discusses the whole topic according to professional or systematic points.
- e. The groups resume their work, compare their own points to those of the presentation, and improve their results.
- f. Before the audience, they discuss their improved results, in view of the whole topic.

Conditions

- **Number of participants:** up to about 45 persons
- **Time:** discussion: 30 minutes, short oral presentation: 15 minutes, discussion: 20 minutes, discussion before an audience: 30 minutes
- **Venue:** adequate space for work in parallel groups
- **Material:** The questions for the group should be either made visible, or they should be given orally, parallel with the distribution of the task.

4.2.1.6. The stimulating presentation

Aim

To take a well-defined and clearly structured set of information, to inspire individual thinking, discussion, to enhance the activity needed to work on a subject.

Realisation

1. The content or the whole topic – according to the structure of the subject – is divided into 3 or 4 parts – every part corresponds to a given part of the presentation.

2. Then the student giving the presentation presents the first part of the presentation – 5 to max. 10 minutes.
3. We interrupt the presentation, and ask the participants to discuss what has been said – in a debate/round table discussion or in a group. (e.g. How can this be related to the work done so far? What conclusions can you draw from what has been said?)
4. The student giving the presentation continues it after about 10 minutes, without referring to the group, or starting to answer the questions raised by the group straight away.

Conditions

- **Number of participants:** up to about 50 persons
- **Time:** 5 to 10 minutes for every part of the presentation, 10 to 15 minutes for discussions (or 10 to 45 minutes, according to the type of task)
- **Venue:** as you like it
- **Material:** It is useful to make the questions introducing the discussion visible, e.g. board or posters.

4.2.1.7. The discussion

The discussion with an educational purpose is an oral form of communication, during which students work on the material by answering the instructor's questions. This is the most often used, favourite method, which can be used in a variety of ways. Due to the contact between the instructor and the students, the teacher gets regular feedback from the students (and can proceed according to their needs).

The requirements of a successful discussion

- The topics have to be based on the **prior knowledge of the students**.
- The topic should be **interesting** and **delightful**.
- At the beginning of the discussion with an educational purpose, it is useful to define the topic and the aims to be achieved, and, in some cases, to offer a short introduction, e.g. to outline a problem, or a situation as an example.

- The opening, continuing and checking questions that are relevant from the progress of the discussion should be well planned.
- The atmosphere should be **informal** and **relaxed**, where it is possible to ask and to make mistakes.
- The instructor should lead the discussion from the background in a flexible but confident way.
- He must ensure that everyone participates in the discussion.
- He should correct the noticed mistakes and errors tactfully.

Discussion as a method has three main components

1. **Structure:** Setting the aims clearly before the lesson, highlighting the important ideas, summarising certain parts, indicating the transition from one part to another, summarising the main ideas.
2. **Asking questions:** (The most important part of the discussion) the questions must be precise, unambiguous and clear (e.g. instead of "Where is Hungary?": "On which continent is Hungary?"). The questions have to suit the level of the students, the questions should enhance students' cognitive skills. Let us leave enough time to think, let us ask several students.
3. **Feedback, evaluating the activity of the students:** In case of correct answers by the students, a praising word or a nod can be enough, but sometimes a more detailed positive evaluation is needed. In case of a partially correct or incorrect answer, a we should attempt a differentiated evaluation, that is, in addition to praising the positive side, we should also call attention on the missing parts. If there is no positive element in the answer, we can help the students by an encouraging, supportive evaluation.

Conditions

- **Number of participants:** up to 30 persons, so that everyone can speak
- **Time:** max. about 60 minutes
- **Venue:** as you like it for the discussion
- **Material:** tools to record the results, board, posters, felt-tip pens or markers

Asking technique

The role of asking in education is to guide the processes in the groups and to lead them through questions. The questions can concern the given subjects or processes, and also the emotions. Whereas in most work-related situations the declarative mode is the prevailing one, the instructor's activating role is best suited by the questioning attitude. It is crucial that the instructor's questions should motivate students to think and act together.

The functions of questions in the teaching and learning process

- They start the discussion and keep it in motion.
- They actively involve the participants in the work.
- They make the knowledge of the individual group members available for all.
- They guide the discussion, focusing on the aim.

The types and characteristics of the questions that can be used in education

1. **Closed (yes-no) questions:** These can usually be answered only by a yes or no, or the scope of the answer is limited by the possible answers that are given in advance. They do not inspire those giving the answer to think. We use such questions if we want to get a given piece of information, or if we summarise, as a means of clarification, and we request feedback as to whether we are right on what the other has said (e.g. You mean that Is that right?). Closed questions can also be used successfully to finish a given part, and to move on.
2. **Open-ended questions:** These inspire thinking and start processes through which new information is generated in the one giving the answer.

The questions can be about the following

- **What?** It asks about cause and effect relationships, usually remaining on an objective level; we can get to know only a limited layer of reality in this way.

- **For what reason?** It highlights an aim, motive, result, the future, relationships; these questions can often lead to a surprising amount of information.
- **What do you mean ...?; How do you feel ...?; What's the point ...?** It concerns the individual, asking particularly his own, personal opinion, judgement, case and feelings.

The rules of asking

1. Put the question clearly, unambiguously.
2. Do not ask about several topics with one question.
3. Illustrate every important question.
4. Do not give the answer in advance.
5. They should hear only such questions that can be answered.
6. Ask the question in way that it can be answered briefly.
7. Provoke an answer, but not the participants.
8. Always be careful with interpreting and evaluating the answers.

The right feedback in the teaching and learning process

The teaching and learning process is a special communicative situation, about which it is true that we do not know what we say until we can hear what the other answers (WATZLAWICK).

We receive the feedback appropriately if

- we let the partner say all he thinks necessary – we should not interrupt and try to make him alter what he has to say;
 - we do not interrupt approvingly or defensively;
 - we ask questions only for the sake of better understanding;
 - we think over every element of the feedback carefully.
1. **Tailor-made:** The frequency of feedback should be tailored to the given situation, the partner's needs, the topic, the type of education; we should not stick to our usual habits (e.g. constant, invariable nodding).
 2. **Moderate:** It is characterised by a "discreet sincerity", not by a blunt honesty, nor by a manipulative flattery.

3. **Focus on the aim:** It is constructive, having a perspective, and suggesting possibilities in the future; instead of explicitly drawing the conclusions, it is more effective if the receiver of the feedback draws them.
4. **Objective, factual:** It suggests a personal care and attention (subjectivity), in addition to aiming at objectivity.
5. **Specific:** Generalisations are useless; sooner or later they are not even heard.
6. **Never solely negative:** According to the "sandwich method" every critical remark should be enveloped by positive ones.

The possible continuation of the work based on the method of discussion

Working on methods that develop the various aspects of the subject, e.g. group work, short lecture, oral presentation, film screening, project ideas.

4.2.1.8. Debate

Debate is a dialogue-like method of communication, whose purpose is to develop the cognitive and communicative skills, beyond acquiring information. In a debate, students have a relatively high level of independence, the teacher guides the course of the debate from the background. In a well-organised debate, students address each other with their questions and opinions, not the instructor. The relationship of the participants is symmetrical.

Debate is different from a discussion in:

- students speak at least as much as the instructor;
- it is not a form of questions and answers, but the opinions, assertions, statements face each other;
- the interaction is initiated by the students, it is not for the teacher, but for each other;
- evaluation: not correct or incorrect, but agree or disagree;
- it is not only the teacher who evaluates, but the students also evaluate each other's responses, as well as those of the teacher.

4.2.1.9. Illustration

Illustration (demonstration or illustration) is an expressive educational method through which the objects, phenomena or processes are perceived and analysed. Its aim is to arouse students' attention, in order to develop visual thinking. It can be a starting point and a basis for teaching concepts, or to acquire the activity. It enhances understanding, but it is not a substitute of what is said; it merely supports that, and it should not distract the participants' attention.

The two types of illustration

- **Direct observation:** The instructor presents the objects, phenomena, processes.
- **Indirect observation:** It can be realised by the ever greater variety of educational equipment.

The characteristic features of the application of the method

- It focuses the participants' attention to a common point.
- It helps in the orientation.
- It makes it easier to grasp and memorise the information.
- It highlights the relevant points.
- It makes every participant participate actively and form their opinion.
- It reduces the length of the speech.

How to illustrate?

- During the preparation, we should think it over what subject is to be presented, with what purpose and for what targeted group.
- We should illustrate only what is essential; less is more.
- The form should enhance the further work on the topic.
- The subtitles should be large and legible, the images should not contain more than 3 to 5 statements.

Flipchart	The flipchart is the instructor's notebook in a bigger dimension. Use big letters and stick to the point.	
	Advantages: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The notes remain. - The sheets can be put next to each other. - It can be carried (group work). 	Disadvantages: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - There is relatively little space on the sheets. - It cannot be deleted.
Pinboard/sheet	We can pin either large pieces of paper, or small cards of moderation onto it. It allows a flexible and creative work through a variety of possible arrangements, since everything can be easily rearranged.	
	Advantages: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Big surface. - A variety of elements can be used. - It can easily be rearranged. 	Disadvantages: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Big, difficult to carry. - Needs a lot of materials. - Cannot be deleted.
Sheets and projector	The sheets (A4) that are written using specil pens, adequate for the overhead projector, can be projected onto a screen even by daylight. Thereby we can present the available information even in sophisticated charts.	
	Advantages: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - We can turn toward the group even as we write. - The pre-prepared sheets can be carried in large quantities. - It is easier to read the writing in capital letters. 	Disadvantages: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - We can show the information only for a short time. - The results cannot be presented side by side. - We need a screen. - The room usually needs to be darkened.
Subtitling cards	Certain rules apply for writing moderators' cards (small cardboards of about 10 cm × 10 cm), which are necessary for their visibility from a distance, and for a flexible application.	
	Subtitling moderators' cards: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - There should be only one idea per card. - There should be only 3 lines per card. - Use black markers, felt-tip pens. 	
	Writing: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Use printed letters. - The letters should not be too long downwards. - Use normal small and capital letters. 	Pens and colours: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Use thick markers or felt-tip pens (the writing is more visible). - Hold the pen in a way that its writing surface is mostly to the left and downwards while wtiting. - The writing should be black and blue, the drawings red and green. - The participants should use only black markers.

Table 11.: Tools of illustration

4.2.1.10. Methods to moderate

The one-point question

This can be used at the introduction or conclusion of a topic. They are particularly useful to illustrate moods, experiences of views, but they can also show whether the groups is homogeneous or heterogeneous. Their disadvantage is that they can be used in a very limited space of action. Their advantage is that we can get a quick overview of a specific question.

The application of the method

1. We ask the group members to answer a question, which is formulated and illustrated in advance, so that they stick a point onto the appropriate place in the asking sheet. This is usually of a two-pole scale, e.g. "easy – difficult".
2. The point of the pre-prepared (sometimes provocative) question is to recall specific experiences of the past or present, thereby already setting the tone of the topic – therefore it is important that it should not focus the attention on the future.
3. The participants stand at the pin-board at the same time, so as not to influence each other when forming their opinions.
4. The result always needs to be commented on (briefly). It is either the moderator who asks the team to comment on the picture, or every participant comments on their own why they have stuck the point to the given place. The comments can also be illustrated by cards, which can be put up to be viewed.
5. The topic can be elaborated by asking about the specific situations behind the scoring.

Asking by cards

It is a basic method of collecting topics, ideas, suggestions of solutions, etc., that is, a part of brainstorming. It ensures the participation of every group member, regardless of their speed, speaking skill or position of power. Every answer is equally important and can be arranged again any time. In case of bigger groups, its disadvantage is that at first the picture is not clear-cut, because of the many cards and the not always clear answers. However, this disadvantage

can be lessened, if the number of cards is reduced and they are arranged in a given system.

The application of the method

1. Write a clear question onto the pin-board.
2. Ask the participants to answer the question by a short answer, and write it onto a card. Indicate the time allowed for this.
3. The participants pin their answers on their own. Everyone pins their own card or the cards that are collected and shuffled in advance, and which they get back. When they pin, we can already ask them to pin the related answers next to each other. (To save time, the moderator can also do the pinning, after having read out the answer on the card.)
4. Make the participants explain the short answers, either when pinning, or when everyone's card is already on the board.
5. Finally, arrange the cards (clustering), and highlight the identical ones both verbally and optically. The clusters are decided by the group. If there is a debate about a card, it is settled by the one who wrote it, or it can be put into two groups too.

The specifics of the realisation

The number of cards should be limited not by suggestions of quantity, but by careful, specific questions. (E.g. "Which topics do you think are crucial?" We should not speak until the participants are writing.

"Shouted" questions

The answers that are freely "shouted" – or randomly contributed aloud – by the students can be used to collect topics and ideas. As the participants are not busy with writing, their spontaneous ideas can manifest themselves more freely. Moreover, the answers can yield further creative ideas. This questioning technique can be used when the topic is clear and spontaneity may be needed in seeking creative solutions for the problems. Its disadvantage is that the answers need not be thought about too much, therefore the participants having a quicker mind tend to dominate, and, because of the shouting, or the load oral contributions of the students, it is difficult to structure the topic.

The application of the method

1. Ask the students simply to shout (or say aloud) their answers or ideas concerning the illustrated question.
2. Note the shouted contributions, in the order of the answers, on a flipchart. The longer sentences need to be summarised.
3. During the phase of shouting, it is forbidden to evaluate or debate, so as to protect creativity.
4. Summarise the results, or the group can also comment on them.
5. Think about the further possible use of the answers, e.g. collecting them into a list of topics.

The specifics of the realisation

We should be careful not to alter the content of the shouted answers in the written summary. If we use abbreviations in the summary, we should ask and check whether the one giving the answer or the idea thought so.

We must not omit any comment, as the given person may take that as a degradation.

Multi-point questions

Multi-point questions serve selection, election or setting the priorities. Based on the given criteria, we can make a hierarchy of several topics. Therefore this is often used as a continuation of the questions with cards or shouting, through which we have collected the subjects. Evaluating the cards enhances the group members' identification with the given topic. Moreover, it also enhances group dynamics, as the coalitions and the various power relationships emerge.

The application of the method

1. Illustrate the various topics in a list of topics.
2. Every participant gets a certain number of points that can be pinned or attached (see below).
3. The moderator briefly explains the criteria of the evaluation or the given question, and asks the participants to distribute their points in the list.
4. Then the points are counted and the hierarchy is made.
5. The results are summarised similarly to the one-point question.

How many points should be distributed?

The points that are to be attached should be half of the offered alternatives, but one participant should have no more than 10 points, so that the weight can remain clear. One alternative can be given a maximum of two points.

In case of few (6 or 7) participants, we should round the result upwards, while with a bigger group, we should round downwards, if there is an odd number of alternatives, and we halve the points.

Multi-point questions often yield unexpected results in actual practice, as every participant's subjective weight is granted. Therefore clarifying processes are often held during work.

Collecting topics

Which topic should be worked on, or which one do we want to work on now?

Every task consists of various topics and sub-topics, moreover, every participant has their own ideas concerning them. Therefore, it is important to define the topics more specifically, and to set it down.

Our task in this stage is to be open concerning the participant's new topics, and also regarding their points of view. We should be aware that the very point of moderation is that every participant draws on their knowledge and experiences, and our responsibility concerns the process, not the content.

The application of the method

1. Illustrate the question on the collection of topics.
2. Make a **list of topics**, and collect the topics into it. The possible methods of collection topics are brainstorming and brainwriting.
 - **"Brainstorming"**: Write the topic onto the board, so that everyone can see it. The group members shout their ideas aloud. This evokes further associations, which yield more and more good ideas (see shouted question).
 - **"Brainwriting"**: The participants themselves write their ideas on a big poster, or onto moderating cards, which they then pin onto a pin-board. Take care that they do not add any comments. Ask the participants to be silent for a little while, for at first the answers are gained by the usual way of thinking, but the unusual ideas arrive only after a little pause.

The specifics of the realisation

At this stage, parallel to the first debates on the subject, the first group discussions and debates about the norms and points of views are also held. These clarifying steps on the level of relationships may delicately disturb the objective level, and, in some cases, these should first be discussed.

4.2.1.11. Simulation, role play and games

These are educational methods by which students, through *learning by experience*, learn concepts, events and phenomena, and practise activities.

- **Simulation:** Abstractions and simplifications of reality; we distinguish simulations of machine–man and man–man. In the former, the simulated reality is conveyed by a machine (e.g. an aeroplane). A man–man simulation is, for instance, a demonstration of microteaching/instruction: a group of students play the role of students in a lesson, and a fellow student teaches them.
- **Role play:** A situation where someone plays another man’s role or functions, e.g. the microteaching described above. Role play brings home the phenomena that are far away in time or space, so that they can be experienced; it motivates students and provides a lasting knowledge based on experience, developing empathy.
- **Games:** Contests, where victory can be attained by craft, strength or luck, observing certain pre-determined rules. Players can use equipment that is.

4.2.1.12. Podium discussion

Aim

To raise various aspects of a topic. Applying this method, students will be able to recognise the possibility of various perspectives of the topic, to realise the solution of the subject’s problems as a process; it motivates to seek information and form opinion individually.

Realisation

Several experts of a common topic, or its representatives with different attitudes or views talk about a given topic. The participants pay attention for a while, then join the discussion.

1. Opening: Introduction of the topic.
2. Discussion by those sitting on the podium
3. Inclusion of the participants
4. Ending

Conditions

- **Number of participants:** max. 5 people + the moderator on the podium, about 40 participants can take part successfully
- **Time:** introductory podium discussion: 20 to 30 mins, discussion with the public/podium discussion: alternating after 10 minutes, altogether 1.5 hours to 2 hours
- **Venue:** as you like it

4.2.1.13. Asking the experts

Aim

To obtain data, opinions, points of view. To get information and to motivate the formation of personal opinion.

Realisation

- A topic is worked on with the participation of one or more experts, in the form of questions and answers.
- At the beginning, the moderator of the discussion briefly introduces the topic.
- The participants prepare questions in advance, working in small groups, or before the assembly.
- The experts answer the questions.

Conditions

- **Number of participants:** max. 40 people
- **Time:** 30 minutes to collect the questions, 1 to 1.5 hours to answer them

- **Venue:** as you like it
- **Materials:** board, posters, markers (felt-pen)

4.2.1.14. Method 66/The Phillips method

A type of brainstorming; its aim is creative problem solving.

1. The lecturer asks a question to be answered, the participants collect ideas as possible answers on a board or poster.
2. A group of 6 members works for 6 minutes.
3. In the group the members take turns to share their ideas; if there is no idea, they "pass" and continue; there is neither justification, nor debate.
4. The groups report to the assembly, or go around and see the others' collections, taking the ideas they consider best onto their own sheet.
5. In a few minutes, the suggestions are arranged according to their weight; the unnecessary ones can be omitted.

4.2.1.15. Buzz session/ the beehive method

- The summarised material forms the basis of the debate.
- The summary and the evaluation are the tasks of the moderator.
- It can be easier for those who do not know each other to talk in small groups.
- The participants feel that they are involved in the question to be analysed.
- If the question is too difficult, or it cannot be solved, or not everyone can speak, there is no sense of success, which can be demotivating concerning the continuation.
- It is similar to Method 66, but the groups are bigger and there is more time.
- It is an excellent method to divide a lecture into parts, or it can also be used for consultation after a lecture with a big audience.
- It is useful for the swift discussion of questions that are relatively easy to discuss.

- It is always useful if our aim is that many can speak in a short time. A lot of opinions can emerge about prior knowledge in a short time, and they can be filtered.
- It is also useful if it is necessary that the comments are not be made before the whole assembly.
- If possible, the groups having buzz sessions should not disturb each other.
- The groups consist of 10 to 15 people.
- The time for discussion is 10 to 20 minutes.
- They have to decide who will report at the end of the work before the assembly.
- The groups have to allocate the tasks.
- The noteworthy suggestions need to be recorded, someone has to take notes.
- It should be applied only as an additional method to another, main method.
- It is fast, a wealth of opinions emerge in a short time, and they are filtered by the group.
- The task should be described clearly, with precise oral instructions; if necessary, also with written ones.

What should be the aim of application?

- Consultation
- Starting a debate: The debate of the whole group can be arranged from debates in small groups.
- Developing new practical procedures.
- Relating it to other tools (e.g. film, audio recording, newspaper article or a study).
- A lecture can also be started by this method, but it is also useful for exploring the prior experiences, views or problems.
- The level of prior knowledge can later be compared to the new knowledge.

Advantages

- It instantly activates almost every participant.
- It boosts individual work and cooperation.
- It can multiply the results that can be achieved.
- It is a flexible tool, which can well be applied to the changing situations.

Disadvantage

It is not suitable for complex educational purposes; the tasks of the buzz sessions have to be simple.

4.2.1.16. Training

Training is an intensive, member-centred educational method, which is based on group dynamics and operates with adult educational tools; "it is one of the best methods to develop the important personality traits (skills, abilities, competencies) in the professional activities, as well as for their functioning in daily practice."⁸ Its aim is to prepare someone for a task or job, to form, develop or enhance the relevant personality traits (skills, abilities, competencies), as well as to form a particular competency or part of a competency.⁹

Aim

Training is "the most adequate form of developing skills and abilities, in the form of learning from experience, where the participants – working on the given topic and drawing on their own experiences, interacting with the other members of the group – acquire the new knowledge directly, as an experience, and it is usually integrated in the repertoire of their behaviour."¹⁰

⁸ POÓR FERENC: A VIDEÓS PEDAGÓGIAI GYAKORLAT TAPASZTALATAI SZOMBATHELYEN, IN: A SZOMBATHELYI BERZSENYI DÁNIEL TANÁRKÉPZŐ FŐISKOLA TUDOMÁNYOS KÖZLEMÉNYEI IV., SZOMBATHELY, 1984. 269–282.

⁹ POÓR FERENC – WACHA IMRE: A PEDAGÓGIAI KÉPESSÉGEK ÉS FEJLESZTÉSÜK VIDEÓTECHNIKA SEGÍTSÉGÉVEL, OOK, VESZPRÉM, 1983. 5–7.

¹⁰ A SZEMÉLYZETI OSZTÁLY II. KJK-KERSZÖV, BUDAPEST, 2002. 158.

In the training, learning as an individual experience (through the so-called structured exercises) develops self-awareness and the understanding of people, social and leadership skills, as well as cooperative, communicative and problem-solving skills.¹¹

General features of trainings

Training is a personal experience in a protected environment; the point is learning from experience, structured exercises, feedback, and drawing conclusions. It is an interactive training in a small group, where the emphasis is on developing skills. The above-mentioned behaviour that is based on "experience" can be achieved if someone realises what kind of situations the acquired forms of behaviour and actions can be utilised in. In our experience, this kind of behaviour develops more quickly and effectively if the individual practises in model situations on relevant exercises, or if he knows the information that applies to the behaviour that is to be acquired.

The realisation of the training largely depends on the aims and the target group. The timing, structure and content of the training conforms to the group.¹² In case of every training, the knowledge and skills to be acquired must be defined exactly, and the achievement of the aims that have been set must be examined when the training is over.

4.2.1.17. Partner interview and introducing the partner

Aim

In a step-by-step form of introduction, the participants have to make contacts with 1. one of their fellow students, 2. the whole group.

¹¹ DR. GAZDAG MIKLÓS: TRÉNINGMÓDSZER A VEZETÉSI TANÁCSADÁSBAN. IN: HUMÁNPOLITIKAI SZEMLE 1991. II. ÉVF. 6. SZÁM.

¹² The Training Round Table was established by the leading Hungarian training organisations in 1997 with the purpose of strengthening the social recognition of the nation's training services. It plays a role in informing customers of the training services and in assessing the standards of the services, including ethical issues on the market.

Realisation

- 2 people sit down for a conversation.
- Pairing is random.

Questions

- Who am I?
- What makes this course attractive and exciting for me?
- What would I do if I were not here?

Conditions

- **Number of participants:** max. 24 people, even number, but it can be odd number too
- **Time:** 10 to 15 minutes for the dialogue in pairs, 30 to 35 minutes for introduction before the whole group
- **Venue:** a place for a "market place situation" is needed
- **Materials:** paper, posters

Possible continuation

- **Round table discussion:** About the issues discussed during the introduction of the partners, or on a pre-arranged topic.
- **Growing group:** Two pairs form a group of four and get a new task, e.g. to discuss the prior experiences more intensively, or to develop the possible applications of the material of the course, or to work on another aspect of the subject, which is given in advance.

4.2.1.18. Groups introducing themselves, focusing on a topic

Aim

- To get to know the other participants.
- To get closer to a topic, to set the boundaries and to define it exactly. It helps to get to know each other, and to start the cooperation of the groups.

Realisation

- A group consists of 4 or 5 people.
- The pairs are made randomly.
- Questions, which group members discuss:
 1. I am X.Y., and as for the topic of education, I am concerned with the following (e.g. a problem at work, specific experiences)...
 2. I have come to this programme, because ...
- The issues that are regarded mutually important in the discussion are summarised and noted onto a poster. This can be a key word, a motto or a slogan.
- After the group work they hang the posters, and one person from each group briefly explains what they have written onto it: "In our group ...", "All of us think it important that ..."

Conditions

- **Number of participants:** max. 40 to 50 people
- **Time:** 20 to 30 minutes for the discussion in groups and to note the results, plus 20 to 30 minutes for presenting them before the whole group
- **Materials:** posters, markers (felt-pens)

Possible continuation

- The detailed presentation of the planned programme – which can be connected to further points discussed in group work.
- Students can go on working, focusing on the topic too.

4.2.1.19. The inventory of expectations

Aim

To formulate the individual expectations, and to inform the group about them.

Realisation

1. Everybody makes a note concerning the following question:
"What change do I expect from this programme of education?"

2. Everybody seeks a partner and they discuss their expectations concerning the education. They note the particularly important issues onto a notice board that is hung on the wall.
3. Everybody can have a look at the expectations and compare them. The notice board is in the room throughout the course, the expectations can be followed constantly.

Conditions

- **Number of participants:** max. 40 people
- **Time:** max. 8 to 10 minutes for individual work, 10 to 12 minutes for pair work
- **Venue:** free space for pair work, and for the notes on the notice board
- **Materials:** posters, markers (felt-pens)

Possible continuation

- What are the key points that can be seen from the answers?
- What can we conclude from this (e.g. former experiences)
- Summarise the expectations and offer a look at your own plan, showing the differences and the identical points.

4.2.1.20. Work in small groups

Aim

The participants have to take an active part in working on the subject, they have to share their own questions and experiences, utilise their already acquired professional skills, and develop the skill to work on the information and solve the problems on their own.

Realisation

Groups of 4 people discuss a given topic.

Conditions

- **Number of participants:** about 35 people in groups of 4
- **Time:** 20 minutes for group work (it can also be 10 to 45 minutes, according to the task)
- **Venue:** movable chairs and desks

Possible continuation

- They can report on their results before the assembly, key words written on papers or posters, oral presentation.
 1. Through tasks of brief summary, e.g. they have to summarise their ideas in 3 theses, or they have to make 3 similar rules.
 2. Through creative forms – e.g. pictures, collages.
- If the results are kept mainly by the group: The assembly starts working on a new question to carry on, and lets the group tell only the most important points – "Was there anything important or interesting in your group that you would like to share with the others now?"

4.2.1.21. Individual work

Aim

To focus on a question, problem or task individually, to find and record individual ideas, to explore a personal way that can raise a new question, to explore or confirm knowledge.

Realisation

Announcing the individual work by defining the topic and the means or recording the results, e.g. to record them in key words onto a sheet, or to represent them in a drawing.

Conditions

- **Number of participants:** It can also be applied in a big group, if the results are kept by the participants, or if it is continued by working in small groups.
- **Time:** According to the size and intensity of the task, it can be very short too, e.g. 3 minutes.
- **Venue:** as you like it
- **Materials:** tools to record the results, board, posters, markers (felt-pens), other materials for the work itself

Possible continuation

Work in small groups, or the discussion of the results.

Conditions

- **Number of participants:** as you like it
- **Time:** 10 to 15 minutes
- **Venue:** as you like it
- **Materials:** papers, pens, board, small pieces of paper

Possible continuation

- Work in small groups.
- Discussion before the assembly – focusing on a certain question.

4.2.1.24. A given situation with questions

Aim

To explore a topic through a concrete situation, in order to clarify personal problems and questions, to involve the prior individual knowledge and experiences, to look for possible solutions.

Realisation

The participants are given a situation that is described briefly and clearly, together with questions, which investigate various levels of personal attitudes to the problem.

Conditions

- **Number of participants:** Everyone does the task related to the situation alone, on their own; if we want to involve the whole group in the phase of evaluation, max. 30 people.
- **Time:** About 10 minutes for the individual work on the task; the evaluation depends on the applied methods.
- **Venue:** as you like it for the individual work and for the work in the big group
- **Materials:** enough work sheets with the description of the situation and the added questions

Possible continuation

- Work in small groups, e.g. 3 people.
- Discussion before the assembly – focusing on one particular question.

4.2.1.25. Case study

Aim

To explore a topic, based on a concrete situation, to clarify personal problems and questions, to involve the prior individual knowledge and experiences, to look for possible solutions.

Realisation

The case attempts to describe in a written form one or more of such aspects of reality that are typical of the given topic or task and coincide with the participants' experiences. It should be like this:

- The topic has to be illustrative.
- The group has to do a given task.
- The participants have to find various solutions to a given problem.
- The participants have to find out the background of the given topic.
- It can be:
 1. **An open case:** We present it without a solution; the task is to find solutions to this.
 2. **A closed case:** We present it with the solution; the task is to analyse the case and to evaluate the solution.
- The description of the task has to be clearly structured, clear and brief.
- The task must contain the necessary information from the point of its designation, and it should offer possibilities of identification.
- The task has to be clear and manageable within the given time; it should motivate/ attract students to work on it.
- The case is read out before the assembly or in the group; they discuss it and work on the solutions, discussing them in the group.

Conditions

- **Number of participants:** max. 30 people
- **Time:** 30 minutes to work on the case, 45 minutes on the related task
- **Venue:** as you like it for the group work
- **Materials:** written description of the case, papers to record the events

4.2.1.26. Discussion/ round table discussion

Aim

To explore a common topic, to start a process of understanding by alternating speaking and listening, to work out a common result, to listen to and accept others' opinions.

Realisation

1. Getting to know each other.
2. An opening question, which is open-ended and important to every participant.
3. Development: Everybody can freely speak.
4. System: The comments are arranged by the leader (moderator), so that every single point can be further discussed later on.
5. Explanation: The various points are explained more specifically.
6. Ending: Conclusion.

A balance should be maintained between the development of the subject, the participants/ group, and their mood.

Conditions

- **Number of participants:** 8 to 18 people
- **Time:** 60 to 90 minutes
- **Venue:** The participants should see each other, the leader (moderator) should be able to keep eye contact with everyone.
- **Materials:** a board to record the results, paper

4.2.1.27. For and against

Aim

To explore the aspects of a topic, to develop skills of concentration and argumentation, to identify with others' arguments, to be active.

Realisation

It can be applied particularly with topics that are themselves laden with stress or conflicts.

1. The clear announcement of the topic (perhaps writing it on the board).
2. The whole group is divided into two parties, one is FOR, the other is AGAINST.
3. Both groups think over their ideas concerning the topic, FOR or AGAINST.
4. Members of the two groups take their stands, arguing according to their views.
5. In an evaluation (discussion/ round table) they collect the main points of the discussion, for and against.

Conditions

- **Number of participants:** 20 people, but only a few of them take part in the debate
- **Time:** 10 minutes to think over their own side, 20 to 40 minutes for the discussion, 30 minutes for the evaluation
- **Venue:** variable furnishings

Possible continuation

E.g. discussion with an educational purpose.

4.2.2. Methods to support atypical learning¹³

The types of working in atypical teaching and learning

- group and team work;
- peer learning, cooperative forms of working;
- individual forms of working, learning from experience, individual learning, practical learning, outdoor learning based on personal experience, learning at home, open learning, distance learning, learning through the media,
- flexible learning, digital learning, e-learning, blended learning, alternative education;
- coaching.

¹³ Based on KADOCSA, 2006

4.2.2.1. Cooperative techniques¹⁴

The cooperative educational method

The point of the cooperative educational method is that it is based on the activities of students working in small groups of 4 to 6 people. Beyond the development of knowledge and intellectual skills, it has a major role in developing social and cooperative skills.

The general features of the cooperative method

- The participants work together, they are as responsible for each others' results in learning as for their own.
- The success and the results depend on the performance of every single member, therefore they motivate and support each other.
- It has a number of types, e.g. learning in a group, individual competition, mosaic learning, and the techniques below.

Grid of opinions (Schreibgitter)

The method of the grid of opinions integrates and develops one of the oldest methods of cooperative learning, Think-Pair-Share (KAGAN, 1994), which is based on the mutual exchange of opinions and discussion. The exercise can be done in groups of three or four, with the work sheet below, which was devised by Rolff (ROLFF, 2004).

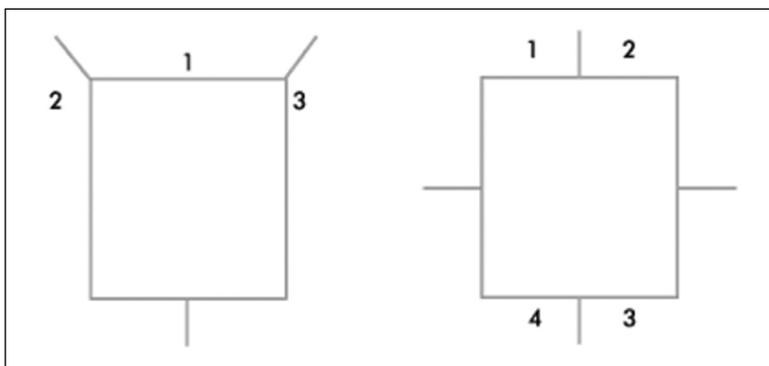


Figure 7.: Grid of opinions for groups of three or four people

¹⁴ The source of the discussed cooperative methods and techniques: ÓHIDY ANDREA: AZ EREDMÉNYES TANÍTÁSI ÓRA JELLEMZŐI. IN: ÚJ PEDAGÓGIAI SZEMLE 2005/12.

1. We write the question on the board, e.g. "What is a successful lesson like?"
2. As a first step, the participants list individually what they think the three most important features of a successful lesson; this is recorded in point 1 of the figure.
3. The next phase is the discussion of the group members. Students record each other's opinions in points 2, 3 and 4.
4. In the next step, based on the debate of the the group members, they choose the three most important features from those listed individually. These are recorded in the small square in the middle of the figure.
5. The features selected by the groups are put on the board, and they are debated before the assembly, and additions are provided by a common *brainstorming*.
6. The next important step is to arrange the information gained so far into a system. For both tasks, the best method is the *cluster chart* (mind map).

Cluster chart (Mind map)

The application of cluster charts (mind maps) is thus suitable for doing two different tasks at the same time (BUZAN, 1983). On the one hand, it helps the collection of creative ideas and associations related to the topic, that is brainstorming (which means a storm of ideas), on the other hand, by describing various logical relationships, this can also help in the systematic arrangement of the information.

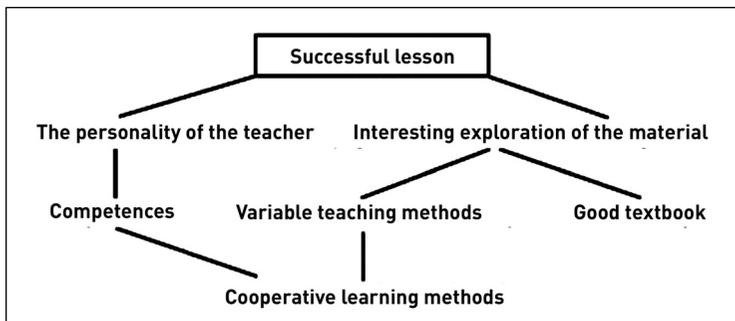


Figure 8.: An example for a cluster chart (mind map) for the topic of "the successful lesson"

The graphic representation of the concepts and ideas related to the topic as a net largely corresponds to the systematic activity of the human brain, and it is also similar to the structure of the most important medium of getting information, the internet. These similarities have a good influence on the effectiveness of learning too.

1. They make the cluster chart (mind map) in the earlier groups or three or four, using the concepts and ideas collected on the board, in a given time (20 minutes).
2. In the next step, every group shows the cluster chart they have made (it is useful to hang these side by side).
3. Finally, a common cluster chart is made from those of the groups before the assembly, and it remains hung up at clearly visible place until the end of the lesson.

So far, collecting and arranging the individual knowledge, we have summarised the already available knowledge of the participants. The next step is to raise the knowledge collected thus to a higher level, to check and perhaps to correct it. We have to take the individual knowledge, opinions and points of view from the subjective world to the realm of objective facts. Therefore the next step is the comparison with the results of empirical scientific research.

1. The first step is to delineate the results of scientific research in a short review lecture.
2. We compare this with the cluster chart made at the lesson.
3. By discussing the similarities and differences, we complement our already available knowledge.

Quick shoes (Schneller Schuh)

The method of quick shoes or, as it is called in the English literature, Graffiti Steps (GIBBS, 1987), facilitates brainstorming in a group by approaching a topic from various perspectives. The point of the method is thus to change perspectives. In the example for the description of this method, we examined the expectations concerning school and education from the perspectives of teachers, parents, students and employers.

The application of the method

1. We write the question on the board, so that it can well be seen by everyone, "What is a good school like?"
2. Making several tables free for the exercise, we lay three or four big posters on them. Each poster contains one particular point of the topic to be examined. In our case, we were concerned with the expectations of the teachers, parents, students and employers.
3. We appoint a group for every poster, with the task of examining the topic from the given point of view.
4. Every member of the group writes down all their ideas and questions concerning the topic in a given time (10 minutes).
5. In the next round, every group goes to another table, and they arrange and write down their ideas according to the point given there, regardless of the opinions of the others (the other members of the group, or the members of the former group).
6. This rotation of the groups lasts until every group arrives to their initial position.
7. The members of the group read all the notes on the poster together, then they arrange them according to the topics, and summarise the most important ideas in a short presentation before the assembly.

Mutual introduction (Nametag activity)

Getting to know each other and mutual introduction are in the centre of the method called Nametag activity. Naturally it can be applied at the beginning of the teaching unit.

The application of the method

1. Every participant is given a nametag (it is cheaper and faster to write the name on a piece of adhesive tape).
2. Every participant is given an air balloon, onto which they write their name and one characteristic, positive feature, when it is inflated.
3. In the first round of introduction, everyone reads out the feature written next to their name.

4. The participants make pairs. One member of the pair tells a story of his own life, school experiences, which had a positive influence on his attitude to learning.
5. The other member of the pair, while listening to the story, seeks another positive feature in the personality of his conversation partner, and writes it on the balloon at the end of the story.
6. In the next round, they repeat the task after changing roles.
7. When everyone is ready, they read out the positive features received on their balloon before the others.
8. Beyond getting to know each other and the mutual introduction, the purpose of the exercise is to "activate" the personal experiences and knowledge related to the topic.
9. The the participants' informal discussion functions, on the one hand, to "cut the ice", that is, to help creating a relaxed and playful atmosphere that enhances learning, on the other hand, it functions as a warm up exercise for the topic.
10. A further aim of the exercise is to create a positive attitude: the focus should be on the strengths of the participants, on their positive features that can be or should be developed, rather than on their shortcomings.
11. The exercise should always be followed by a more thorough, thematic work on the topic.

External circle – internal circle

As the title of the method suggests, we form circles from two groups of equal number of people. The members stand or sit facing each other. By "moving" the circles, always new pairs of students are formed, who split up immediately after doing the exercise.

The characteristics of the application of the method

1. We write a major question related to the main topic to be worked on.
2. In the first step, everybody writes down everything that occurs to them individually, spontaneously, drawing on their associations.
3. Then everybody selects five expressions by which they would define the central concept related to the question.

4. The members of the external circle read out the five statements to those in the internal circle, who criticise and complement the list, or ask questions.
5. The external people then correct their lists, based on these comments.
6. The external circle moves one step on, and now the members of the internal circle read out what they have written, and those in the external circle complement, criticise and ask.
7. After about three or four such steps, we write every concept that has arisen on the board before the assembly, and based on them, we make a common definition.
8. After the summary of the new material that has been learnt, it is very important to confirm the knowledge.

Jigsaw method (Mosaic of parallel experts)

The Jigsaw method is a basic method of the types of *cooperative learning*. It has several versions, but all of them are based on the principle of **"learning by teaching"**. Every study group develops itself to become an **"expert"** of one part of the given topic, then, in the second part of the exercise, it passes on this knowledge to the others. A major advantage of the method is that every participant plays the role of the student and also that of the teacher at the same time.

The characteristics of the application of the method

- The applied material is mainly written, but films or audio recordings can also be used.
- We should always try to make groups of the same size. The optimum is 5×5 or 6×6 , that is, 5 groups of 5, or 6 groups of 6 people. The groups formed in this way will be the "experts".

The application of the method

1. Every member of the group gets the same text to be worked on, which describes a given part of the topic.
2. Individual work: in the first step, students read the text on their own, underline the key words, write down their thoughts and questions.

3. Debate (small group): the debate of the "expert groups": the discussion, debate and explanation of the common topic in a given time (10-15 minutes). They make explanatory materials together: a sheet, cluster chart or outline.
4. The formation of expert teams: in this step new groups are formed, in such a way that in the new groups one person is present from each expert group, and he presents his own model (of which now he is the expert in the group) to the others.
5. Work in the expert teams: the task is to find similarities between the parts of the topic discussed in the different texts.
6. Recording the results of the work of the expert teams: every group makes a list, which is written onto posters.
7. Presentation of the group work: the posters are hung up next to each other, and every group presents their own list.
8. Discussion before the assembly: summarising the results of the groups, a common list is made before the assembly.
9. Debate (assembly): in the course of a common debate, the list can be complemented.

4.2.2.2. The project method

The ability to work individually, assess a situation and solve problems, and to cooperate with others, is an essential requirement of employees today. The project method¹⁵ can simulate the situations where the learning adult has to work successfully in a real project work at the workplace later on. The project method is based on the individual work, creativity and internal motivation of students, through which they work individually, in pair or a group on a real problem, taken from life, and create a product that they design and accomplish own their own. This active and experience-like process of learning takes longer (project day, project week, etc), in it splendidly involves

¹⁵ Based on NÁDASDI M.: A PROJEKTOKTATÁS. BUDAPEST, GONDOLAT KIADÓI KÖR – ELTE NEVELÉS-TUDOMÁNYI INTÉZET, 2003

in the accomplishment the things learnt outside the lessons, along with the already available experiences of the adult. Room is given to the participants' own ideas and creativity too.

The characteristics of the application of the method

- An open, flexible method that can be realised in various ways.
- The instructor sets the topic; he does not offer a ready-made knowledge, but works as a consultant, constantly monitoring the process of learning.
- The main task of the instructor is to launch the work, and to participate in the evaluation (reflection).
- The participants work individually; they plan the process of working, and the realisation is also up to them.
- The realisation of the project largely depends on the independence and the organisation skills of the students, on their available knowledge and experiences.
- Through the solution of the problems, the project work develops human relationships, social competence; it teaches students how to cooperate and adapt.
- Students learn during the activity (learning by doing).
- They apply the theoretical knowledge learnt in the lessons and the practical knowledge learnt elsewhere (together with their experiences).
- It activates and encourages learning, motivates, boosts the expression of individual opinion, discussion and debate; therefore the participants are inclined to study.
- It provides opportunity for the group members of different knowledge and experiences to learn from each other.
- It is based on cooperation, therefore everyone has an equal chance to explore their abilities.
- The group has a common assessment, that is, every member receives the same evaluation.

The application of the method¹⁶

The tasks of preparation

- To set and work out the planned time and duration (schedule).
- To define the purpose of the project – what are they going to be able to do at the end?
- To define the points of evaluation – this is a basic rule of the work; the students get to know it at the beginning of the project and they work accordingly.

The specifics of the "contract"

- The instructor's task is to inform students about the point of the project method and the special rules of the work.
- It demands a different type of participation from both the participants and the instructor.
- The working groups can be formed either 1. according to the interest in the various topics, or 2. as decided by the instructor.

The specifics of the realisation

- The steps of the work of students
 1. Planning the tasks.
 2. Individual work of students (possible methods: brainstorming, mindmap).
 3. The possible realisation of the task, the necessary steps, personal and material conditions (possible methods: organised information; the means and the schedule of the work is fixed in writing).
 4. The realisation of the task (accomplishing the previous ideas, carrying out the plan).
 5. Presentation: Presenting the solution of the task before the group – the group illustrates the common work (possible methods: ppt presentation, lecture, explanation) – this could also be public, before experts.

¹⁶ Based on TÖRGYIK J.: A PROJEKTMÓDSZER ALKALMAZÁSI LEHETŐSÉGEI A FELSŐOKTATÁSBAN. 2012. IN: SÁRDI CSILLA (ED.): A FELSŐOKTATÁS-PEDAGÓGIA KIHÍVÁSAI A 21. SZÁZADBAN. EÖTVÖS JÓZSEF KÖNYVKIADÓ, BUDAPEST, 2012

6. Evaluation of the task: Self-reflection, self-evaluation, feedback by fellow students and the instructor about the work, product, quality of the performance, according to the points of evaluation provided beforehand, confirming the positive points.
- The work can be organised as individual, pair or group work.
 - The instructor can also arrange informal occasions of learning.
 - The instructor is in the role of a mentor – he observes, monitors, gives advice, adds comments, helps or consults if necessary, but he does not give direct guidelines.

4.2.2.3. World café¹⁷

The basic principle of the Café is that people possess all wisdom and creativity by which even the greatest difficulties can be overcome. In the appropriate context and with the right focus, we can gain access to the relevant knowledge about the important things or issues, and we can also use that. World café is a simple method to create a living web of conversations about the relevant questions serving real life. Accordingly, this method can be organised and arranged for various reasons, therefore there are several mutations of the basic method in practice: such as creative Café, knowledge Café, strategic Café, leadership Café, etc. The inherent power of these conversations is invisible and so natural that we usually do not even notice it. However, it can be seen what opportunities and development occur if there are several conversations among the people.

The characteristics of the application of the method: the Café principles

Only imagination can set the boundaries of the exciting conversations of World Café. The Café form is very flexible and it can be applied in different conditions too. The application of the following principles can enhance the cooperation in the conversations and support the possibility of active participation and united action.

¹⁷ Source: [HTTP://WWW.THEWORLDCAFE.COM/TRANSLATIONS/HUNGARIANCAFETOGO.PDF](http://www.theworldcafe.com/translations/hungariancafetogo.pdf) [Accessed 03. 04. 2013.]

1. Clarify the aim.
2. Create a place that is attractive for guests.
3. Look for the relevant questions.
4. Encourage participation.
5. Connect the various approaches.
6. Pay attention, gain insight and share your findings.

The realisation of the method

- Make four or five people sit down around a small round table.
- Arrange three "rounds" of 20 to 30 minutes each.
- Focus on topics or issues that really matter in life, work and the community.
- Encourage both the host of the table and the participants to draw, write down their thoughts, key words and ideas onto the tablecloth, sheets of paper or cards put on the table.
- To make the discussion complete, one person stays at the table, as the host of the table, while the others, as the "ambassadors of the report", take the key ideas, topics and questions to another table.
- The host of the table welcomes the new guests and briefly shares the most important ideas, topics and questions of the previous discussion with them. He encourages them to connect the ideas of their earlier discussions to what they have heard, drawing on the careful listening to each other's comments.
- As the participants are involved in several discussions, the result is that the ideas, topics and questions are connected to each other. By the end of the second round, every table in the room is "pollinated" by the insights of the former discussions.
- In the third round the participants can return to their original table to summarise their findings, or they can continue travelling between the tables. The host of the table can change. Sometimes a new question can help deepen the finding in the third round.
- After a few rounds, initiate a discussion with the whole group, so that everyone can share their insights. In these open rounds the

patterns can be realised, the collective knowledge is enhanced, and so is the chance to initiate action.

- When you know what you would like to achieve and how much time you have, you can decide on the number of discussions and their length, the most effective means of using questions, and you can choose the most interesting way of “pollinating” the ideas.

The specifics of realisation

“Café etiquette” (for the participants)

- Focus on the main point.
- Share your ideas and feelings alike.
- Speak from your heart.
- Listen with a considerate attention.
- Connect the thoughts and ideas to each other.
- Pay attention, so that you can see the deeper issues.
- Feel free to play and write or draw onto the tablecloth.

Café tools

- Small round tables, ideally of 90 to 100 cm in diameter. Smaller tables used for playing cards are also good. Colourful tablecloths.
- Chairs for every participant, guests and the moderator.
- Flipchart paper or other white sheets of about A0 in size, 2 or 3 per table.
- Thick markers (felt-pens) in many colours. Dark colours (green, black, blue, lilac) are recommended for their visibility, but 2 or 3 bright or light colours should also be used (yellow, orange, light green, light blue, red) for highlighting the important points.
- Small vases, flowers, glasses for the felt-pens.
- A dinner table for food and drinks.
- Paper on the wall to show the common knowledge: flipchart paper or white wallpaper (e.g. 120 × 180 cm).
- Boards or display panels, onto which papers can be attached (pin board).
- The blank surface of a wall of about 4 m (up to 100 people).

- It is also good to have: a projector and screen, CD player, background music, sound system, a microphone for the moderators and two additional microphones for the participants, stapler, rubber tape, markers, pencils, papers for the personal notes (colour A5), post-it (125 × 75 mm, in light colour).

The tasks of the host of the Café

- His main task is to look out for the application of the principles
 - it is not the special formal parts that are important here, but rather the spirit of the principles. It is up to the host whether an interesting and powerful discussion unfolds.
- Together with the planning team, they frame the reason and aim of the meeting and decide whom to invite.
- They choose a title for the event that is suitable for the occasion, e.g. Leadership Café, Knowledge Café, Strategic Café, Discovery Café.
- He helps to invite the participants.
- He welcomes the participants on their arrival.
- He tells the participants the purpose of the meeting.
- Before the conversations he asks the questions and makes sure that everyone has heard them.
- He describes the principles and etiquette of the Café, and hangs them at a visible place or puts them on the tables.
- He should explain the logistics of the Café, including the role of the hosts of the tables.
- During the discussions he should be near the tables.
- He should encourage participation.
- He should remind the participants that they can draw, scribble and take notes.
- When the time is up, he should gently note that it is time to go to another table.
- He should ensure that the important ideas are collected and hung up on the wall.
- Be active in applying the principles, so as to make the best out of the situation.

The tasks of the host of the table

- He reminds the others to write or draw the key words, thoughts, ideas or deeper questions onto the tablecloth.
- He stays at the table when the others go on, and welcomes the arriving people.
- He briefly outlines the previous discussion, so that the newly arrived people can connect their own thoughts and ideas.

4.2.2.4. Individualised teaching: coaching, consulting and mentoring¹⁸

COACHING

The term coaching comes from sports psychology, where the aim of the coach is to support the sportsmen to realise and overcome the obstacles that hinder their performance. According to the International Coach Federation (ICF), **professional coaching** is a professional relationship that helps clients to achieve outstanding performances either in their private lives or in their work, or in the organisation they work for.

The characteristics of coaching as a process of teaching and learning

- The client deepens his knowledge, improves his performance, and, as a result, the quality of his life is also improved.
- The client decides on the focus of the conversation, the coach carefully listens to him, provides feedback, and primarily asks questions. This helps the client to see more clearly and to take action.
- He concentrates on revealing where the client is at the moment, and what he wants to do, so as to get where he would like to be.
- The result of the process is the client's result, that is, the consequence of his intention, choice and actions, which the coach, as the expert of the process, has supported.

¹⁸ Source: [HTTP://WWW.COACHKOR.EU/COACHING.HTML](http://www.coachkor.eu/coaching.html) [Accessed 03. 04. 2013.]

Types of coaching

- **Executive coaching:** It helps the people on top level of decision making to solve their special dilemmas, often considering questions that they cannot share with others, and to see clearly in making the actual or the strategic steps.
- **Middle level management coaching:** It serves the development of the management skills of middle-level managers, when the manager would like to change the routine and wants to introduce a new style or new tools, and he would like to test them in the protected confines of coaching.
- **Group coaching:** When managers of various companies or fields gather and discuss their experiences or share their views, through their own cases, situations or problems to be solved, moderated by the coach.
- **Team coaching:** It supports the members of a project team in solving the problems of a particular project. It can be applied successfully, for instance, when forming the cooperations of a new management team, exploring new resources, or finding optimal solutions together.
- **Life coaching** helps clients to plan their future, rather than to overcome their past.

The differences between coaching and therapy

Therapy

- In therapy, the client's personality is in the centre.
- It looks into the past for the answers about the origion of the psychological damage or malfunction, and also to find out how it affects the person's current emotional life and behaviour.
- The focus is on the past experiences and behavioural patterns of the patient.
- The relationship of the therapist and the patient is usally unequal, the patient relies on the therapist.
- The aim is to heal the wounds caused by the psychological damage or trauma, to change the behaviour, or to solve the conflicts in the person's relationships.
- The result of the therapy is an improvement in the quality of the patient's life.

Coaching

- Coaching concentrates on the present and the future.
- The purpose of coaching is not to reveal the personality of the client, but to motivate and support his personal and professional development.
- The coach and his client together develop a strategy and action plan by which the client reaches the set goals himself.
- The focus of attention is on the client's learning and development, which can be reached by monitoring the tasks and deadlines set by himself.
- The result of the change and development is the achievement of the set goal.

The differences between coaching and training

Training

- Management training is a form of education to develop the skills or competences needed to do a task.
- In general, two kinds of management problems are dealt with: 1. case studies of the typical management situations, 2. problems raised by the participants during the instruction.
- Usually 10-12 people participate in a training, and they do not find a solution to everyone's problem.
- It is usually fixed in the programme of the management training how much time is devoted to the various topics.
- It is typical that the participants are completely taken out of their usual working environment. The advantage is that the managers can thus concentrate on the training material to be learnt, but the disadvantage is that they cannot do their own job at the time of the training.
- In a training, practice is provided by studying the situations.

Coaching

- Coaching does not look for answers to general problems, instead, it examines how the manager has to change or develop, how he can overcome his actual problems.

- At the next meeting they can already analyse the experiences.
- Coaching is much more flexible than training.
- The coach comes to the client's place, and conforms to the working hours or the schedule of the manager.

Management training and coaching are two different methods, yet they can work well together and complement each other. It is a common question at trainings how the skills and enthusiasm gained during the training can be transferred to the workplace. Coaching is an excellent means of taking the learnt material to the daily work even on the same day.

The differences between coaching and mentoring

Mentoring

- It is typical of mentoring that two persons with different professional and personal experiences are connected to each other.
- The mentor and the mentored person usually work at the same place, and there is often a hierarchical relationship between them.
- The mentor, who has a more experience at the workplace, helps the mentored person with professional advice, so that he can progress in the organisational hierarchy and get on a higher step in his career.

Coaching

- The coach comes usually from outside the company, therefore there is no hierarchical relationship between the two parties.
- The coach does not necessarily have to know the place, and he does not give advice.
- The similarity between the two methods is that the partners are in a confidential and intimate relationship, so as to work effectively.
- The most important difference is that the coach does not offer his own knowledge and experience to the client, but motivates him to acquire new knowledge and experience..

The differences between coaching and consultation

Consultation

- Management consultations help managers to identify, analyse and solve the problems that arise at the company concerning the principles, organisation, processes and methods.
- The consultant offers an action plan for the given situation and also helps to realise that plan.
- The focus is on the solution of the problem of the particular project and on the expertise of the consultant. In this case the change and development of the client can be achieved if the consultant points out the missing knowledge, skills or experience.

Coaching

- The coach does not provide the solution for the problems, but leads the client toward the solution by guided questions, attention and listening without prejudices.
- He does not tell what the person has to do, but lets him find the way and method that are the most appropriate for him.

4.2.2.5. Home work (individual)

The main point of the method

Home work is an educational method based on the individual activity of the students, who do it between the lessons, on their own. The tasks of the instructor are: to assign the home work, to prepare students for doing the home work, and to evaluate the work.

We can enhance the effectiveness of doing the home work by

- The home work must be assigned carefully; it should be felt that the teacher regards it as significant.
- It should have a successful solution.
- The home work should be related to work in the lesson.
- It should serve to practise the knowledge acquired in the lesson, or to prepare students for the next lesson. The difficulty of the exercises should correspond to the ability of the students.
- In case of a longer process of teaching and learning, we should regularly give shorter exercises, rather than rarely a lot.

The Teacher is going on the Road... One step after another:
"What? For Whom? With What?
How? Why? Who? What's the point?"

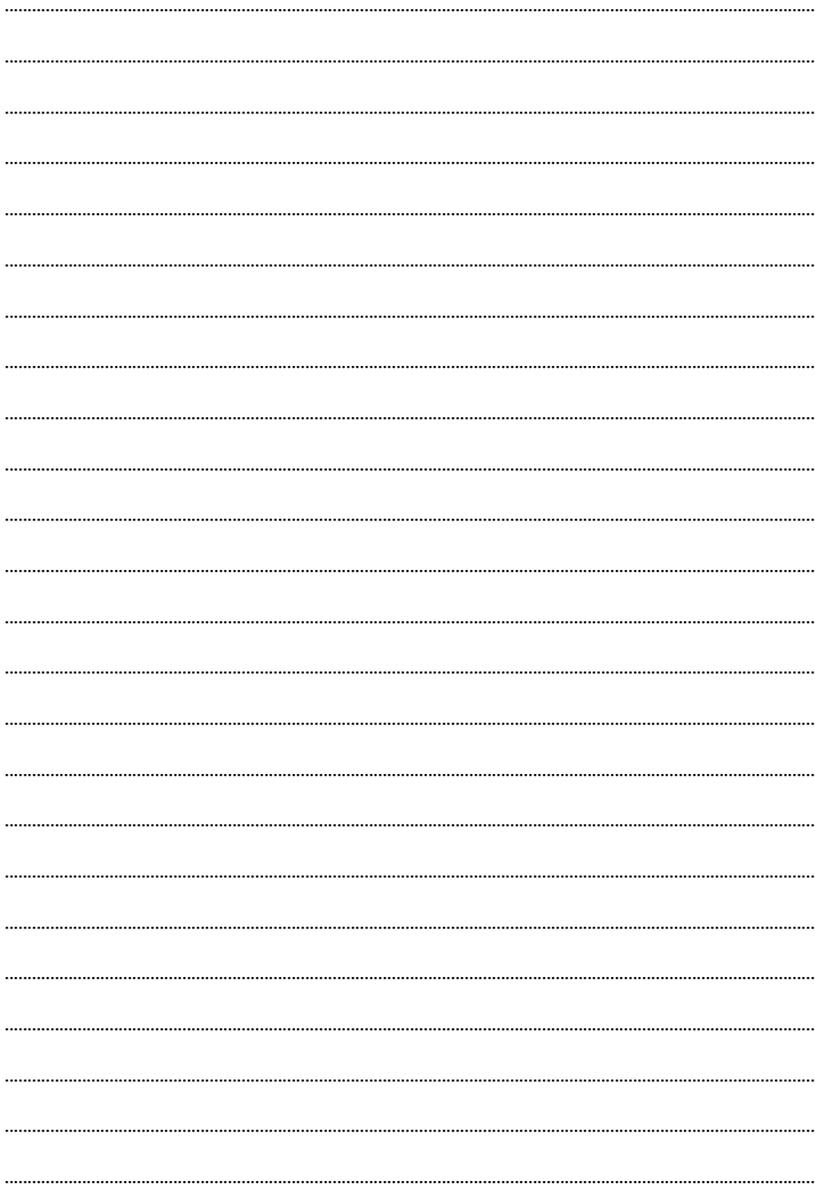
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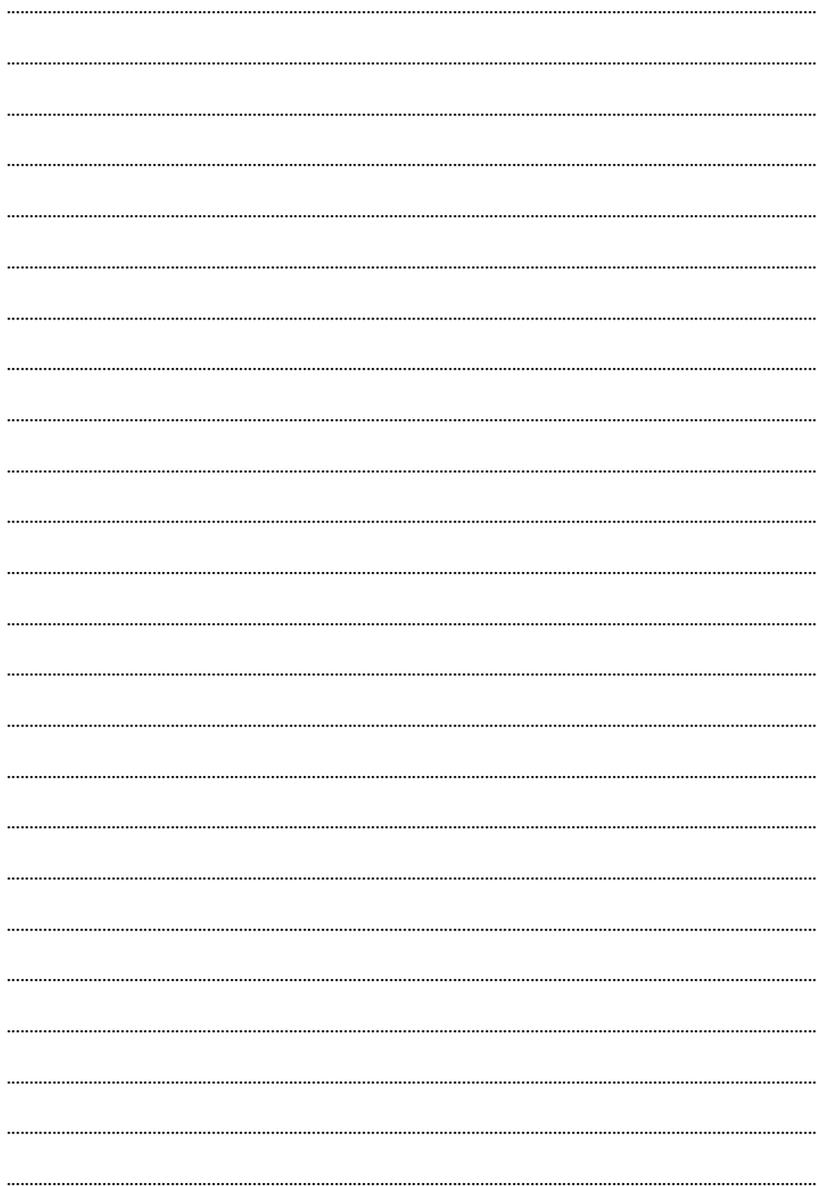
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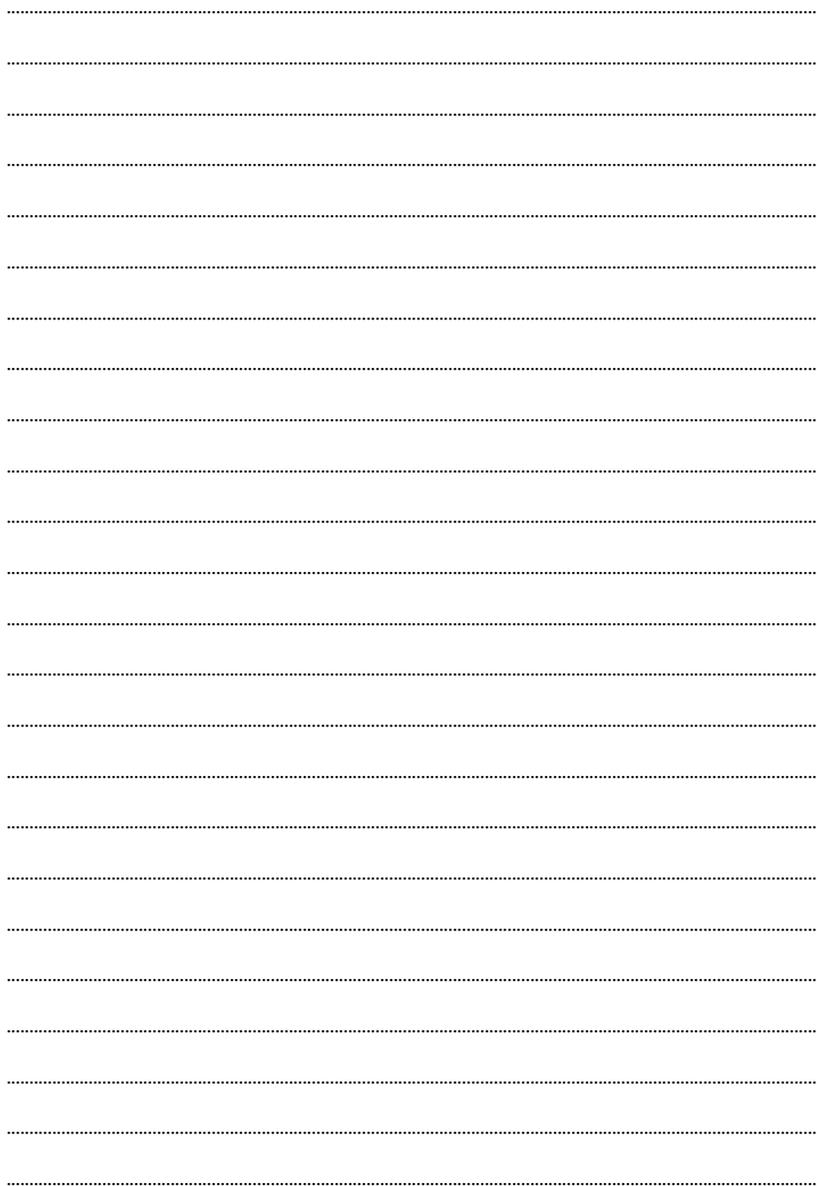
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