
SUMMARIUM

BUDAPEST

Tamás Kozma and Ágnes Barta analyze the concept of educational development as a historical document, on the one hand, while they compare it with changes occurring around year 2000, on the other hand. Due to the power niches, at the time when the educational development concept was drafted, reformers had a hard time, however, this has made expert's work easy. The central element in the arguments of experts has been formed in order to moderate the population bulge created by history (the expected entrance of children of a generation large in number, born in the fifties, due to the state regulated birth control policy). By the new educational development concept experts intended to build a generous high-school capacity. Nevertheless, through the examination of the issue they were able to foresee the expansion and reform not only of secondary education, but also that of higher education. Though they expected it to occur at an earlier time than it actually happened. They predicted the shift from vocational training to technical high schools and they also foresaw quite correctly the shift in proportions between vocational and comprehensive high schools (gymnasiums) as well as the formation of sub centers in urban areas. However, what they could not predict was the creation of denominational schools and the structural changes that actually took place.

The article of *István Polónyi* demonstrates the concentration of Hungarian economy to Budapest area. His most pregnant data refers to the fact that while 17% of the population is concentrated to the capital, 35% of the national GDP is produced in Budapest. The developmental advantage of the capital city even grew after 1990. While it is so for economic advantages, it is also true for the indicators of educational supply. Therefore the capital became the best in high school participation percentage, but was the last in participation in vocational training both at lower and upper secondary level. There has been a decline in the inequality between counties in participation percentage in vocational and higher vocational training, however, inequality grew among counties with respect of comprehensive school attendance. One of the most conspicuous differences is that the local government of Budapest takes a much more active part in shaping education than other local governments. Another interesting data shows that in the capital the number of alternative educational institutions and the number of students attending these is much higher than elsewhere, for all types of schools. It is already well-known from PISA 2000 survey that the results of Hungarian students are much more polarized according to family background and place of living than in many other countries, therefore the Hungarian education is not able to compensate these inequalities. Naturally, it would be hard to attain total equity, however, closing the scissors of backlog would be essential, because polarization is beyond endurance.

Ildikó Hrubos gives us account about how the dominance of the capital city grew, due to the efforts at the end of the nineties of integrating higher education institutions. All new institutions becoming center institutions through integration were located in the capital, even if the network of affiliated departments increased, and more and more towns became locations of higher education instruction. Budapest holds monopoly in informatics and in national defense training, social sciences, arts and theological training is highly overrepresented and technical, legal and administrative education is also slightly overrepresented in the capital city. The agronomics, medical, economic sciences, mathematics and computer sciences are overrepresented in the provinces. Social sciences, theological sciences and informatics – as for various reasons lately professionalized sciences in Hungary – could easily appear in the capital, while agronomics are logically re-

lated to the countryside. Two thirds of individuals with a scientific title live in Budapest, therefore institutions from the capital could start doctoral schools (programs) with higher chances. While 40% of students attend institutions in the capital, both in universities and in vocational higher education institutions, 2/3 of doctoral students are registered to an institution in Budapest. The capital is therefore a veritable university town, more precisely a city of big universities and higher education institutions, which, at the same time has to face the increasing educational appeal of other towns of Hungary.

Katalin Forray compares the structure of educational level of the total population of Budapest with that of its Roma population, and shows that the backlog of the latter is dramatic. This is best illustrated by the most significant level of education. In the case of the total population of Budapest the most significant level of education is that of high-school graduation (*baccalareaus*). Except for the oldest age-groups, the percentage of high-school graduates approaches 40%, and for the younger generations it even exceeds that. In the case of the Roma population – again, not taking into account the oldest age-group – finishing elementary school is the most frequent educational level, and it is between 50–60 % the percentage of individuals not finishing more than a lower-secondary school. Roma population of the capital has now started to spread in larger numbers in vocational training schools, although the number of those who are only satisfied with an institution offering a final examination at the end of their training. According to the population census, Budapest has a rate of unemployment of 3%, however, in the case of the Roma, the percentage reaches almost 12%. Probably this is the only data in which the Roma population in Budapest holds a more disadvantaged rate than their co-ethnics across the whole country. The author of the article introduces us to the concept of index of discrimination, counted by matching the rate of employment of the corresponding groups by level of education at the total and at the Roma population. The highest level of discrimination is suffered by the least educated, as opposed to Roma intellectuals, who – precisely because there are so few – do not experience any social discrimination.

Péter Tibor Nagy compares data referring to the level of religiousness in Budapest and across Hungary, concluding that the capital is much more secularized. The author also reveals the relationship between the level of education and religiousness among the population of Budapest. For measuring religiousness, he uses several different indicators: church registration, belonging to a denomination, frequency of church-going, religious self-definition. He also depicts this along a timeline. The first period lasted until 1947, when non-registration to a denomination was only incidental. The second period was the decade between 1948–1957, when repression against religious practices was the strongest. In spite of the repression, only one twentieth out of those who now live in Budapest, and were born in that decade in Budapest or elsewhere, were not registered. However, in the following one and a half decade this rate grows to 1/8–1/9. The fourth generation is that of people born in the middle of the seventies, out of which 28% do not belong to the registered. The classic U-curve – which says that mostly the uneducated and the most educated are strongly religious – does not come across, because we do not find the peasants among the uneducated, and the secular traditions are quite strong even among intellectuals. The population of Budapest is religious rather in its own way, and not according to the norms prescribed by the church, and lives a life without frequent church-goings. Individuals possessing a higher education diploma tend to pull towards the edges: some are close to the church and some consider themselves totally unreligious, in equally large numbers. Moreover, as society traditionally tends to perceive itself through the reflexions of its opinion-leading intelligentsia, the population of Budapest seems more divided than it is in reality. However, 10–30 % of churchy people expresses an opposite opinion regarding the sexual theology of the churches.

Miklós Mann in his analysis, in the context of history of mentalities and political history, describes the education and educational policy in Budapest in the period between the two world wars. Besides the work focusing on building the network of institutions and making it function, dismissals and employment of teachers, as well as issues regarding wage policy are emphasized in the article. Details are provided about issues such as acquisition policy of textbooks, programs for educational films and the social policy preferences of educational policy. The capital had its own teacher training and further training institution, and a “pedagogic seminar”. Mann charac-

terizes the most popular teachers of certain schools, providing an explanation to the high quality of teaching in schools which gave the most world-famous scientist.

Viktor Karády uses the statistical world-standard data from the Institute of Statistics of the Capital for describing the social history of education in Budapest of the first part of the twentieth century. While the percentage of pupils in elementary classes decreased in Budapest compared to the whole country – due to the relative low number of children in the capital – at higher levels their chances to continue studies were higher. Even more, the percentage of pupils in higher elementary schools grew faster than in other parts of the country, therefore the difference between Budapest and the province also grew through time. In upper secondary schools the advantage of Budapest was even more pronounced than in the case of lower secondary schools. In the same time Budapest was the center for the most modern school-type, that of upper school of commerce. Schools in the capital city were bigger, and therefore in an advantageous situation with respect of many objective factors. Their quality was higher, in contrast to other parts of the country, the one-room school could be avoided in public education, and teachers could be characterized by a higher level of specialization at secondary level. In higher education the superiority of Budapest decreased in the mentioned period, however, universities were more selective, and due to the honorary lecturers, had a richer program supply, therefore still provided better quality teaching. In the province the schools were mainly denominational, while in Budapest elementary schools were almost all communal and at upper secondary level state-supported public schools. (In the capital churches were more interested in girls' education.) The difference decreased in this respect between Budapest and the province by the end of 1945. However, the inequality in dropout rates was still high: students in the capital had a lower dropout rate both in public elementary and in upper secondary schools. They received a diploma earlier, and graduates of Budapest had more modern plans for their careers.

Text of Péter Tibor Nagy – translated by Ágota Szentannai

BUDAPEST

Tamás Kozma und *Ágnes Barta* analysieren das Budapestener Bildungskonzept von 1982. Einerseits fassen sie dieses als Zeitdokument auf, andererseits vergleichen sie die darin aufgestellten Prognosen mit den tatsächlichen Veränderungen, die um die Jahrtausendwende eintraten. Zur Zeit, als das Konzept fertiggestellt wurde, war die Lage der Reformen wegen eines politischen Machtvakuum erschwert, die der Experten jedoch dadurch erleichtert. Das zentrale Anliegen der Experten war es, die geschichtlich bedingte demografische Welle aufzufangen (in den 50er Jahren hatte man ein Verbot der Geburtenregelung erlassen, und die Kinder der zu jener Zeit geborenen Generation traten gerade ins Schulalter). Gleichzeitig erstrebten sie auch den Ausbau des Mittelschulnetzes, um die Aufnahmekapazität zu sichern. In ihren Prognosen sagten sie nicht nur eine Vermassung der Mittel-, aber auch der Hochschulen voraus, wenn sie letztere auch früher erwarteten, als sie tatsächlich eintraf. Sie prophezeiten richtig die Verlegung der Fachausbildung auf die Fachmittelschulen und hatten auch mit ihrer Voraussage bezüglich der Proportionen der Fachmittelschulen und Gymnasien sowie der Entstehung von städtischen Unterzentren recht. Was sie nicht vorausahnen konnten, war die Neu-Entstehung der konfessionellen Schulen sowie ein Strukturwandel.

István Polónyi untersucht die Konzentration der ungarischen Wirtschaft in Budapest. Seine Daten sind prägnant. Obwohl nur 17% der Landesbevölkerung in Budapest wohnt, wird 35% des Bruttoinlandsprodukts (GDP) hier produziert. Der wirtschaftlich Vorsprung der Hauptstadt wuchs auch nach der Wende, was sich auch in der Versorgung mit Bildungsinstitutionen und -produkten bemerkbar macht. Dies zeigt sich unter anderem darin, dass in den ersten Jahren des neuen Jahrtausends Budapest mit ihrem Anteil an Gymnasialschülern an erster Stelle, an Schülern der Fachmittelschulen und Fachschulen dagegen am Ende der Reihe steht. Ein erster ins Auge stechender Unterschied zwischen der Hauptstadt und den Komitaten liegt darin, dass erstere