Different Areas of Students’ Problems Towards Understanding and Overcoming

MARZANNA FARNICKA
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Different Areas of Students’ Problems
Towards Understanding and Overcoming

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Introduction

Marzanna Farnicka

In the contemporary world, the idea of 'lifelong learning' is a paradigm that has revolutionized thinking on the goals and methods of education. The changes affect both education subjects (teachers, pupils, students, persons offering support) and institutions connected with the educational process. We witness changes in the organization of university-level education, universalism in the taught content and changes in the learning environment facilitated by high student mobility. Nowadays, it is possible to study at several universities thanks to such programmes as, for instance, the Erasmus programme. Pluralisation of education, the possibility to pursue many paths and internalization are the phenomena resulting from the globalization processes. As Anthony Giddens writes in his book Modernity and Self-Identity (2010), separation of time and space and uprooting of social institutions have led to freedom, forming the global civilisation and reducing trust in the hitherto used sources of knowledge and guarantors of safety.

In the new times, the patterns of life called by Bauman permanent wanderers, pilgrims, adventurers, loners and traditional settlers are alternative standards of living. The pilgrim and the wanderer are just representatives of some otherness (Bauman, 2000). Bauman does not point to new forms of existence or new ways of life but to their coexistence in the narrowing spacetime of postmodernism. This narrowing is a result of technological progress. In the context of dynamic and multicultural transformations of civilisation, the probability of evaluating others through the prism of stereotypes increases, as this attitude saves the time and effort needed by a post-modernist man to recognise and test new alternatives of life pathways. This can bring not only escalation of conflicts in the already known areas, but their more frequent recurrence, as well as the emergence of new conflict points. Numerous studies conducted by teams from the Central and Eastern Europe point to the profits and costs of the transformations that

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have occurred in recent years (see: More. Pusztai, Engler Comparative Research on Teacher Education, 2014, results of TECERN Research network and researchers from the Lifelong Learning stream, Lobanov, Skvortsov, 2013).

Because of the changes in the environment, an individual has the possibility to go through life in a way that is different from what s/he expected. According to the J. Piaget model of structuration and restructuration of psychological processes (1972, and M. Tyszkowa, 1987), it is possible only when the individual gets engaged into a given process of behaviour. The mere observation of ‘potential’ does not change the structure of the human mind and can only lead to some discomfort that requires the onset of processes of self-reflection or, according to Giddens, the onset of the reflective “I”. The subject needs to be able to answer the questions: What do I choose? Who am I? Who do I wish to be?

The changes taking place in the post-modernist era involve the very centre of identity and ideology, i.e. the system of values. For instance, the education systems of Western Europe put much emphasis on such values as autonomy and independence, while the systems in Asia emphasise the worth of mutual dependence and sense of community. However, both systems promote openness to the world, which is manifested for example by the fascination of young people with new cultures. That is why in Europe, where the normative development is directed towards individualism, sometimes the fascination with another identity or ideology (i.e. the collectivistic one) emerges. On the other hand, in the countries of the East, an increased interest in the Western path of development, promoting individualism, subjectivity and satisfaction of one’s individual needs is observed. The consequences of these changes are long-reaching and touch the core of culture. The changes in the values and life goals or styles of life can lead to the emergence of new groups of minorities (islands) on the ocean of traditional culture that in time will become in the culture of the majority for those choosing a different path of development.

Up till now we have introduced some new problems encountered during higher education connected with identification issues, the intellectual and emotional sphere, environment and educational assessment and with special type of exclusion, being without roots or support.

This issue of HERJ presents articles by authors interested in numerous problems among HE students concerning adaptation, professionalization, identity, and organization of educational assessment and support system throughout Europe (the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Russia, Spain and the United Kingdom). The authors, representing the area of sociology of education, educational policy research, school psychology and social education, analysed students and Higher Education environment with special focus on various areas in which problems occur, as well as on solutions to those problems. The presented volume is divided into two parts. The first one, entitled ‘Selected Threats Connected with the Higher Education Process’ deals with selected determinants of
problem occurrence, such as the creation of the environment and specific expectations for students, the organization of the education process, student mobility or family influence on students’ attitudes. The second part, entitled ‘Methods and Strategies of Student Support’ collects articles presenting ways of solving the problems diagnosed among students and caused by health issues, disability, change of study system, or stress.

The first article in this issue, prepared by Maria Abramova and Valery Krasheninnikov (Russia) and entitled ‘Transformation of the Model of Interaction Between Science and Higher Education in Yakutia’, is devoted to research on the dynamics of development of science and education interaction as social institutions in the conditions of the Soviet and post-Soviet Russia. Using historical analysis, the article demonstrates that the success of implementation of innovative projects in the field of higher education in modern Russia is directly connected with the background of the long-lasting cooperation of the Russian Academy of Sciences with universities. Thus, the efficiency of employment of the Anglo-Saxon model of science and education interaction in the conditions of modern Russia is practically based on the completeness of the realization during the Soviet period of scientific and educational establishments within the Prussian (Austro-Russian) model, which confirms the immense efficiency of the latter.

The second article prepared by Vera Kosikova (the Czech Republic), Marzanna Farnicka and Hanna Liberska (Poland), entitled ‘The Role of Assessment in Autonomy Development’, focuses on the formative function of assessment. The formative function of assessment is mainly achieved by feedback resulting from the student’s performance. This contribution focuses on selected aspects of the formative function of assessment, on the concordance of teaching and assessment goals (and processes) from the perspective of their formulation and the assessment criteria, on the examination of the understanding of the taught subject from the perspective of adopting concepts and their correctness during evaluation, and finally on the didactic approach when working with errors while analysing the student’s performance and her/his development of autonomy and responsibility.

The third article prepared by Noemi Serrano Diaz (Spain) and Hazel Crichton (Scotland, the UK) entitled ‘University Experiences. Mobility in Higher Education: New Needs to Improve It?’ concentrates on the possibilities and threats stemming from the opportunity of participating in the Erasmus student exchange project. The Erasmus programme helps students study at other European universities, get to know other countries, live in another culture (folklore, food, language, etc.), develop autonomy and mature as an adult. The literature has pointed out that the economic, social and academic stresses that students experience can, in some cases, generate or exacerbate mental disorders (Bradley, 2000) and generate depression and anxiety (Russell et al, 2010; Ying & Han, 2006) which can even manifest itself in somatic symptoms (Mori, 2000); this could involve classroom absences and drug-taking as side effects. This study describes the positive experiences of five Erasmus students studying at the University of
Cadiz within the framework of student exchange, detailing the measures taken by the host university to address potential stressful issues.

The next article (4) entitled ‘The Influence of Family Type on Youth Forming Strategy for Higher Education’ prepared by Maria Abramova, Galina Goncharova and Vsevolod Kostyuk (Russia) is based on the results of the sample inquiry of secondary school graduates of the city of Novosibirsk and the Novosibirsk Territory and shows a certain interdependence between the youth’s educational strategy and their family type (the latter determined on the basis of their parents’ education. This idea proves earlier investigations on the role of the family in forming attitudes of the youth that allow them to develop their adaptation potential. This issue was tackled by the authors in their monograph “Sociocultural Adaptation of the Youth of the North”. The analysis of value orientations, as regards the choice of educational strategy, shows that all school graduates consider further education first of all as an opportunity for further professional development.

It has also been shown that differences in perception of the value of attaining post-secondary education are conditioned by young people’s different life attitudes which are formed, inter alia, by parents who have different levels of education.

The second part, ‘Methods and Strategies of Student Support’, presents two articles. The first one, entitled “Services for Students with Disability at the University of Debrecen. Structure and Experiences” was prepared by Andras Berenyi, Mihaly Fonai and Edit Szabo from Hungary and second prepared by Marzanna Farnicka M. – (Poland) “Mental problems in adaptation of HE students - organizational and individual model of coping with adaptation problems among students”. These two articles attempt to propose an organizational system and intervention strategies among students who have problems in coping with duties involved in Higher Education. The experience comes from the Debrecen University, the Zielona Gora University and the Cadiz University.

As HERJ Special Issue editor, I am convinced that the presented topics and contents should be interesting for higher education organizers, academics and students who perceive many problems among HE students related to adaptation, identity and behaviour.

As authors, we hope that this special issue Different Areas of Students’ Problems towards Understanding and Overcoming might help overcome those problems and is one of many steps to develop the way of Excellent Higher Education.

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Thematic Article

Interaction of Science and Education in Soviet and Post-Soviet Russia (on the example of the Republic of Sakha, Yakutia)

Mariya Alexeevna Abramova & Valery Vasilyevich Krasheninnikov

Abstract

The article is devoted to the research of the dynamics of development of science and education interaction as social institutes in the conditions of the Soviet and Post-Soviet Russia. The Yakut scientific center (Sakha) of the Siberian department of the Russian Academy of Sciences and Northeast federal university were chosen as the objects for the analysis of history of formation and transformation of the interaction model. The subject of the Russian Federation where the development of these establishments was performed has its own national and regional specifics. In the article the method of historical analysis is used. It is shown that the success of implementation of innovative projects in modern Russia in the field of higher education is directly connected to the background of the long-lasting cooperation of the Russian Academy of Sciences with the universities. The main scientific approach was realized according to socicultural approach by Sorokin (2000) divided into 3 stages: until 1917, Soviet, Post-Soviet. The results showed that high productivity of realization of the federal university model as an example of merging of science and education couldn’t take place without a long stage of cooperation.

Keywords: Republic of Sakha (Yakutia), science and education, Soviet and Post-Soviet periods

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Introduction

The Prussian (Austrian) model of an education system is historically realized in Russia. Orientation to fundamental training of youth and implementation of the concept of an encyclopedic knowledge didactic is characteristic of her. The scientific and educational organizations existed is isolated from each other. This approach created favorable conditions for the development of the fundamental science. The concept of a didactic utilitarianism that is characteristic for the Anglo-Saxon educational system focused on the development of action-oriented scientific and educational aspects. Thus, the gradual merge of scientific and educational institutions is unavoidable.

In modern Russia, as well as in many European countries, gradual refusal from implementation of the didactic encyclopedic learning concept and switching to the usage of a didactic utilitarianism model is observed. First of all, it may be seen in the change of science and education interaction models. There is a merge of universities and institutes, science and technology parks, joint laboratories which are focused first of all on obtaining innovative solutions which could provide growth of technologies are formed.

The analysis of the results of federal and national research universities of Eastern and Western Siberia, allowed to draw a conclusion that the most effective realization of the science and education model on the basis of higher vocational colleges in Russia happens only in case if the university already had a long-lasting background of cooperation with establishments of the Russian Academy of Sciences. Those are The Moscow State and the Novosibirsk State Universities which got the status of a research university that entered the list of Top-200 of a rating QS World University Rankings.

Research Questions

The Northeast University created based on the Yakut state university of M. K. Ammosov and having long history of development under the influence of the Siberian Branch of the Russian Academy of Sciences, same as the MSU and the NSU is one of the few universities that received the federal status.

In this article, we have a task to track the transformation of science and education interaction model in the Soviet and Post-Soviet Russia based on the example of forming of this university.

- Development of system of the higher education and science in Yakutia based on the historiographic analysis
- Representation of dynamics of change of the science and education interaction models as social institutes in the conditions of the Soviet and Post-Soviet Russia.
Method

The main scientific approach, which is realized in this article, is the sociocultural approach understood by us within P. Sorokin (2000) concept as the unity of a triad “the personality – culture – society”. The leading principles of the research are: systematics, complexity and interdisciplinary. In this context the development of practice of interaction in separately taken region of Russia – the Republic of Sakha (Yakutia), the research chosen by us as base, is considered together with global tendencies, which have transformed an education system in the world in general and in Russia in particular.

The factors determining interaction of science and education are presented by specifics of historical and cultural development and socio-political conditions of forming the region as component of Russia. The chosen aspect assumes the use of methods of the retrospective analysis, historiographic analysis of literature and archival sources, and the analysis of the statistical data provided by the state committee on statistics of the Republic of Sakha (Yakutia).

The technique of a research includes collecting, handling and the analysis of information: 1) about historical and cultural prerequisites of forming the educational system and the development of scientific institutions in Russia in general and in the republic in particular; 2) about the objective and subjective factors exerting a positive and negative impact on interaction of science and education, 3) about possible scripts of the development of interaction in the conditions of transformation in Russia.

Russian, exactly Germanic-Russian (Prussian, Austrian) system of education traditionally emphasises teaching as one of factors of socializing the individual, supposing that it has the task of broadcasting the cultural models. The fundamental nature of education that became the distinctive feature of the Prussian system was based on the concept of the didactic learning that was supported by Ya.A. Komensky (Sadler, 1966), J. Milton (Parker, 1962). The representatives of the stream believed that the student's mastering of the immense amount of scientific knowledge would allow forming the foundation for the further conscious choice of his living position. In addition, it was supposed that the ability of making a conscious choice is formed not only in the process of the individual's growing-up, but also depending on the volume of the acquired information. Thus, the degree of the student's achieving of the purposes and goals of education was defined, first of all, by the volume, consistency of the acquired knowledge, and also the ability to analyze, increased attention to the humanitarian training of specialists. While the student was accumulating the information, the nature of educational activity was also changing – the number of the practical classes and tasks aimed at analytical work increased. However, the strategy of presenting educational material from the general to the particular (deductive principle) did not change (Abramova, Krasheninnikov, Liberska, Farnicka, 2015).
The changes in the society that caused the enormous growth of volume of information in the XX century, revision of management styles not only at the level of the states but also in educational process, experimental works of psychologists, on detecting the regularities of the personality development put the efficiency of the concept of a didactic encyklopedizm into doubt. However, owing to historical events in the USSR, and also in many countries of Eastern Europe, realization of this concept at the level of the state educational policy in the XX century was extremely necessary as in the 20-30th the issue of elimination of illiteracy of the population was being solved. That is why, before the revision of an educational paradigm became acute, it was necessary that the countries could save a certain educational potential.

In the second half of the XX century, along with the changes in politics and science, the system of education again becomes the stage where the disputes on the efficiency of various approaches develop: didactic encyclopedic learning, formalism and utilitarianism.

The pragmatic approach, on which the accent in an Anglo-Saxon (American) education system is traditionally put, is actually the basis of the didactic utilitarianism concept that appeared at a turn of XIX and XX centuries in the USA. The concept of practical activities (training) lies in the basis of the Anglo-Saxon educational model. The representatives of this stream (J. Dewey in: Bernstein, 1966), G. Kershenshteyner (Kelly, 2004:94-5.) understand teaching as a continuous process of transformation and enrichment of the student’s life experience. Therefore, the characteristic features of the Anglo-Saxon educational system are: leaning on an empirical experience, special attention to assimilation of information in the field of science and technical disciplines, spending more time practicing and writing works with the subsequent working off of the contents with the tutor. The main strategy of planning the educational process is from details to the general (the principle of induction).

Quality of the received education is determined, first of all, by the formed skills and abilities of solving the applied tasks. The only way to master social heritage in the Anglo-Saxon educational system is connected with the opportunities of the student’s inclusion into those kinds of activities, which allowed a civilization to become what it is now. So, the contents of the educational cycle has to be fully optimized what does not always suggest following the principle of sequence and continuity in studying of the subjects. The value of educational process is not the degree of the structure of thinking but freedom of the student while forming his experience. As a result, the didactic utilitarianism concept assumes not the expansion of ideas of the existed and existing cultural models, but the reconstruction of a social experience only as a base for its development. Subsequently education carries out the developing function through the activity limited by solving only the narrow pragmatic problems (Abramova, Krasheninnikov, Liberska, Farnika, 2015).
Thus, considering the levels providing the individual's enculturation – cultural, personal and technological – we can notice essential differences of the Germanic-Russian and Anglo-Saxon educational systems. If in the first one orientation on the fundamental nature provides at all levels, first of all, acquaintance with various cultural models which aren't surely realized in the country where the teaching being performed, while the second one is concentrated only on reproducing of its own model by means of granting a choice and, as a result, responsibility for it to the student, who is solving the problems through learning.

Uniqueness of a modern situation in development of educational paradigms consists that shortcomings of Anglo-Saxon model of education are solved due to humanitarization of education and expansion of ideas of experience of others. In the German-Russian model of education, on the contrary, there is withdrawal from the principle of fundamental nature to pragmatical orientation.

Signing of the Bologna declaration became the catalyst of the process of rapprochement of models of education. Time will show whether change of educational paradigms is the benefit or the evil for preservation of traditions and increase in efficiency of educational process. Now in Russia artificial rapprochement of the scientific and educational organizations does harm to quality of scientific research and to training, gradually discrediting achievements of the Soviet period. We will consider stages of rapprochement of science and education of the USSR in the XX century on the example of Yakutia. We will consider rapprochement stages of science and education of the USSR in the XX century on the example of Yakutia.

Results and Discussion

The history of forming of the educational system in Yakutia can conditionally be divided into 3 stages: until 1917, Soviet, Post-Soviet. The first stage. The formation of prerequisites of the creation of the educational system in Yakutia until 1917. For the first stage of forming an education system, vigorous missionary activity of Orthodox Church and educational activity of political exiled are characteristic. The conditions for introducing the educational activity in Yakut peoples’ languages were put what lately became a basis for initiation of a question of creating the textbooks and programs for teaching children on their native Evenkskiya, Evenki, Chukchi, and Yukaghir languages. One of the most important factors of strengthening the secular nature of education became the urge to research and prevent the culture of Yakut people (Abramova, 2003), so was the growth of interest in carrying out scientific researches of the Northern Russia that predetermined not only the appearance of the Yakut department of the Russian geographical society, but also the formation tendencies of higher education in Yakutia in the future.

By 1917, despite all the efforts on educating the folks living in the north of Russia only 2% of the population in Yakutia were literate, including Russians, and among the native
folks – only 0.7% (Torgovkina, 2001, 59). The most serious reason of the current situation was that the most part (91.1%) of schools was limited by the educational program in one class, and opportunities for continuation of studying in educational establishments of the next level were few. The only university close to Yakutsk was the one opened in Siberia in Tomsk in 1888. – There were many opponents for creating a university in Siberia – a place of "exile and penal servitude". (Zakharova, 2004, 8). The lack of financing, motivation of the population to the opening of schools in the rural remote places, and also the opportunities of replenishment of personnel structure of the teachers caused opening of schools mainly in the cities (according to 1911 only in Yakutsk there were 18 schools).

Results of the first stage: Creation of prerequisites for the formation of secular educational system.

The second stage. Formation of the educational system and models of interaction between university and institutions of science during the Soviet period in Yakutia

The second stage of developing the educational system was marked by the Cultural Revolution and the policy of involving the citizens into the constructing of socialism owing to what vigorous fight for elimination of illiteracy and increasing of educational level including the Northern folks began. These decisions corresponded to the idea of helping the folks to overcome the primitive-communal system and were supported by practice of realization of the measures showing the paternalistic relation from the state.

On November 21, 1921, "The provision on universities of RSFSR" according to which training at the higher school became free for the proletarian and poor people was approved. They had to be admitted to educational institutions freely and be getting a grant. For the representatives of the Northern folk's special preferential places were allocated.

In 1922 the resolution "About introducing of the Yakut language in all schools of the republic" was approved by the Council of People's Commissars of YaASSR (Kalashnikov, 2002, 47). Within YaASSR the Yakut language became common in the official relations and in office-work on an equal basis with Russian.

In 1926 the comprehensive program of teaching children at the Yakut rural school of the first step where they could receive along with general education knowledge some professional specialties - as teachers, accountants, agronomists - was accepted (Pesterev, 2005, 57).

Gradually the educational institutions in Yakutsk began to open. In 1925 the agricultural technical school was opened, in 1926 the national military school was opened. In 1930 in Aldan a Mountain technical school was opened. In the same year in Yakutsk technical schools were opened: consumer cooperation, economic and finance and road-building
ones. The Yakut, Vilyuysky, Churapchinsky pre technical schools, Irkutsk teacher’s college and other colleges of the country, taught the teachers.

From 1931/1932 academic years, general compulsory elementary education for children of 8 - 10 years and overages, and also seven years’ compulsory education were accepted.

By 1939 the rate of elimination of illiteracy in Yakutia reached the level of 80,5% from all the population of 9 – 49 years (including 86,8% - among men, 72,6% - among women). Besides, the process was successful both in the cities, and in the rural areas.

The measures for eliminating illiteracy took place along with the amplifying interest of the Soviet government in exploring the natural treasures of Yakutia.

The presidium of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR created the special commission for studying Yakutia in 1925, which worked for 10 years and laid the foundation to systematic complex studying of productive forces of certain regions of the country by the Academy.

On May 17, 1933 in Yakutia, the department of All-Union Arctic institute was opened to carry out the management of the research work on comprehensive study of polar and sub polar areas of the republic. Therefore, carrying out scientific research in Yakutia, the results of the first complex expedition, and also the lack of its own establishment which could perform an educational function as well as to participate in organizing the research work in the republic caused the relevance of solving the question of creating a scientific institutions network on its territory. Combined with the results of measures on training of the top skilled professionals and active introduction of the arrived first graduates to all the spheres of national economy of Yakutia it provided the basis for creating a higher educational institution in the republic. As a result in 1932 the workers’ faculty was created, in 1934 the Yakut Pedagogical institute (PI)

Right after the end of World War II the decision by Council of ministers of the USSR has been made on opening in Yakutsk a research base of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR. Especially it would be desirable to note that among the scientists who in the future headed the Yakut branch (YaB) of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR institutes there were teachers and graduates of PI what showed the successful realization of the principle of an obligatory combining of training and research activities.

Prompt expansion of research interests and discovery of a research base of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR in Yakutsk caused the growth of the need for the highly qualified personnel. For this reason, in 1948 the first postgraduate study in Yakutia at YaB of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR was opened. From this point, the preparation of their own scientists officially begins.
The preparatory work on creating the university in Yakut ASSR was conducted by the Autonomous Soviet Socialist Republic since 1945. As a result on August 23, 1956 a Resolution of Council of ministers of the USSR on creation based on PI of the Yakut State University (YSU) appeared.

The development of the university went along with the structural changes in YaB of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR. In 1957 the branch was included into the structure of the Siberian department of Academy of Sciences of the USSR. (Torgovkina, 2001, 202). The development of YaB from the Academy of Sciences of the USSR perceiving the Yakutsk State University (YaSU) as a basic university to prepare the scientists caused the revision of the names of the faculties by the university and the specification of specialties on which students were trained.

According to census of 1970, the republic took the third place by the number of people with the higher and average (full and incomplete) education on 1000 people (at the age of ten years and older), and on 1000 working – the sixth place among the 16 autonomous republics that were a part of RSFSR (Torgovkina 2001, 65).

The Yakut branch of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR turned into the large scientific center in the northeast of the country attracting not only the Soviet scientists, but also foreign ones with the opportunities for carrying out scientific researches. Within the educational process at the higher school, it caused the increase of requirements to the level of training of the graduates.

Results of the second stage: Formation of the educational system in Yakutia. Creation of network of scientific institutions based on the Yakut branch of the Siberian department of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR. Forming of the interaction between university and the Yakut branch of the Siberian department of the Russian Academy of Sciences by the principle of basic educational institution.

The third stage. Transformation of the model of interaction between university and scientific institutions in Yakutia during the Post-Soviet period. The third stage we will divide into two stages: aspiration to sovereignty and federalization.

The first half of this stage is connected with strengthening of separatist sentiments in the republic. On the tendencies of revising the social values that were characteristic for the whole Russia the aspiration to sovereignty process, which starts gaining strength already in the late 80th, leaves its mark in the republic. The Yakut branch of the Siberian office of Academy of Sciences of the USSR in 1988 becomes the Yakut scientific center (YaSC) of the Siberian Branch of the Russian Academy of Science.

By the president of the Republic of Sakha (RS) (Yakutia) M. E. Nikolaev’s decree on February 6, 1993 YaSU was given the status of the Head higher education institution of the Republic responsible for the organization and the quality of humanitarian, social and economic, pedagogical and natural science training of specialists. In 1996, YaSU took the
4th place among 22 higher education institutions of Siberia and the Far East on the number of students. (Pesterev, 2005, 208).

Decree of the President of RS (Ya) in 1993 an Academy of Sciences of RS (Ya) as self-governed highest scientific institution of the Republic of Sakha (Yakutia) was created to unite the scientific capacity of the republic and to form the regional scientific policy.

As a result, one of the most important tendencies of interaction of science and higher education in Yakutia at a stage of aspiration to sovereignty became the weakening of connections, between the establishments of science and education while during the Soviet period they had interdependent character. The university as the head higher education institution of the republic had already required more autonomy when choosing a strategy of its development what found the reflection first of all in its organizational activity.

Opening of the borders in the 90th of the XX century by Russia, adoption of the Declaration on the sovereignty by the republic created the conditions for expansion of a network of the international contacts of the university. In 1996 in Yakutsk the constituent assembly of assembly and the first international conference of the Academy of the Northern forum took place. The republic becomes the coordinator of the "Circumpolar Culture of the Arctic and Northern Folks" program (Pesterev, 2005: 212).

By the beginning of the XXI century, the main scientific potential was concentrated, as earlier in two communities: in Yakutsk scientific center of the Siberian Branch of the Russian Academy of Science and in the Yakutsk state university. But the reforms of the last decade of the XX century, strengthened attention to the preparation of the national professionals in YaSU (Abramova, Goncharova, Kostiuk, 2011), the influence of the multidirectional strategies of management of federal and republican organs on two largest organizations of science and education – substantially affected the nature of their cooperation, and also the processes happening within these structures.

Therefore, the second part of the Post-Soviet period in educational system and science development in Yakutia was connected with the strengthening of moods on federalization. In the republic, a problem of the higher school and fundamental science integration became acute. To bring to life the idea of integration of science and education the available scientific and educational infrastructure was renewed and the new scientific and educational centers were created. Partially emergence of the opportunities for carrying out the scientific researches allowed returning to the public sector of the researchers who earlier had to leave for a business sector and non-state higher education institutions.

For the first four years, the purpose of appearing of the federal university in Yakutia was transformed. Originally, the mission of the university was signed as cultivation of competitive experts, performance of the researches and innovative and technological
developments to form an economically steady socially developed subpolar region providing high quality of life, preservation and cultural development of the Northeast Russian folks. The latest data on the results of the activity of NEFU show that the university becomes a large regional center, which claims not only to perform educational functions, but also to organize the scientific researches in Yakutia.

Results of the third stage: Transformational processes of the Post-Soviet period in RS(Ya) have caused the change of roles of university and institutions of science in the created interaction model. The Yakut state university (SVFU) receives the status of federal and begins to apply for performance of functions of the educational regional center, as well as scientific.

**Conclusion**

The history of forming of the educational system in Yakutia can conditionally be divided into 3 stages: until 1917, Soviet, Post-Soviet. The presented historiographic analysis of the stages of development of the system of higher education and science in RS (Ya) shows that high productivity of realization of the federal university model as an example of merging of science and education couldn't take place without a long stage of cooperation, and actually joint development which united YaSC (YaB) of the Siberian Branch of the Russian Academy of Science and NEVU (YaGU).

On this example, we can be convinced that efficiency of Anglo-Saxon model of the organization of interaction of science and education in the conditions of modern Russia is possible on condition of realization during the Soviet period of the Prussian (avstro-Russian) model, which has paved the way for development of fundamental science and prepared strong shots. It is also necessary to focus on the fact that dynamics of interaction of science and education that we considered within Yakutia is only one of the historic examples of developing in the USSR regions, and subsequently in Russia. And processes of creating of scientific structures within a university are characteristic not only for NEVU, but also for many universities. Only the results of performing these innovations remain quite predictable as each of universities realizing the concept "science + education" at the moment isn't something happening here and now, and has a long history of its forming what defines the success or the failure of these undertakings in the nearest future. We can assume that strengthening of universities, which had long background of cooperation with RAS, is logical continuation, and also confirmation of the efficiency put during the Soviet period of the organization of interaction of science and education.

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The Role of Assessment in Teaching Interaction for the Development of Autonomy

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Abstract

This paper focuses on the formative function of assessment. The assessment of a student continuously informs about his or her performance. The formative function of assessment is mainly achieved by feedback resulting from the student’s performance. This article focuses on selected aspects of the formative function of assessment, on the concordance of teaching and assessment goals (and processes) from the perspective of their formulation and the assessment criteria, on the examination of the understanding of the taught subject from the perspective of adopting concepts and their correctness during evaluation, on the didactic approach when working with errors while analysing the student’s performance. The dialogue approach and method of working with errors were presented and discussed. In this article the function of assessment in higher education was underlined and stressed as a way to the student’s autonomy and the way to improve the quality of the student’s learning process.

Keywords: assessment criteria, Bloom’s taxonomy, formative function, work with errors

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Introduction

Assessment in higher education has been discussed by many authors (Astin, 2012, Falchikov & Goldfinch, 2000, Yorke, 2003). All of them underlined that higher education is an important period in one’s development. Assessment is an essential issue during the whole period of study. It is especially important in two cases: among students of teacher education and students with disabilities and special needs.

Nowadays, there are still quite a few interesting fields left that can be researched or targeted theoretically (Cox, Imrie, & Miller 2014; Reeves, 2000). Below the authors present from Czech- and Polish literature review some theoretical analysis of this issue such as: what the assessment is, what is the formative function and the role in process of solving problems.

Literature Review: How is Assessment Viewed? How is Its Function Presented?

Below some definition of assessment were presented. "Assessment measures the depth and width of knowledge and skill". Petty stresses that assessment, if carried out correctly, inspires, motivates and provides feedback during the learning process (Petty, 1993, p. 243, 344). Petty, just as many others, differentiates between formative and continuous assessment, which evaluates the amount of subject matter absorbed by a student and allows for correction. The summarizing, final, assessment classifies the students' performance and sums up what has been achieved by the student. Pasch defines assessment as a systematic process that leads to determining the qualities and performances shown by the student (1998, p. 104). D. Fontana (1997, p. 165, 166) focused on the link between specific teaching goals and assessment processes. "The choice of different teaching goals is made important by the fact that it helps structure the teaching experience and assess its success." The most important about assessment, according to Fontana, is its diagnostic function, where the teacher does not only determine the knowledge and understanding of the student, but also the causes, thus "not only what the children do not know, but also why." So it should be mentioned that G. Pike and D. Selby express their concern that there is too much stress on assessment of knowledge as the main assessment criterion for understanding the ability to express oneself – "we should assess important characteristics!" They emphasize new assessment criteria which will stress continuous assessment, based on dialogue between the teacher and the student, which will always lead the students to reflect on themselves and to self-evaluate." (1994, p. 101-103)

One of Czech authors – S. Kovalikova warns about the dangerous tradition of assessment based on the Gauss curve of nominal distribution – i.e. the assessment on a scale from the best to the worst. She stresses that students should be assessed according to the criterion of actual competence, i.e. approaching each student according to his or her individual potential. The teacher's task is to make sure there is concordance between the curriculum and the assessment methods and procedures. (1995, p. 101)
On the other perspective Rogers recognised assessment as self-evaluation. He states that: "The assessment of the extent and significance of learning of each student is primarily done by the student him/herself..., but feedback from other students as well as the facilitator (i.e. the teacher) is important as well". (1998, p. 248).

This literature review has showed and emphasis that assessment is mainly set on its formative function. Assessment influences the improvement of the student’s learning, it advances his or her ability to reflect upon his or her learning processes, through which it advances his or her meta-cognitive and self-regulating abilities. The psychological emphasis of the formative function of assessment lies in focusing on the student’s psyche, which is advanced and qualitatively changed by assessment processes. In the process of learning and assessment, the student is coping with success and failure, assessment influences his or her self-evaluation, touches the personality of the student in the context of his/her life and in his or her social relations. Therefore, assessment cannot be understood as an exclusively pedagogical process, taking place in teaching/learning situations, without taking into account the psychological aspect of assessment. Moreover, assessment cannot be merely seen as the means to determine the student’s performance by comparing his or her performance to the targeted standard, since it is also a process of advancing his or her psychological characteristics that influence his or her psychological behaviour and meeting his or her needs, it brings forth positive as well as negative emotional responses and experiences. From a pedagogical and psychological perspective, school assessment is a process of continuous learning and evaluating the level of knowledge, skill and competence of students, their personal characteristics, as well as the process of determining the current state of these skills and knowledge; it thus includes the process-oriented as well as final aspect of assessment. The psycho-didactic approach to assessment is based on informing about the achieved results, while at the same time it functions as a formative element in the learning processes of students. However, if this formative function of assessment is to be efficiently used in the teaching process, it implies that teachers harmonize teaching and assessment goals and set performance requirements and assessment criteria for the student’s performance in such a way that it will allow for a comprehensive analysis of the student’s performance and for developing this ability in students.

Understanding of the Formative Function of Assessment

Formative assessment strengthens personal responsibility for the assessment process and results of the student, it influences his or her views and the development of his or her own creative approach in the process of learning and assessment.

Assessment, in order to fulfil the formative function, must provide sufficient information about the student’s performance, must be a strong feedback mechanism that is part of the student’s learning process. This is also related to the question of working with an error and adequate assessment criteria, which are used to evaluate the error. Formative assessment focuses on the feedback function of assessment, on the formative and autonomous
assessment when working with an error. A basic prerequisite is that the purpose of assessment is the feedback directed at the activity of the student, therefore purposeful assessment processes shift from heteronomous assessment ("which serves the teacher as a tool for motivating and directing the student's learning process" (Slavik, 2003) to formative assessment ("the student gains the skill to assess"). This process ends with the development of autonomous assessment, which Slavik describes as a "way towards the student's autonomy", when the student learns to take partial responsibility for his or her own performance.

If heteronomous assessment is applied to a great extent, the student's autonomy in the learning process is not further developed, and the student does not perceive assessment as a process that he or she could somehow influence and use to his or her advantage during the learning process.

Restricting assessment activities to the external control by the teacher slows down the student's self-regulating abilities, his or her reflective and critical thinking, and at the same time increases his or her dependence on external guidance. The student then perceives assessment (working with an error) as some "impersonal" process, a signal of failure.

The given problem is well illustrated by the empirical study (Kosičková, Cerna, 2013) the partial conclusions of which are included in this text. It is built on the basic assumption about the interconnectedness of teaching and assessment goals. Assessment is linked to the understanding of goals, it reflects the teaching goal even if the goal is not explicitly defined but rather "hidden" in assessment. Assessment includes criteria according to which the performance of the student is assessed, as determined by the teaching goal. For this reason research into goals (and the deviations from the desired performance, the definitions of requested performance, the concept of erroneous performance), in terms of Bloom’s taxonomy, is on the forefront of formative assessment.

The following problems deal with selected aspects of formative assessment, the fulfilment of which positively contributes to the formation of the learning process of the student:

- testing the understanding of the subject matter from the perspective of adopting concepts and correctness during evaluation
- dialogue approach when working with an error in the student’s performance analysis
- the link between specific teaching goals and assessment processes using Bloom’s taxonomy
The Role of Formative Assessment – from Adapting Concepts to the Evaluation

The formative function of assessment influences the student's learning processes; this assessment provides the student with complex information about the quality of his or her performance. However, the basis for this is the performance task to be comprehensible to the student; it should contain clearly formulated performance requirements (in the form of questions, tasks, test items, including assessment criteria), so that the demands on the requested performance are adequate to the demands and means of delivery (the work with concepts), the adoption of the subject matter and its subsequent testing. If this is not the case, it is not possible to analyse objectively the performance of the student, to provide quality information on his or her performance and thus to fulfil the formative function of assessment.

One part of the conducted research (Kosikova, Cerna, 2013) focused on mistakes made by teachers when developing assessment for didactic tests, more specifically, the test tasks and their subsequent evaluation. It turned out that teachers incorrectly tasked the students – ambiguously formulated questions during classes – in over 20% of cases.

The problem at hand is related to the way concepts are presented to students during the exposition and fixation of the subject matter and to the way how the adoption process reflects the subsequent testing and assessment, whether the means of testing the level of acquired concepts in the form of didactic tests corresponds to the process of their adoption.

In general communication, a higher or lower level of communication context is taken into account. However, the specificity of technical language lies in the definition of a concept which, if possible, should unambiguously lead to its fundamental and defining features and related ideas. Students learn to understand the relation between the word (a lingual term) and its meaning, and in this way adopt the desired complex idea.

In this context Peregrin (1999) and Slavik (2001) presented their definitions. They represent a structuralist approach about the interconnection between vertical relations (linking a term with its meaning) and horizontal relations (linking meaningful terms with each other). The meaning of every term comes only from the connection to other terms, in parallel with the bond of the terminology system to physical reality.

"... the meaning is not just some completed thing that would be simply differentiated by a term" (Peregrin, 1999, p. 51).

"An important condition for understanding is judging, incorporating into a logical structure of reciprocal reasoning and deduction... " (Slavik, 2001, p. 138 – 139).

The way towards understanding a concept is demanding; a concept cannot be easily adopted as "unique", it always depends on how the whole explanation system is handled...
within the context of the relevant field and/or a specific communication framework (Kosikova, 2011, p. 143). Testing the understanding of a concept is equally demanding.

Testing of subject matter understanding (adoption, understanding of concepts) should provide meaningful feedback within the teaching process. This perspective is characteristic for Linhart who states:

"An examination is usually one-sidedly understood as a way in which the teacher acquires information on what the student has learned, and not as an actual check of the learning process." (Linhart, 1967, p. 92).

To acquire objective information on what the student has learned, however, assumes a correct setup of didactic tests, which corresponds to the formulation of questions and tasks.

Testing students in higher education by means of didactic tests is demanding in terms of preparation, and their questions and tasks must adequately reflect, in terms of their content as well as extent, the teaching goals. The above mentioned research has revealed deficiencies here as well. The didactic approach that is based on formulated goals incorporates requirements imposed on the student's performance. These requirements are linked to the assessment criteria.

Test items should therefore be formulated clearly and comprehensibly, explicitly expressing their content and extent, without allowing for discrepant interpretations based on deduction from context. An incorrectly formulated question lacks a logical link between the performance request (ambiguously resulting from an incorrectly formulated question) and the assessment criterion of that performance. As Socrates said (in Chlup, 1955, p. 13-14) "Let us thus go back to what I said a moment ago, that it is my fault that you answered wrongfully, since it was me, who wrongfully asked..."

Another serious problem revealed by the research (Kosikova, Cerna, 2013, Kosikova, Liberska, Farnicka, 2014) was that test questions did not cover the whole subject matter presented to the students. The tests were missing questions and tasks that would test meta-cognitive knowledge of the students and would be based on developing new solutions of a heuristic-divergent type (Farnicka, 2010, 2011).

**Dialogue Approach – Work with Errors**

A correct approach to an error is to see the error as a natural part of the learning process (especially at the beginning of learning). The point is to teach the student to work with an error and use this to his or her advantage.

"Piaget proved that if a child makes a mistake, it is not usually due to its incompetence, the child simply reacts on the basis of its currently achieved level of thinking. It is possible to progress to a higher level if we provide the child with a relevant knowledge basis and if we pay attention to the processes by which the child will be able to adequately structure and utilize this knowledge base." (Fontana, 2003, p. 76)
Vaclav Kulic (1971, p. 100-135) is an important author who deals with the subject of errors in students' learning processes. Kulic distinguishes 3 processes of working with errors: Identification, Interpretation and Correction. They are shortly described and analysed below.

1. In the process of the identification of an error, two phases are distinguished:
   - Error Detection – revealing the incorrectness of an answer, finding out that a performance is erroneous
   - Error Identification in a more literal sense of the word – i.e. finding out what the error is, "how" it makes the performance erroneous.

The identification process of an erroneous performance provides the learning individual with information about the reached state of knowledge, not only in the sense that the result is erroneous, that the goal has not been reached, but also how erroneous it is, what the difference and gap is between what should be and what is.

2. Interpretation of Erroneous Performance – the analysis of the cognitive structure of erroneous performance. This phase is often omitted by teachers.

Reflecting on one's own Performance – determining conditions and causes of erroneous performance, the result of which is finding the source of misunderstanding.

This phase is extremely important with regards to the learning process of the student, it teaches the student to understand why he or she has made an error, what he or she has not understood, what necessary knowledge and skill has yet to be acquired, for what reason he or she has made the wrong judgment etc.

3. Error Correction – depends on the level of processing feedback information; correction makes sense only when it is justified, not just a mechanical statement of the correct answer. The basis for the interpretation of erroneous performance is a detailed analysis based on the reflection and meta-reflection of the teacher and the student. A prerequisite for efficient reflection is knowing the assessment criteria.

For the student, working with an error does not mean only the knowledge, but also the acceptance of assessment criteria. The process of accepting assessment criteria, which “objectively” mark the student's performance as erroneous, also represents a process of understanding – why the student has made the error, and how the error should be corrected. At the same time, it allows for the student's meta-reflection upon his or her performance. And that is the right way how to teach the student to work with an error.

Working with an error in the process of learning is also important with regards to the phases of the learning process. The error has to be identified at the start of teaching. If students adopt erroneous approaches, or if they get the purpose, meaning, concept wrong, the unlearning of the reinforced "error" is much harder than regular checks and
feedback. Psychological studies (Linhart, 1967, in Kosikova, 2011) confirm the dependence of the influence of feedback on the learning phase. Monitoring information acts in a different way in the starting phase of learning than it does throughout the whole learning or in the final phase; it is of greater importance, since in the first phase of learning knowledge structures and new interrelations develop. Correction during the practice phase, when acquired knowledge is already reinforced, is less effective for the student than at the beginning. This is related to the memorizing process, since a necessary prerequisite for long-term memorization is repetition. Understandably, it is desirable for students to refresh and practice the subject matter, which they have well understood, the logical structure and interrelations of which they have grasped.

Many authors (Dolezal, Mares 1977, p. 201-207) have studied the way in which teachers react to students' errors. They have assumed that the student's erroneous performance does not necessarily have to jeopardize the process and the results of learning, provided the conditions of its interpretation are met. This specific interaction develops specific behaviour focused not on the improvement of understanding but omitting errors in understanding. The authors proclaim the need for a systematic training of teachers for dealing with diagnosing student errors (Cook, 2004).

Another issue in error control is the teacher's orientation. The study conducted by Farnicka (2011) shows that teachers who are error-oriented do not develop. They do not expect improvement in the development of the students' social skills. The first level is accepted and only “bad behaviour” is constantly corrected.

**The Integrative Concept of Using Bloom’s Taxonomy**

Bloom's taxonomy of cognitive goals helps to formulate requirements laid on the student on different thought levels; it formulates the expected output and learning tasks containing requirements related to the performance of the student.

The psycho-didactic understanding of the skill of the teacher to work with Bloom's taxonomy assumes the preparation of tasks and activities for students which involves determining clear performance requirements, the task difficulty, its assessment criteria, motivation aspects, how to engage the student in completing the task, and means of task presentation even in the form of assessment.

Bloom's taxonomy of cognitive goals refers to goal categories, which express requirements for the student on the level of cognitive thought processes. The taxonomy proceeds from lower cognitive goals towards higher ones, the higher ones incorporating the lower ones.

The revised taxonomy contains two dimensions – the dimension of knowledge and the dimension of cognitive processes (Byckovsky, Kotasek, 2004, in Kosikova, 2011). They are divided into two cognitive levels:
1. Cognitive Level 1 – this is cognitive activity of a lower level, linked to the context and the information contained in it, to the reception, processing and further handling – learning with understanding – knowledge, its understanding, interpreting and adopting.

2. Cognitive Level 2 – this is a higher level of cognitive activity, related to actual thought content, to their formation and handling, development of meta-cognition – creation, problem solving, assessment (Krykorkova, 2004, p. 144, 174-185, Anderson, Kratwohl, 2001)

The basic Cognitive Level 1 deals with basic knowledge and information which the students acquire. They demonstrate their understanding by interpreting tasks independently, by restating them in their own words etc. This cognitive activity of the student is known as learning with understanding. At the same time, this level has a certain overlap, a potential for overlap with higher meta-cognitive activities, which are less bound to the context, which contains basic information and knowledge and their processing, and which tend to be more oriented towards activities carried out on the basis of the actual thought activity.

Cognitive Level 2 develops the meta-cognition of students, and it requires the thought processes from students in which they deal with abstract and general requirements in specific situations, they are able to explain relations between elements and understand the basic structure of a statement or a thought process.

The highest level of synthesis, formation and assessment requires from the student to create new structures, to propose new approaches, to evaluate the effectiveness and quality according to relevant assessment criteria.

Questions of a higher type pose a higher demand for objectivity verification on the part of the teacher. From the perspective of diagnostics they do not only provide an overview of mere accomplished learning, but also an overview of achieved understanding. They can reflect the student's competence to apply, analyse, solve problems creatively, etc. and thus provide a valuable source of information for the optimization of teaching and learning processes. The teacher should continuously make use of feedback and work with it. The more information on the student's performance feedback provides, the more it fulfils its formative function and the more opportunity the student will be given to reflect on his or her learning processes. It is fundamental to ensure the conformity of the goal orientation of the student performance with the assessment criteria according to which the performance is assessed. Deficiencies in assigning tasks are seen in incorrectly formulated questions and tasks, which, in turn, are assessed on the basis of criteria that are different from the ones assigned (Farnicka, Liberska, 2014).
Conclusions

As it has been highlighted, formative assessment affects the student’s learning process. An important aspect of this process is the formulation of requirements for the student’s performance, a clear formulation of questions and tasks for students, an informationally supporting analysis of the student’s performance, the formulation of assessment criteria. If the student’s performance is erroneous, it is important how the teacher works with the student to allow him or her to reflect on his or her performance, to interpret the erroneous performance and to correct the error. The utilization of students’ errors to the advantage of the students’ learning depends on the level of processing feedback information. Feedback information will be important during all period of education especially from lifelong learning perspective (Farnicka, Liberska, 2012)

The formative function of assessment in a broader context means that it is part of the formation of the personality of the student, it develops social relations, it is a prerequisite for the student’s efficient learning process (see: Bucholc, Liberska, 2016). If assessment is seen in this way, it is important to find motivational factors for learning, to perceive assessment as a natural and integral part of teaching and learning.

Formative assessment involves several important principles and ideas:

- the way assessment is carried out must not be humiliating to the student
- the teacher's assessment must take into account the student’s limitations
- the teacher's assessment should provide the student with assessment criteria which the student can identify with
- apart from the teacher, the student is also involved in the assessment activity
- autonomous assessment strengthens the responsibility of students for their performance, for their learning activity
- the necessity to differentiate between the substance of assessment and grading leads to a natural integration of assessment into teaching and into the learning process of the student (see: Kosikova 2011, p. 102-147, Kosikova, Liberska, Farnicka, 2014).

This approach to formative assessment is a way to the student’s autonomy, a way to improve the quality of the student’s learning process, based on the development of meta-reflection. It allows the student to perceive assessment as a natural part of the teaching process, to strengthen his or her responsibility for his or her learning results and to learn to perceive his or her own errors as a means for correction, learning, an opportunity for improving the quality of his or her learning.
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Mobility in Higher Education: New Needs to Improve it?

Noemi Serrano Diaz & Hazel Crichton

Abstract

The aim of The Bologna Process is, amongst others, to improve the mobility of students in Higher Education. The Erasmus programme helps students to study in other European Universities, know other countries, live another culture (folklore, food, language, etc.), develop autonomy and mature as an adult person. In Cadiz, Spain, the international seminar “Improving mobility through collaborative exchange” took place in May 2015. The participants were universities of Glasgow (UK), Madeira (Portugal), Gazi (Turkey), Linz (Austria), Zielona Gora (Poland) and Cadiz (Spain). Representatives from those countries expressed concern about problems that students might suffer during mobility. The literature has pointed out that the economic, social and academic stresses they experience can, in some cases, generate or exacerbate mental disorders (Bradley, 2000) and generate depression and anxiety (Russell et al, 2010; Ying & Han, 2006) which can even manifest itself in somatic symptoms (Mori, 2000); this could involve classroom absences and drug taking as side effects. This study describes the positive experiences of five University of Cadiz Erasmus students under a collaborative exchange between the universities, detailing the measures taken by the host universities to address potential stressful issues.

Keywords: Erasmus mobility, Student’s needs, Higher Education

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Introduction

The 2020 strategy for the EHEA (European Higher Education Area) was established at the European Conference of Ministers of Higher Education held in Bucharest in 2012. The learning mobility is established as the main objective described as essential in order to achieve a better learning, quality assurance in higher education, employability and expand the cooperation and internationalization of higher education (CEMES, 2012). No one disputes the importance that a high level of mobility has for higher education institutions. A large number of incoming and outgoing students has become a sign of prestige and quality (Green, 2012).

Erasmus is the largest student exchange mobility programme for higher education in Europe. More than 4,000 institutions of higher education in more than 30 countries participate in the programme. The programme requires universities to sign a letter of agreement between European universities. The agreement means that institutions undertake to meet a number of conditions regarding exchange students taking place within the programme itself. Currently, undergraduate students who are interested in studying at a university in another country can choose a period of stay between 3 and 9 months and the ECTS (European Credit Transfer System) are recognized in their home university. The stays at the Faculty of Education at the University of Cadiz usually last four months that is, a full academic term and can be expanded if the experience is positive to 9 months, the entire academic year. Very rarely a student chooses, from the beginning of the application process, to study at another university for a full academic year.

Currently, the conceptualization of integral formation of students in education includes life skills. From this viewpoint, training means shaping the personality of an individual as a result of the significant learning that has been achieved throughout his/her life up to the present date and integrates different forms of acting, thinking, expressing, working, studying, learning, interacting, living and being (Zarzar, 2003). We understand that stays at other universities are highly positive for student formation and for developing an autonomy that will help them mature into self-sufficient adults. Studying abroad helps a person to deal with his/her career with more success increasing the international dimension at work (Teichler, 2007) and increases the probability of working abroad in the future (Parey, Waldinger, 2007).

In particular, this international dimension is important for students in educational sciences, future teachers and trainers of European new generations. Due to the increasingly normal attendance of students from other nationalities in the classrooms, the Erasmus programme stays help students learn about other cultures in their native country, which makes the future teachers sensitized to the challenge of educating a diversity of students of different nationalities. Most researchers, including Deardorff (2004, in Pozo-Vicente y Aguaded-Gomez, 2012) and Straffon (2003), agree that intercultural experiences allow students to identify the behaviours and to progress in
the skills of intercultural communicative competence. They also state that there is a direct and positive proportional relationship between the time spent abroad and the degree of intercultural sensitivity acquired. Academic exchange can improve the quality of higher education, the professional and personal development of beneficiaries and it opens the way to intercultural understanding beyond the immediate exchange. It facilitates collaboration between the institutions themselves (Stockwell, 2011). For those students who will be future pre-school or earl school teachers cultural immersion gives them flexibility and understanding of the cultural diversity of their students.

For those whose future careers will be connected with education, medicine and nursing learning in another country gives an opportunity to gain valuable experience by studying in new and different institutions with different methodologies, resources and materials. Button et al. (2005) did a literature review on the impact of international placements for nurses’ professional lives. Students should be exposed to a variety of nursing experiences in the host country. This would give them a broad spectrum for comparisons between health care systems, nursing practice and health care delivery in those cultures. Therefore, educational institutions are strongly encouraged to provide opportunities for students to participate in nursing care and education in another country.

Another argument for student exchanges can be made by looking at Frisch’s study (1990 in Keogh y Russel-Roberts, 2009) where it was found that an international experience enabled the students to “step out” of themselves and view all previous experiences of learning, and otherwise, from a new and often very critical vantage-point. In this article based on example of international activity a step on the way to excellence was presented.

**Case Study: Material Presentation**

We understand that there are some barriers, in general, that all the students who choose to study at a foreign university must face -economic considerations, foreign language and family separation, which can create stress (Väfors, Chin and Demarinis, 2008). On the one hand, families must support their children financially when they are studying in a foreign country. When a student begins to gather information about the costs of mobility, it becomes clear that the level of Erasmus funding may be insufficient. Then there is the language barrier: it is not easy to study in a foreign language.

When a student has reviewed these factors and decided to study at another university within the Erasmus programme, he or she faces situations that mobility itself carries. Most worrisome, in our opinion, is the risk, caused by the difficulties encountered in the Erasmus experience, of the student health issues, such as depression and anxiety (Nilsson et al, 2008) or somatic symptoms (Mori, 2000) or problems that have lain dormant, such as mental disorders (Bradley, 2000). These situations require the therapeutic help of a professional. However, most students do not apply for it (Mori,
due to lack of service, or because of the difficulties in expressing themselves in another language or because they simply do not want to receive such aid. In that case the Erasmus programme becomes an experience that causes harm to mental and physical health and has a negative impact on the academic progress of the student.

We fully understand the necessity of providing support and counselling work to the student from the nearest figure within the receiving institution. The teacher coordinating the Erasmus mobility is responsible for the student who comes from a particular university. The coordinator teacher is the contact person at the host university and his or her functions are essentially reception, advising, guiding, counselling and managing the academic administrative procedures during the student’s stay. The problem is the bureaucratization of the Erasmus programme, in which the academic coordinators only facilitate the paperwork and leave the incoming students without personal guidance. We agree with De Wit (2012) who, on the 25th anniversary of the Erasmus programme, mentioned lack of participation of Faculty staff and shift to a more bureaucratic and quantitative approach to Erasmus mobility over the last 15 years as a barrier.

A group of university professors from the UK, Turkey, Portugal, Austria, Poland and Spain who are sensitized and committed to the Erasmus programme met at an international seminar Improving Mobility Through Collaborative Exchange held in Cadiz, Spain, from 6 to 12 May 2015. The aim was to discuss the difficulties and fears the Erasmus student must face and try to improve the mobility experience of Erasmus students between their countries. Here are the reflections from the workshop:

1. The analysis of the stressors for Erasmus students
2. The analysis of the failure and abandonment of the Erasmus programme and the scholarship just before the departure. What are the students’ fears?
3. Reception and support
4. The information the student needs for mobility and keeping their emotional security safe, student interests, knowledge of the country, validation, mobility and learning agreements, selecting courses, languages, hosting, level of economic life ...
5. To combine our efforts to carry out a K2 Erasmus cooperation project between our universities during the academic year 2016-2017
6. To ensure that the action should be valid for different situational contexts, which is a priority value for European mobility

The central issue is the cooperation between European countries to support European Erasmus students in all aspects, not only in academic life but also in their daily lives (questions, problems, and concerns ...) in order to promote an emotional balance that all the students need in order to face their studies with positive results. The usefulness for the target community of an information campaign will be enhanced with the creation of an application for mobile phones and tablets, thus, facilitating access to information
adapted electronic gadgets that students use most often in order to help them address fears and uncertainties before the stay. The application will accompany the student and will support them in the process of acculturation. However, the most important action is the support and advice from the university member of staff who is responsible for coordinating the students.

Method

This paper reflects the experience of 5 university students from the Faculty of Education of the University of Cadiz who experienced mobility stays under the Erasmus programme with special monitoring as a result of the understanding and cooperation between the three institutions participating in the seminar: Glasgow, Scotland (UK), Linz, Austria and Cadiz, Spain. All were undergraduate students in the 4th year of the Bachelor’s degree in Early Childhood Education. Three of them made their stays in the 2013-14 academic year the other two in the academic year 2014-2015. All of them stayed only for the first half of the course since they were interested in performing teacher-training practices in Spanish schools, which took place in the second half of the year. Nonetheless, it is still important to have the opportunity to learn how teachers carry out their work in another country: methodology, resources, classroom climate, relationship with parents or guardians, micro and macro educational policy, etc.

Steps of Analysis

Qualitative data analysis must be systematic and follow a sequence and order (Alvarez-Gayou, 2005). The model used for analysing the data from the interviews has been developed over a process that can be realized in the following phases (Alvarez-Gayou, 2005; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Rubin and Rubin, 1995):

1. Getting information
2. Capturing, transcribing and ordering information
3. Coding information
4. Integrating information

The information was collected through in-depth interviews with the students participating in the study and by recording various interviews. The instrument used for recordings was the application included in the mobile phone. These audio recordings of the interviews were transcribed in a perfectly readable file. The information was organized in a questions-and-answers format. Then we proceeded to encode the information. Coding is the process by which the information is gathered in categories that concentrate the ideas, concepts or similar themes discovered by the researcher (Rubin and Rubin, 1995). We made a number of categories and typological data encodings. Two main coding processes were employed: thematic coding - addressing major topics of interest, and interpretive and explanatory coding – developing issues, explaining and interpreting both verbal and non-verbal language and chronological coding. The main categories were: overall assessment of the experience, the ability to
acquire new learning academically, to know if they had the opportunity to do internships in foreign schools and the work of the coordinators: welcome, help, support and counselling by the Erasmus coordinator professor at the universities where they studied. To ensure anonymity the respondents were identified as Respondent 1–5 (R1–R5).

Results

In response to the question concerning an overall assessment of the experience, the five students highly valued the academic and cultural development which they had obtained from their Erasmus experience (knowledge of other cultures, new learning, and improvements in the field of foreign language ...). It is relevant that all of them without exception introduced in their replies their growth as a person that they had experienced. For them it was the first time they had left the family home to live alone. This is because there are universities in Spain in almost all provinces and students continue living in the family home and the time of independence has moved to the time of starting a career and economic independence. Therefore, for the Spanish student being out of the family home appeared to support the development of autonomy, maturity and personal growth. All this helped to increase self-confidence and gave them security in life. “In my opinion, in addition to academics, the experience is oriented to provide more benefits in the social and cultural field, in improving as a person and generally to mature”. In addition, it appeared to be such a positive experience that all of them encouraged and recommend other students to study in universities outside Spain: to apply for the Erasmus programme. “It was a great experience for me, I would repeat it a thousand times and I recommend it to everyone who can go to live and study as an Erasmus a few months to a foreign country” (R4).

“Overall it was very good, without a doubt some of the best experiences of my life I would advise everyone” (R1).

“ [...] Moreover, I met a new culture and I learned to adapt to it because it is different from ours, eg. The issue of timetables” (R2).

New way of learning

This question was intended to know their evaluation of the academic learning achieved during their stays through the programme at other universities. We wanted to know if they perceived whether some aspects of academic training during the stay at another university would have been impossible to acquire at the University of Cadiz. “Yes, language, thanks to the Erasmus experience I could increase my level of spoken and written English. In addition, I got information on what education and teaching I like in another country” (R1). “Yes, in my case, someone who is studying education, I observed how they understand education in Scotland and the curriculum in which they are based. It is very important to see that different countries may see different forms of education and it is good to be enriched by it. If I had not gone, I would not have broadened my view of education” (R3).
All of them admitted managing to undertake some of the academic learning which would have been impossible in Spain. Thanks to the immersion, they were provided with foreign language learning in English, in the case of the University of Glasgow, and for those who had studied at the University of Linz, in English and German. "Yes, especially the language. However much progress is made in any language course in your home country, until you make the jump abroad and start practicing it and (face) the need to communicate with people from other countries, you do not realize the importance of learning new languages" (R5).

"I made learnings that I would not make at the UCA, because education there is totally different from here, but, I want to say that some things I've learned in the Faculty of Cadiz I would not learn there" (R2).

Finally, we agree with Zarzar (2003) interpreting that student training sets their personality, forming their acting, thinking, expressing themselves, working, studying, learning, interacting and living, the result of all their learning. The reflection of R4 is on this topic "The learning I got was not just academic. I learned a lot in the classroom but also in day to day. I can say that I have changed and now look at the world differently."

Access to practice in an educational centre

In the bachelor's degrees of Early Childhood and Primary Education at the Faculty of Educational Sciences, University of Cadiz, a very important part of the training of students is teaching internship carried out in schools. Our students participate in internship in Spanish schools for a term during the third year and then during the fourth year. What they learn during student internship in different schools is crucial for their future professional performance. Therefore, it was interesting to know whether they had been given a chance to practise in schools outside Spain. According to Button (2005) and Frisch (1990) Erasmus mobility provides an opportunity to compare different systems, in this case, the educational systems and helps them to review their learning from a very critical vantage point.

All students interviewed had the opportunity to visit nursery schools during the six months Erasmus stay, both in Glasgow and Linz. Some of them for several weeks and others for one day a week during the six-month stay. These practices provided an opportunity to learn, observe and participate in a real context outside their country of origin that without such programs would have been impossible. One of the respondents evaluated the internship at a school in Glasgow: "As a student of education I observed how they understood education in Scotland and the curriculum in which they were based. It is very important to see that different countries may see different forms of education and it is good to be enriched by it. If I had not gone, I would not broadened my view of education "R3
"Yes, I was lucky to have access to school and different classes, with different methodologies, with different teachers, who provided me each with new experiences and learnings during our stay there. Practices in Erasmus seem vital to me" (R1).

The work of the coordinating teacher

The teacher coordinator is the contact person for the student in the destination university. They are responsible for guiding, counselling, academic advising and managing administrative procedures during the student's stay. It is important to give incoming students all the necessary information about their university courses, schedules, student support and psychological services (if any), the city where they will live and the customs of the country as well as manage the paperwork related to their studies at the host university. It is true that the Erasmus programme is not new and it is starting to be bureaucratized (a fact already denounced in 2012 by De Witt). This can have a negative side effect on the students being displaced, disoriented and with lack of support. These circumstances can make the student reject the Erasmus scholarship before leaving as so often happens. This entails an additional administrative burden and the loss of the scholarship, which cannot be transferred to another student because of lack of time to make a new contract.

There is close collaboration among the Erasmus coordinating teachers of the destination universities of this study, constant communication and a keen interest and dedication to the Erasmus programme. They participated in the First International Seminar for Improving Mobility through Collaborative Exchange held in Cadiz, motivated by a desire to improve mobility between their respective institutions. They are teachers who believe in the Erasmus programme and do coordination work beyond pure bureaucracy.

Regarding the work of the coordinating teachers, the students highly appreciated it, recognizing the extensive assistance, monitoring and the interest shown in academic and personal matters (reception, accommodation, adaptation to class group, acculturation, student companions ...). In almost all universities, host activities are performed for Erasmus students in order to give general information and to get to know each other. In others, they are assigned a student to support them in specific questions that may arise.

Regarding the welcome and support received in academic matters, they responded - "We had a great reception and we had an induction week specifically to solve our doubts. They would help you whenever you asked and having an assigned coordinator helps a lot "(R3)". "Yes, and I was very happy because she was always interested in me" (R5)". "Very good. Our coordinator was always available and helped us in everything we needed. In addition, the university itself held Erasmus welcome sessions, which was fine. We got a lot of information and met a lot of people "(R4).

"I received enough information about the city and faculty, since each Erasmus student had one or two students who helped us with all the questions we had. Moreover, I would emphasize that we were picked
The first day we arrived in the city and they took us to the faculty and I consider this a very positive aspect because at first you feel a little frightened, disoriented "(R2).

"There was a coordinator for Erasmus students, I think that sometimes he looked a little overwhelmed, it would not hurt to assess that the Erasmus coordinator should not be in turn, a teacher, etc." (R1).

"Yes, I had a teacher who was in charge of monitoring me and all Erasmus students to know about my academic development and adaptation" (R2).

Regarding their interest in more personal aspects all students replied that their respective coordinators were interested personally in them, concerned about their integration into the group, whether they went to class regularly, how they felt, etc. The respondents recalled:

"At all times he was concerned about my welfare, and how I was doing in my new country." (R1) "Yes, both teachers and students were interested in all these aspects to make us Erasmus students be very comfortable and adapt ourselves the fastest way." (R2)

"Yes, in everything. In fact, they gave us a welcome party where we had a talk and eat together and organised several cultural tours around the country and the city." (R5)

In the overall assessment of the aid received, all of them showed great satisfaction: "We received all the help we needed" (R3). "Whenever I had some problems I received help to solve them" (R2).

One student said -"They were interested in everything except housing" (R3). This student had to seek a rented apartment to share and had difficulties. Universities that lack dormitory accommodation should facilitate contacts of those who rent flats to in-coming students and provide information to students arriving from outside. This is done at the University of Cadiz. Lacking college accommodation, the university itself makes a link between individuals who rent their homes and students who have this need in order to facilitate the search. In this study, we have detected that this is an aspect that could improve with our collaboration: provide information on renting accommodation to students, and even, it would be advisable to contact in-coming students attending the same university to share the same apartment for rent. Since living alone is not advisable and very expensive.

**Conclusion**

No one doubts there are plenty of very positive aspects in being an Erasmus student at a foreign university. The benefits in both academic education and personal development are widely demonstrated. Regarding academic training, participating in the Erasmus programme helps students develop a more critical outlook and compare different systems (Button, 2005; Frisch, 1990), for example the educational system. As for personality, it favours the development of independence and autonomy and helps students to mature as persons (Zarzar, 2003). It also improves their career prospects (Teichler, 2007) and increases their chance of working abroad in the future (Parey, Waldinger 2007).
Specifically, for students in the sciences of education, future teachers and trainers of European new generations, it is highly positive because they develop communication skills and their intercultural sensitivity level (Deardorff, 2004, in Pozo-Vincent and Aguaded-Gomez, 2012; Straffon, 2003), as well as intercultural understanding (Stockwell, 2011). These skills are becoming increasingly necessary to educate in diversity to the range of nationalities that we currently have in our classrooms of early childhood and primary education.

According to De Wit (2012), the Erasmus programme needs to lower the level of bureaucracy that has been loaded in recent years at the level of faculties and especially coordinators, the people who have direct contact with students undertaking stays in their host universities. This is to be expected because receiving foreign students is a regular part of university life.

Students need the support and counselling of their coordinators in many areas during their stay. They are young people for whom, in most cases, this is the first time that they are separated from home, from their families, to live alone in another country and study in other universities in another language and with different customs that are mostly unknown. We understand that the figure of the Erasmus academic coordinator is essential to alleviate and prevent the negative effects in both their academic performance and in their mental and physical health. Social isolation prevents them from knowing the culture in which they have to live a period of their lives, so it is convenient to put in-coming students in contact with volunteer students of the Faculty itself in which they will study.

The excellent levels of communication among us, the coordinators who have carried out the coordination of the students in this study, shows that supervision, advice and counselling of the coordinator, both in academic and personal issues, leads to a successful Erasmus experience. We understand that the Erasmus stay is a unique rich experience in academic and personal learning and it promotes the international projection of the students’ career scope, when considering the possibility of working in other countries of the European Union.

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Abstract

The article is devoted to the analysis of influence of a family at choice by youth of educational strategy. Surveys of seniors are conducted in Novosibirsk and the Novosibirsk region. Results of polls have allowed differentiating families on the educational level of parents. This idea results from earlier studies on the role of the family in forming attitudes of the youth that allow them to develop their adaptation potential and which was tackled by the authors in their monograph “Sociocultural Adaptation of the Youth of the North” (Abramova, et al., 2011). Dependence between high education level of parents and a reference point of youth on receiving the higher education has been as a result revealed. As for parents with lower education their children are apt to have lower simpler ambitions for their future. The analysis of value orientations, as regards the choice of educational strategy, shows that all school graduates consider further education first of all as a possibility of further professional development. It has also been shown that differences in perception of the value of attaining postsecondary education are conditioned by youth’s different life attitudes which are formed to some extent by parents who have different levels of education.

Keywords: university, youth, value orientations
Introduction

The development of the country is determined by the human capital accumulated and realized in the country, considered as a factor in the development of the economy, society and the family (Kapelyushnikov 2012). One of the topical tasks of the country at this stage is to maintain the human capital and create individuals the best conditions for their self-development and self-realization.

Studies into the relationship of family and education have been a traditional set of issues for sociology. Family and system of education (Konstantinovsky, 2008; Roshchina, 2012) are of big importance in analysing socio-cultural differentiation of qualitative and quantitative properties in such fundamental sociological concepts as social mobility (Sorokin, 2005), theory of human capital (Becker, 2003), theory of cultural capital (Bourdieu, 2007). The role of family and education, of these most important institutions of socialization and enculturation of an individual appears to be essential for studying the issues of socio-cultural adaptation of youth under conditions of modern transformations (Abramova, Goncharova, Kostyuk, 2011; Current psychosocial problems, 2016).

Research Questions

We will examine the impact of the educational level of parents on the educational plans and strategies of their children - school leavers in this article. We mean that educational strategies are a set of problems (questions) which students are solving to determine their goals, plans, values and motives for obtaining an education. They involve choices whether to go on only with studies or to combine studies and a job: the choice of education type – with educational fee or free of charge; choice of educational institution – state or commercial; and its location.

1. To reveal typology of families on education level of parents.
2. To reveal communication between plans of graduates of schools and education level of parents.
3. To consider features in respondents’ choice of educational strategies depending on gender.
4. To consider features in the choice by respondents of education strategy depending on valuable installations.

Method

The Russian sociology has been greatly contributed to with its studies into the connection of the parents’ education level and their children’s educational strategy conducted by V. N. Shubkin (Shubkin, 2007), D. L. Konstantinovsky (Konstantinovsky, 2008), A.V. Ochkina (Ochkina, 2010), I. P. Popova (Popova, 2013) and others. It is extremely important to assess the effect of material and spiritual resources of the family.
on life and education trajectories of the youth, on processes of social differentiation and integration, professional and social succession.

Usually current investigations (Konstantinovsky, 2008; Ochkina, 2012; Popova, 2013) dwell on the influence of socio-professional status of parents upon the choice of future educational and professional trajectories of their children and therefore upon succession and alteration of this status. We consider status to denote the position the individual takes in the system of professional and social relations in which his/her education is the initial point for determination of their status.

Theories of human and cultural capital present education - in its current paradigm of continued education – as an essential resource of the individual and as a content component of his/her socio-professional activities. The social and cultural resources of family – level of education, value hierarchy, ideals, attitudes, bringing-up methods and traditions - are sources of “initial capital accumulation” by the rising generation.

The analysis of the impact of parents’ educational level as a social and cultural resource upon their children’s educational strategies has been carried out on the basis of the data of the sample inquiry that was conducted by the Department of Sociology of the Institute of Sociology of the Russian Academy of Sciences under D. L. Konstantinovsky’s scientific guidance in schools in the city of Novosibirsk and the Novosibirsk Territory in 2013: 618 graduates of 11 comprehensive secondary schools of Novosibirsk and the Novosibirsk Territory were interviewed: the city of Novosibirsk – 356, other towns of the Territory - 177 and the rural areas – 85 individuals.

To verify the hypothesis of the connection between the level of parents’ education and the choice of educational strategy by their children the respondents’ families were typologized. As a result, a hierarchy of family types by the level of parents’ education – from lower (incomplete secondary, secondary, primary vocational education of both or one of the parents) to higher level (higher education of both parents ) was constructed. This typologization suggests accepting some formal characteristics. However, the families where one of the parents did not have any education or had incomplete education were also taken into account:

When parents had different educational levels, the level of the parent with higher educational level was taken for the basis of the typology. For instance, a family of type 2: if father (or mother) had secondary specialized education and the other parent had lower educational level. Similarly, respondents belonged to families of type 4 when one of the parents had higher education. The typology in question does not take into account difference in levels of parents’ education, therefore it does not allow to analyse the impact degree separately of mother or father. There seems to be another very interesting task therein.
Results

The First Research Question

Comparison of the educational level of parents and educational strategies of children showed that the parents education influence on the choice of the planned level of education for boys and girls. (see Table 1).

Table 1. Impact of parents’ education on the educational level which respondents plan to reach, % of graduates intending to go on with their studies or those intending to combine studies with work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Planned education Level</th>
<th>Graduates by gender</th>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Boys</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>total</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To graduate from higher education institution with bachelor’s degree</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To graduate from higher education institution with the bachelor’s degree and then master’s degree</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To graduate from higher education institution with the diploma of specialist</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To graduate from higher educational institution but I have no idea of the kind of the diploma yet</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>42.8</td>
<td>29.1</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>23.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>To attain secondary specialized education at technical high school or college</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To learn a trade at vocational school (PTU) or at technical high school or to take courses</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To attain tertiary education (post graduate courses, doctorate)</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: authors’ own source

The majority of the young people - both boys and girls - plan to get higher education (92; 93%). It was revealed that the transition from a lower to a higher education level of parents the proportion of children planning to graduate is increasing. Maximum wishes of the graduates (96; 80 %) are wishes of those graduates whose parents both have higher education, while the minimum ones (69; 80 %) are typical of children, in particular of girls, whose parents have the lowest level of education.

The analysis of personal plans of the respondents to continue their education after finishing school has shown that the graduates as a whole plan either to go on studying (59.7%) or to combine studies with a job (35.8 %). Those who plan to combine studies with work make up 45.8 % and they are mostly from the families of type 1 (parents have got education of the lowest level); their percentage exceeds the average of all the family types by 10%.

The analysis also makes it clear that in planning strategy to get further education the respondents disclose the difference by sex in considering the number of study years and type of courses (baccalaureate, specialization, master’s degree courses).
Male graduates, in comparison with female graduates, would like to a lesser degree to graduate from the higher education institution with the diploma of bachelor (by 6.6%; 17.1% against 23.7%), mostly they prefer to get the diploma of specialist (by 9%; 24.1% against 15.1%). Female graduates would like to have the diploma as soon as possible (after a short period of studying), and male graduates would like the diploma that provides broader specialization. Perhaps, this is connected with the girls’ desires to have “status” jobs and decent earnings. For male graduates it is not only good earnings that are important but also a possibility of a good career.

Most graduates planning to attain secondary specialized education in technical high schools, college, and also in a specialized professional training school, or technical high schools are graduates whose parents have lower level of education (according to the suggested typology): they are children from families of type 1 and 2 (19.1% and 21% correspondingly) and among female graduates they represent families of type 1 - 3.

The choice of the form of education correlates with parents’ education: 23.1% of girls whose parents have low education (type 1) plan to take evening or correspondence courses, whereas only 1.8 and 6.4% of girls from families of family types 5 and 6 have similar plans. One cannot see such a clear-cut differentiation among male graduates, they are oriented at the full-time courses (by 2.7%; 94.4% against 91.7%) and more seldom at the evening courses (by 3.3%). This form of education chosen by male graduates may mainly be conditioned by a probable calling up for military service and full-time courses give the possibility of granting military service deferment.

Male graduates also more often than female graduates are oriented at free-of-charge education (44.6% against 29.0%) and it is extremely seldom that they are oriented at education on the paid basis. Probably this strategy is conditioned by the level of financial provision in the parents’ family. The part of male graduates belonging to three less financially provided family groups – in assessing material position of parents – is by 8.6% bigger (54.4% against 45.8%).

The analysis of educational institution attractiveness has shown that the major group of graduates (90%) choose educational facilities of the city of Novosibirsk and of the Novosibirsk Territory: male graduates – 86%; female graduates – 93%. Male respondents wish to go to other cities of Russia, including Moscow and St. Petersburg, more often than girls, though the competition there is as a rule bigger and the entry requirements are higher.

**The Second Research Question**

Motives of education and valuable orientations of graduates of schools at the choice of educational strategy.

In the process of the survey, the respondents were asked: “Why are you planning to study?” The question was half-open. A set of 13 values was proposed and the answers to
them "important", "not very important", "not important". The respondents were asked to rank 13 values and most of them put in the first place the values that are indirectly associated with their future work. 95-96% of the respondents answered that it was necessary to go on studying mainly in order “to attain a job that will correspond to their interests and inclinations”. Then 94-95% of the respondents said that they wanted “to find a well-paid job”, 93% - “to be a competent worker”, 88-91% – “to get a prestigious work”, 84-86% - “to find a job easily in own country”. Further on, they gave reasons that were more of social type rather than the professional one: “to go on with studies to establish necessary interrelations, friendships”; “for the sake of living an interesting life of students”, etc.

We compared the type of family and the responses of young people about the reasons for getting education (see Table 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Why are you planning to go on with studies?</th>
<th>Graduates by gender</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Girls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Educational values of social significance:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To have necessary relations and acquaintances</td>
<td>66,7</td>
<td>57,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To obtain “crusts” without which there is no way to success</td>
<td>66,7</td>
<td>68,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This is established order</td>
<td>61,9</td>
<td>68,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am fond of studying</td>
<td>38,1</td>
<td>57,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For the sake of living a merry life of students</td>
<td>33,3</td>
<td>57,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To find a job abroad</td>
<td>38,1</td>
<td>36,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This is my parents’ will</td>
<td>52,4</td>
<td>47,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To find a partner or a spouse</td>
<td>19,0</td>
<td>42,1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: authors' own source

The most significant motive is for both boys and girls to "learn to make the necessary acquaintances and connections." The least important is "my parents want it" and "to find a partner, spouse". Moreover, It was evident that in the group of the boys establishing necessary relations and acquaintances during the study process was more important for those of them whose parents had higher levels of education (levels 4 - 6) in comparison with those who were the same age but their parents had education of a lower level. A similar inference can be made for boys and girls whose motive was “in order to find work abroad”.

The motive of obtaining the diploma about education from families with lower (the first – the third type of families) education levels of parents is more important for girls, than for their peers from families with high levels (the fourth – the sixth) educations.

Analysis of reference points of the choice by youth of educational institution: "the convenient arrangement", "gives a good education", "it is easy to come to him", "my
friends have come to him", "there are necessary communications for receipt", "this prestigious educational institutions", etc. – has allowed to reveal accurate dependence on family type.

For the boys: the higher their parents' level of education is, the more important the prestige of the institution is for them (81.1% - 85.7% of "very important" and "important" responses for graduates from families of levels 4-6, with 71.4 – 78.9 % of these responses for graduates from families where parents have the lowest level of education (1-3). For the girls from all the types of families the prestige of the chosen institution is even more important than for the boys, but there was no evident dependence on parents' educational level (88.5% of responses –for the first type of families; 82.1% - for type 6).

A higher education level of parents is more significantly for girls than for their contemporaries from other types of families, opinion of parents is important ("my parents want this") at the choice of desirable educational institution (29,5 – 38,7% of answers against 19,2 – 34,2%).

The Third Research Question

It is expedient to consider the impact of parents' educational level on the occupational aspect of their children's education-choice strategy. The graduates' value hierarchy of study continuation shows that the first places (as it was mentioned above) are taken by value orientations which are directly associated with the sphere of future occupational activities. Table 3 shows what is the most important for young people from families of different types in their choice and assessment of their own occupational activity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is of significance for you in assessing an occupation/</th>
<th>Graduates by gender</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Levels of parents' education</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It provides for a good income</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>90.5</td>
<td>97.5</td>
<td>94.1</td>
<td>96.6</td>
<td>93.6</td>
<td>95.4</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>95.2</td>
<td>98.8</td>
<td>96.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It gives you levels of power and control</td>
<td>54.5</td>
<td>47.6</td>
<td>52.5</td>
<td>82.4</td>
<td>66.1</td>
<td>62.8</td>
<td>61.2</td>
<td>53.8</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>60.5</td>
<td>46.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It requires a high qualification (intellect, creativity, etc.)</td>
<td>72.7</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>85.0</td>
<td>64.7</td>
<td>84.7</td>
<td>85.9</td>
<td>81.4</td>
<td>69.2</td>
<td>61.9</td>
<td>85.2</td>
<td>93.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is recognized and respected in the society</td>
<td>72.7</td>
<td>81.0</td>
<td>77.5</td>
<td>70.6</td>
<td>86.4</td>
<td>82.1</td>
<td>80.6</td>
<td>80.8</td>
<td>85.7</td>
<td>81.5</td>
<td>87.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People need it</td>
<td>90.9</td>
<td>81.0</td>
<td>80.0</td>
<td>76.5</td>
<td>91.5</td>
<td>82.1</td>
<td>84.4</td>
<td>76.9</td>
<td>90.5</td>
<td>84.0</td>
<td>87.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is easier to obtain</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>47.1</td>
<td>47.5</td>
<td>32.1</td>
<td>37.6</td>
<td>53.8</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>21.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One can always find a job having this occupation</td>
<td>81.8</td>
<td>81.0</td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td>94.1</td>
<td>86.4</td>
<td>79.5</td>
<td>81.9</td>
<td>73.1</td>
<td>90.5</td>
<td>84.0</td>
<td>68.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is in demand in any country</td>
<td>81.8</td>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>87.5</td>
<td>70.6</td>
<td>89.8</td>
<td>79.5</td>
<td>81.0</td>
<td>65.4</td>
<td>81.0</td>
<td>79.0</td>
<td>75.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It makes one independent</td>
<td>77.3</td>
<td>61.9</td>
<td>77.5</td>
<td>82.4</td>
<td>84.7</td>
<td>85.9</td>
<td>81.0</td>
<td>69.2</td>
<td>81.0</td>
<td>80.2</td>
<td>71.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: authors own source

Both for young men and for girls it became the most significant reference point of the choice of future profession – future income. Moreover, it is even much more significant for girls from families where parents have got lower levels of education. The value
"Importance for people", taking the second place in the general hierarchy of assessment of occupations and professions for boys, turned out to be independent from parents’ level of education.

For children from families with a higher level of education of parents, the prestige of the profession is more significant (more typical for families of boys), activities requiring highly qualified training, the demand for professions in the country and abroad. For them it is important to choose the occupation that will allow them to be independent, give them the levels of power and control (it is very important for the boys).

The lower the level of education of parents, the more important it is for girls from these families to choose an occupation that is easy to attain and that is respected in the society.

Thus, families with much higher level of education give reasons for their children to strive for attaining education that will enable them to be engaged in work, which is prestigious, wanted in the native country and abroad and which will allow them to be independent and to have levels of power and control.

The impact of parents’ education on value orientations of boys and girls in their choice of educational and occupational strategies is also confirmed in analysing their orientation at their life goals (see table 4).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is important for you?</th>
<th>Graduates by gender</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Girls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Levels of parents’ education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5  6 total</td>
<td>1  2  3  4  5  6 total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To attain good education</td>
<td>45,5</td>
<td>57,1 55,0 64,7 61,0 61,5 58,6 46,2 66,7 64,2 71,9 73,2 70,5 67,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To get a well-paid job</td>
<td>72,7</td>
<td>71,4 67,5 82,4 71,2 70,5 71,3 80,8 57,1 76,5 67,6 78,7 74,4 74,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To make up happy family</td>
<td>68,2</td>
<td>76,2 75,0 76,5 67,8 70,5 71,3 69,2 71,4 66,7 68,8 64,3 67,9 67,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To start my own business</td>
<td>27,3</td>
<td>9,5 35,0 41,2 42,4 41,0 36,3 34,6 23,8 28,4 25,0 28,6 34,6 29,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To become wealthy</td>
<td>50,0</td>
<td>33,3 27,5 41,2 35,6 39,7 37,1 30,8 28,6 22,2 21,9 21,4 24,4 23,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be engaged in favourite activity</td>
<td>63,6</td>
<td>66,7 67,5 70,6 71,2 74,4 70,5 57,7 57,1 74,1 59,4 71,4 71,8 68,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To make my career</td>
<td>59,1</td>
<td>42,9 50,0 76,5 55,9 57,7 56,1 61,5 52,4 56,8 53,1 62,5 55,1 57,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To visit other countries</td>
<td>45,5</td>
<td>28,6 40,0 64,7 44,1 56,4 47,7 46,2 57,1 45,7 50,0 51,8 60,3 52,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To bring up good children</td>
<td>81,8</td>
<td>81,0 77,5 82,4 78,0 83,3 80,6 76,9 81,0 76,5 84,4 73,2 79,5 77,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To live a life not worse than that of other people</td>
<td>31,8</td>
<td>38,1 60,0 70,6 47,5 42,3 47,3 46,5 47,6 43,2 40,6 46,4 38,5 44,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To have friends who are friends indeed</td>
<td>63,6</td>
<td>66,7 75,0 82,4 74,6 71,3 70,0 53,8 52,4 51,9 43,8 57,1 69,2 56,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To live honestly</td>
<td>45,5</td>
<td>47,6 62,5 41,2 62,5 47,4 50,6 53,8 42,9 49,4 50,0 44,6 51,3 49,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To have an interesting job</td>
<td>59,1</td>
<td>71,4 55,0 88,2 67,9 60,8 76,9 57,1 76,5 85,6 89,6 76,9 72,8 72,8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: authors’ own source

The Fourth Research Question

Let us consider only those goals that are directly related to the choice of the level of education and profession. Their hierarchy for the boys is as follows: 1) “to be engaged in activities I love most” (74.4%); 2) “to get a well-paid job” (70.5%); “to have an
interesting job” (67.9 %); 4) “to attain good education” (61.5 %); 5) “to make my career” (57.7 %); 6) “to start a business of my own” (41 %).

It should be noted that all these goals, viz., engagement in activities that are most appealing to one, an interesting job, engagement in business, were highlighted by the response “I shall do my best to achieve my goal”. It was most often given by boys from highly educated families (type 4-6).

As for the girls the most important goals were: 1) “to get a well-paid job” (74.5 %); 2) “to have an interesting job” (72.8 %); 3) “to be engaged in activities that are most appealing to one” (68.7 %); 4) “to attain good education” (67 %); 5) “to make my career” (57.1 %). For them their own business was of no importance at all (only 29.9 % of responses). The impact of their parents’ education is clearly traced by such female graduates’ goals as “good education” and “activities that are most appealing to one”; the female respondents from highly educated families are ready to attain them with great persistence.

When examining the opinions of graduates about what factors and to what extent they influence the enrollment in a university, it became clear that the hierarchy of these factors for both boys and girls is almost the same. In the first place there is a high score in the unified state examination (92 – 94 % of the responses “very important” and “important”), further on there are “calling, abilities”, “thirst for knowledge”, “self-preparation”, “possibility to pay education fee” (rank 5 for girls, rank 6 for boys; this is the most significant difference, 11.6 %). The lowest ranks (11-12%) are taken by the following factors “it is necessary to live in a big city where there are higher education institutions” (45 – 47 % of responses) and “interrelations, acquaintances” (43 – 51 %). The medium-position is occupied by the factors “the good school”, “a small competition at the higher education institution”, “awards for Olympiads”, “studies with tutors”, “studies at the preparatory courses” (they are all within the range of 55 – 61 % of the “very important” and “important” responses). Nevertheless, parents’ education affects the formation of graduates’ ideas of the significance of certain factors (see Table 5).
The results of polls have shown that dependence between education level of parents and perception of children that are necessary for successful entering a higher education institution calling, abilities, existence of interest in knowledge acquisition isn’t observed. The importance of finishing the good school to enter a higher education institution successfully is higher for children from families of type 1-4 (lower levels of education) and it is lower for graduates from families of type 5-6 where parents have higher or secondary specialized education.

As the level of parents’ education grows (from level 1 to 5), the significance of preparatory courses increases (from 52.4 to 67.3 % of responses), and it is only for those graduates whose both parents have higher education that this factor is of minor significance (50 % of responses). So is the situation concerning studies with tutors and awards at Olympiads. For boys from the families where the parents have higher education it is more important than for boys of their age from families with the lowest education (level 1-2) to live in a big city where a higher education institution is located.

The value of a high score for the Unified State Exam is important for children from families where parents have a higher level of education.

As for the impact of parents’ education on types of children's preparation before entering an educational institution the findings are presented in table 6.

Table 6. Impact of parents’ education on the choice of preparation for entering educational institution by graduates in %

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of parents’ education</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Girls</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>581</td>
<td>535</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>67.9</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>72.8</td>
<td>68.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>64.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>62.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>57.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: authors’ own source
The value of additional training is more significant for children from families where parents have higher education. According to table 6 (see table 6) the most obvious differences by the sort of preparation are seen in relation to “studies at preparatory courses”: both for male and female graduates if their parents have higher education a number of those who take these courses is half as much as a number of those whose parents have lowest education (boys-32.4 and 20.0 % correspondingly; girls – 36.8 and 23.1 %). Studies with a tutor are also chosen more often by children from families of highly educated parents.

Discussion

The historiographic analysis has shown the growth of the importance of higher education for school leavers in the Novosibirsk region over the past 20 years (76.7% in 1994, 81.1% in 1998 - 91% in 2014). The value of secondary specialized education, on the contrary, decreased (17.5% - 1994, 15.2% - 1998, 5.5% - in 2014) (Konstantinovsky 2008: 153; New meanings ..., 2015).

As a result of the study, we came to the conclusion that there is a relationship between the level of education of parents and educational strategies chosen by high school students. This influence is most noticeable in a group of girls.

We can say that the parents’ education appears to be a socially differentiating factor.

The youth whose parents have much higher level of education are mainly orientated at the higher education with the diploma of master than bachelor or that of a specialist. They almost do not plan studies at educational institutions of primary professional training. Secondary specialized education is chosen mainly by children from families where parents have low level of education.

Girls from families where parents have good higher education almost do not plan to study at evening courses or take correspondence courses.

The analysis of the values in relation to the choice of the educational strategy showed that for all school leavers, the acquisition of education is seen primarily as an opportunity for further professional development.

For students from families with a high level of education from parents, study is more important as an opportunity to expand social contacts, they consider the future profession in terms of its prestige in society, demand in Russia and abroad, the opportunity to become independent and even gain power.

For young people whose parents have a lower level of education, obtaining a diploma is the key to finding a job and earning an income. Differences in the perception of the value of education are ultimately due to the different attitudes of youth, formed, including by parents, with different levels of education. So for children whose parents have a higher
level of education is more meaningfully quality education, interesting work. As the level of education of parents decreases, the children’s orientation toward the value of achieving financial well-being increases.

Conclusion

The revealed relationship between the education of parents and the educational strategies of young people, as well as the values of education and profession that form in it, make it possible to justify the construction of forecasts for the educational plans of future generations. The young people currently educated in the near future will broadcast their ideas about the value of education for a new generation of Russians. In this regard, the development of not only predictions based on the revealed regularities, but also a preliminary analysis of the possible options for the development of Russian society, already allows us to develop and implement educational programs that will not only increase the value of education but also affect the quality of professional training and activities of Russian citizens.

References


Services for Students with Disabilities at the University of Debrecen. Structure and Experiences

Andras Berenyi, Mihaly Fonai & Edit Szabo

Abstract

The study presents and analyses the student support services of the University of Debrecen. Its aim in addition to the presentation of the institutional structure and functioning services is to describe the special needs of students with disabilities. The article defines these needs with respect to the field's literature and research background. The study describes the operation and experiences of the Centre for Mental Hygiene and Equality of Chances, and analyses the research results of the Graduate Tracking System. The analysis is mainly a case study, which presents the operation of the university's support centre. Within the frameworks of the Graduate Tracking System the research at the university applied questionnaires and interviewing techniques. The main results show, that students with disabilities are familiar with the support services of the university, and use some of them. Jobseeking trainings are important as well in case of graduate students. The main finding of the analysis of the support services is that the students involved considere the informal modes of personal support the most important. Altough they use the structured support services, they criticize them.

Keywords: academic abilities, equal education, learning problems, opinions and expectations, student with disabilities, services for support

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Introduction

The data obtained from the 2011 Hungarian census revealed that almost 5% of the population (490,578 persons) suffer from some kind of disability (Central Office for Statistics, 2011b). Providing occupation for the part of population in question substantially lags behind the Western European level. In present-day Hungary 65,581 persons with disabilities are provided some kind of occupation (13.4%), which is merely one-fourth or one-sixth of the Western-European standard of activization of disabled people. The afore-mentioned data is highly related to – besides the characteristics of the Hungarian labour market – the way the Hungarian education system works. Among the students with disabilities there is a significant number of those, who have graduated from a secondary school (20, 9%), nevertheless this number is lower than the one related to the entire population (49%). And the numbers are similar in case of higher education graduates, respectively (total population 19%, people with disabilities 9.5% Central Office for Statistics, 2011a). The regulation of Hungarian higher education, with the intention of making it easier for the persons with disabilities to get registered, resulted in the fact that from the mid 2000’s onwards there has been an increase in the chances of disabled people to be included in higher education (Students with Disability, 2009).

In the corresponding age group, among the 20-24 year olds, 3473 people with disabilities had high school diplomas in 2011 - they are those who may continue their studies in higher education. In recent years (2011–2015) out of them 1100-1300 persons have gained admission to some kind of higher education institution. For several years of the 32,000 students of the University of Debrecen around 160-230 indicate that they have some type of disability, thus they lay a claim for support allowed by the Hungarian Law on Higher Education (Law on Higher Education CCIV of 2011). The University of Debrecen started the „Program for Mental Hygiene“ in 2001, which has operated from 2010 onward under the name Centre for Mental Hygiene and Equality of Chances under this law. The present study summarizes the experiences of the work performed by the above mentioned Centre.

Research Question: Problems, which Students with Disabilities Encounter

The activities performed by the Centre for Mental Hygiene and Equality of Chances are to a high extent determined by such factors that keep the students with disabilities away from higher education; as well as by those that make it harder for them to carry out their university studies.

There are numerous obstacles in the way of disadvantaged students who intend to join higher education, either for lack of capacities or due to insufficient courage. These obstacles include: (1) the lack of removal of physical barriers around the institutional buildings, (2) the want of parental support, (3) the role played by public education, (4) the hardships arising from public transport or (5) certain financial problems. Any of
these obstacles can make it more difficult for a disabled students to get integrated. This group is obviously not homogenous because the members suffer from various problems that arise from a great diversity of disabilities (Andrasne, 2009; Banfalvy, 1999).

The most significant problem of the disabled students is the lack of environment free of barriers. Its difficult for them to move about university buildings, therefore they often need physical help. Even if any kind of removal of barriers takes place, this may not comply with the requirements of students with disabilities, and this causes additional problems. The situation of the students at the University of Debrecen is fairly favorable from this point of view, because most of the buildings are free of any physical barriers. Owing to the considerable distances, transport between the various campuses may prove problematic, although the students may claim for special transport services within the framework of Point of Support Office.

The visually impaired persons are in a rather disadvantageous situation considering knowledge acquisition, as a result of which they may fail to become well-informed in time on either their study affairs or the opportunities arising from these. Both their studies and lives can get greatly relieved by various pieces of equipment, such as „laptops”, „digital dictaphones” and „scanners”. It would help a good number of students to be allowed to record lectures on dictaphones, nevertheless not all instuctors tend to consent to the students’ doing so. It is sometimes well beyond the students’ means to buy computers and readers’ softwares. For this reason the University of Debrecen provides for students with disabilities an opportunity to borrow laptops and dictaphones free of cost. Beyond all these, they can utilize free scanning and printing opportunities, and in case of written examinations they can use a Braille-printer in the library as well. The visually impaired students are usually allowed to use computers in their written exams, or they can replace written examinations with oral ones. Gaining knowledge is the most significant problem for the hearing-impaired students, due to the fact that it is difficult for them to take notes. In most auditoriums or lecture-rooms there are microphones, although currently they are out of use, because of the insufficiency of the acoustics. The application of induction loops and appropriate sound technology would provide them further help. The persons who are hearing-impaired mostly request the relevant coordinators (instructors concerned with student affairs) to give them exemption from either any obligatory language learning process or taking any language examination.

The language-based learning difficulties include ones who suffer from dyslexia, dysgraphia, dyscalculia or disability of speech. For them considerable support is provided by the availability of digital learning materials or various initiatives related to examinations (e.g. the replacement of an oral module with a written one or the opposite). At the University of Debrecen, the authors of the present study can lend a hand to the students to put the various kinds of accommodations into action. The faculty coordinators of impairment affairs keep an everyday contact with both the students and the instructors.
Although they do not actually belong to the category of students with disabilities, and are not at all denominated by the Law on Higher Education, those suffering from other kinds of diseases like epilepsy, diabetes, and persons with transplanted organs can also lay a claim for our services.

Method

The present study is mainly descriptive, it describes a specific institution’s support services and its structure. Consequently it is a case study, including the generalizational options of the method.

In addition to the analysis of the institution, the case study also applied the questionnaire and the interviewing method. The questionnaire based research means an online query within the frameworks of the national Graduate Tracking System (GTS) at the University of Debrecen. The models of this reasearch are the students and graduates of the university, including disabled students. 8% of the population answered the online questionnaire, along with 23 disabled students. In the GTS questionnaire, personal interviews were made with students with disabilities, with 8 people who volunteered to do so.

Results and Discussion

Support for Disabled Students

Similarly to those of the universities in Western Europe, the leadership of Debrecen University, first in Hungary, called into existence a „Program for Mental Hygiene“ in 2002, with the objective of professionally lending a hand to the students with either mental problems or disabilities, in the course of both their studies and lives. In 2002, in accordance with the Law on Education (Law on Higher Education LXII of 2002), the University Council accepted some rules and regulations entitled „Preconditions for the Equality of Chances Necessary for the Students with Disability to Carry Out Their Studies (Rules and Regulations of the University of Debrecen for the Equality of Chances an Treatment at the University of Debrecen. Debrecen, 25 June, 2015).” Support for the students with disabilities is provided within the framework of the Centre for Mental Hygiene and Equality of Chances (DEMEK in Hungarian), formerly Program for Mental Hygiene). In the course of their studies the students can use the following opportunities: 1). in some cases they may ask for additional time to prepare for their examinations, 2). they may replace their oral examinations with written ones or vice versa, 3). they may get exemption from certain practical subjects, 4). they may apply for either technical or personal help and 5). in cases required by the law they may get exemption from certain parts of the language examination requirements/

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So far, in the domain of removal of physical barriers, the University of Debrecen has complied with the relevant rules and regulations. It intends to carry out this duty even further on (ramps, dormitory rooms with removed obstacles, computers free of barriers, removal of barriers of info-communication). In 2004, the University won a competition entitled „Procurement of Technical Equipment for Visually Impaired Persons that Help Acquiring Knowledge”; due to which the University came into the possession of both a Braille-printer and a special software. The Central Library Building provided place for the mentioned equipment. The University is awarded per capita supplementary grant after each student with disabilities. The amount of the grant is regulated by the Budget Law. The grant can be used to improve the material conditions of disabled students, to help them in their studies or to aid them in their everyday affairs.

Support and reaching out for the students is carried out by coordinators of disability affairs at each faculty. The faculty coordinators provide help mainly in the arrangements for study affairs.

In Point of Support Office (this Office is part of Centre for Mental Hygiene and Equality of Chances) the students can make use of a fairly good number of services (see: 3.1. point). All services are coordinated by the Centre for Mental Hygiene and Equality of Chances regardless of provider, with the participation of such partners as the Point of Support Office, or the Mental Health Association–Youngsters for the Youth). Besides, the registered students can be awarded with additional scholarship.

At the beginning of each semester, students with disabilities can get registered to the Program of the Equality of Chances at the University of Debrecen, by filling out and handing in the „Equality of Chances Form” (with the necessary documents and certificates attached), this is important because only registered students can utilize the services and receive exemptions. his

Estimating the exact number of disabled students who pursue their studies at the University of Debrecen has some difficulties, since not all the students with disabilities undertake their impairment before the public, thus, not all of them get registered at the Centre of Mental Hygiene and Equality of Chances. So, in the following we can only describe those students, and their problems, who contacted the centre and filled out their registration. Currently 232 students with some kind of registered disability are pursuing their studies at the University.

At the University of Debrecen the number of students with some kind of registered disability, is represented by the following table (Table 1), broken down in accordance with the type of disability and the faculty they attend (2016/2017 academic year):
The majority of the students with disabilities take part in state-financed, full-time education. There is no proportional difference between students with disabilities and students with no disabilities with respect to being part or full time, and to the ways they are finance (e.g. state-funded students or fee-paying students).

**Services for Students with Disabilities**

On the grounds of a treaty of cooperation with the University, the Mental Health Association—Youngsters for the Youth upholds the "Tampons" Support Service, for whose functioning cars are provided by the University. The task of the Service is to provide the following services for the students: arrangements for social affairs, psychological consultation, consultation of mental hygiene, arrangements for leisure time activities and transport.

It is an objective and at the same time a mission of the "Tampons" Support Service to disabled students in their own homes or living surroundings to lead a self-sufficient lifestyle (doing so within the framework of personal help), to aid their mobility and active participation in social life by providing a transport service, to provide information on the services relevant to the students with disabilities or on various laws or institutions. The persons we provide for are the young persons of the University of Debrecen, aged 18-35, who are either visually impaired, hearing impaired, disabled or have several kinds of disabilities.

**Transport Service.** To comply with the requirements, the service helps students with special requirements to access public services, as well as various health and social provisions. The transport service can also be used for leisure time and cultural activities,
as well as accessing various institutions. Transportation is carried out by a specially equipped car, which is suitable for wheelchairs too.

**Home Care, Personal Help**

The Personal Help Service lends a helping hand for disabled people, e.g. to satisfy their various needs of hygiene, lifestyle, maintenance of life, e.g.: fulfilling the basic tasks of care and nursing, prevention of crises and solving such situations, help in the preservation of personal hygiene, cooperation in the housekeeping (by Point of Support Office).

The provision of help always takes place tailored to the individual needs, according to a plan and focusing to the area to be developed. Development takes place on the grounds of individual plans of care and development; the injured functions become strengthened and developed in a way that builds upon the capacities already present. The provider of personal help, in the course of fulfilling his/her tasks, lends a helping hand so that the various physical, mental and social requirements of the person in need will all become provided for.

**Counseling, Information Provision**

This provides information about events, services, benefits related to the students with disability from a database which is continuously updated and extended. In so far as it is beyond the means of the service to present the relevant pieces of information, it might help the client to contact a competent professional. The service carries out arrangements for certain affairs, gives advice, provides support in disability affairs, procures technical equipment for medical care, etc. The service is free of cost.

**Service for Taking Notes**

In October 2008, a pilot project was started under the name „Rochester program“, which is an organic conclusion of the nation-wide preparatory research that has been carried out in recent years. Based on the recommendations of the experts participating in the program, the first program to be tested out of the services for help was the service for taking notes, which gives great relief for the hearing-impaired students in their studies. Further objectives set by the persons who created the initiative itself and by those who organized the implementation have been: – on the basis of examples presented by the USA National Technical Institute for the Deaf (Rochester)–, to prepare for the adaptation of the note-taking service that help the hearing-impaired students, to assess the relevant requirements, to carry out the process of adaptation itself (mainly by means of training and education); to launch the modeling program, and finally to gather and analyse the experiences.

Within the frameworks of the program, the University of Debrecen has become the first in Hungary to be selected for creating a model for the note-taking service. It is
fundamentally important for the students at the University of Debrecen who are either totally unable to take notes or with a limited capacity to do so, to become provided with a service for taking notes. For the first time in Hungary, the authors have arranged this service with the support of Public Fund for the Equality of Chances of Persons with Disabilities, and with the contribution of “Tampont” Support Office of Mental Health Association.

The service for taking notes means that a person both prepared for and trusted with this task puts in writing the information that is vocalized in the lectures and seminars for the students who do their university studies in such a way that they are either totally incapable of note-taking by themselves or their capacity of doing so is limited. In the notes all the learning material and other pieces of information have to be found, such as certain tasks, advertisements and the dates of the examinations, too. On average, the service for taking notes is made use of by 10-15 students per year.

Course on Sign Language

At the University of Debrecen, from academic year 2008-2009 on, as an optional module, students can sign up to an A1 level course on sign language. The development of the course on sign language has been taking place within the framework of a project of high priority entitled „TAMOP 5.4.5. Development of Professional Background for Removal of Physical and Info-communicative Barriers”. During the first year, the Public Fund for the Equality of Chances for the Persons with Disability provided both the education program and the instructors, while the organization tasks were fulfilled by the Centre for Mental Hygiene and the Equality of Chances. Ever since, at the beginning of each and every semester the Centre mentioned has been organizing a Forum on Sign Language for the students, and has been advertising an optional 50 hours course on sign language in two groups. For those who are graduates of the A1 level sign-language course, an A2 level course has also been advertised. So far, nearly 200 students have graduated from the sign-language course.

Job Seeking Techniques for Students with Disabilities

Within the frameworks of a tender we organized a job seeking techniques training at the University of Debrecen. The objective was that students with disabilities participating in the training can draw up as well as implement such individual career plans that are compatible with their personalities, capacities, fields of interest and last but not least - the labour-market demands; with special regard to the knowledge of looking for jobs (It was implemented in the „TAMOP” project (n. 4.1.1.-08/-2009 0003.) The aim was that students with disability will be given help and support in the course of looking for jobs, by providing them functional and utilizable knowledge (which could not be acquired in the process of traditional university education), and also letting them know about the most recent technics of looking for jobs (“Job-hunting”) (Rajnai, 2002; Ritoók, 2002).
Theoretical Grounds of the Training

The hypothesis of the training’s method is that a person looking for a job is capable (or can at least be capacitated) to function more and more by himself/herself, and increasingly efficiently in the course of looking for a job, without too much reliance on any public employment organizations.

The best method of learning by doing is problem–based learning, in the course of which -by giving presentations of the problems arising from everyday life in a situational manner,- the participants get to know how to cooperate, and at the same time develop their own skills of communication. The participants in the training process have to reflect on both their own behaviour and that of their fellows, which raises an opportunity for them to acquire efficient and appropriate ways of feedback. In the course of the training process various technics for individuals, couples, small and large groups were used.

The main objective of the training is that the disabled students who lack the necessary self-assurance and properly firm selves for looking for jobs should be provided help. The training offers a both well- structured and challenging environment for the participants, in which they can develop both their capacities and self-assurance, in the process of acquiring knowledge of looking for jobs.

Arranging the Training

On the topic of training contacted disabled students who were active during the „project“ and who had graduated in any of the previous there years. The workers of “Tampont” Support Office at the University of Debrecen gave telephone calls to the students and let them know about the objective of the training. The students responded positively to the contacting and undertook participation. Some students refused participation in the training because they had already found a job or because they lived too far away from Debrecen. 16 persons took part in the training, which took place in the Office for Mental Hygiene at the University of Debrecen, which proved to be fairly suitable for the special claims laid by the training.

Methods of the Training

In the course of the training several methods were applied so that complying with both the participants’ capacities and requirements would be as intensive as possible.

Individual Consultation. Before the training, an individual interview took place with every participant, taking a survey of both their level of motivation and special requirements. The use of this method proved necessary several times during the training process, so that each student would get personal support while giving solutions to his or her situation.
Large Group Consultation. On such occasions the theoretical items of knowledge were spoken about, with an opportunity for participants to ask questions and making comments.

Small Group Consultation. On several occasions as many as three small groups became formed, in whose framework there was an opportunity to put into practice the items of theoretical knowledge spoken about during the large group consultations, mainly in the process of situational exercises.

The Result of the Training

By letting the students with disability know about the various technics and methods for job seeking, labour market conditions, the employers’ habits, it has become easier for them to find appropriate jobs.

The training group provided the students who lacked the necessary self-assurance with a type of atmosphere which was both relaxed and safe enough for them to try their capacities in special situations and which allowed them to develop both self-knowledge and knowledge of their own lines of profession. Their level of activation was increasing, their self-assurance became more firm. Their personalities became more well-balanced, their general feeling and mental state underwent a process of improvement, too.

The participants were provided help to make a decision on which line of profession, career would be the most suitable for them, at the same time to assess what was to be done to achieve their objectives. They became more motivated by gathering strength even from one another, and their technique of looking for jobs was transformed and at the same time became more sufficient by the fact that the persons in question got rid of some unfavourable habits arising from their disability. Besides job seeking information, various conflict handling methods and opportunities were discussed. During the training process special emphasis was laid on talking about special situations arising from the phenomenon of disability and also on practicing the ways of solutions for these.

Some Empirical Experiences from the Graduate Tracking System

In the questionnaires used in the framework of the Graduate Tracking System (the number of total sample was 2460 capita (see on research: Fonai-Puskas-Szucs, 2012; Fonai-Kotsis-Csomas, 2012). there were five questions related to students with disabilities. The objective was, based on the replies of both the students and the graduates, to get to know the special situations, requirements and problems of the students with disability better (Berenyi-Toth, 2012). As a matter of course, replies for the questions were made optionally, and the authors provided the highest level of anonymity while handling the answers. Besides, the authors also interviewed some students with disabilities, so as to gain an even more comprehensive picture of their life circumstances.
From the interviewees of the University of Debrecen, 1 % (23 persons) replied to questions in the questionnaire relating to disabled students, which was exactly the number of students who indicated they had disabilities. Among those who replied to the question on the type of disability, 5 were disabled, 5 visually - impaired and had dyslexia, 3 persons were hearing-impaired and 1 had dyscalculia. More than a half of the students with disabilities felt that their situation was rather disadvantageous mainly in the fields of studies and entertainment. One - third of the respondents reported that their disability proved to be a disadvantage in the domains of partnerships and arrangements for everyday affairs. Disabled students were most of all satisfied with the instructors, the other students and the removal of physical barriers around institutional buildings, while they were less satisfied with the safeguarding of interests and the faculty coordinators (The coordinators are responsible for organizing study support at faculties). What the students in question were mainly dissatisfied with were the activities of the Registrars Department and the Committee for the University Students with Disabilities (the committee elaborates principles of operation and coordinates student support at university level). While leading their lifestyles and doing their studies, students with disabilities can principally rely on their parents, friends and fellow- students.

Disabled students feel that the various nonprofit organizations, churches and instructors carry out the least intensive activities while providing them with help. It seems important to make the remark that it is merely every third disabled students who turns to a professional to ask for help. This means that the information for the students with disability on what kinds of help the support services can provide should become more updated and at the same time more detailed.

Summary of Experiences from the Interviews

Eight volunteering students were interviewed from the University of Debrecen in the frameworks of the Graduate Tracking System. The interviews covered the experiences of disabled students in public education and higher education, including support services and their specific problems, which arose during their studies. Although the method we used and the low number of the respondents allow limited generalization, the answers show the potential, more general problems.

Public Education

Problems get started as early as at a kindergarten age, when the parents - mainly in rural areas - cannot have their child with disability registered at any integrated school. Many of them have not been able to find an appropriate secondary school, because they have proved unable to get physical access to the secondary school buildings (due to physical barriers). Therefore the choice of several of them has fallen on secondary

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16 Research results of Wohlfart was taken into account (Wohlfart, 2005).
schools which have been established right for the sake of persons with disability. These schools all set lower demands, therefore their students tend to fall behind their peers. For this reason, students with disabilities usually try to get registered at universities later than those with no disabilities.

Teachers have a significant role in a young disabled person’s choice of profession. In some cases the teacher facilitates the student to continue their studies, nevertheless sometimes it might occur that a teacher refuses to allow a student with disabilities to take the school-leaving examination.

In the course of the above-mentioned conversations it also turned out that it was not at their home settlements where the students in question had left primary school or had graduated from secondary school, but usually in large county centers or in Budapest. The students were usually registered at places where opportunities were provided for the persons with disability indeed, and either the related information had been getting round, or choosing higher education institutions had taken place on the advice of organizations for safeguarding of interests.

Higher Education

The first problems arise from the fact that the great majority of the students asked meet their healthy peers (with no disabilities) for the first time on entering higher education, which makes their integration even more difficult.

The disabled students and the hearing-impaired and visually-impaired most frequently choose further studies in the direction of some kind of information technology. In such cases, it happens very often that sentences like the following ones can be heard: „It was not this I wanted to achieve”; „My intention was quite different”; „I have not become whom I would have liked to”.

Contacts with Those Providing Help

In the beginning, the students are rather distrustful with everyone else, and for this reason they do not use the different assistance options. Therefore, it would be favorable for the faculty coordinators to initiate contact with the students in question. A precondition for this is that the coordinators should be properly prepared, otherwise it is often not clear to them what sorts of special requirements the students have. An example for this is the stereotype as follows: „Not all disabled persons sit all day long above their books because of being unable to do anything else”.

A few students with disability have a student provider of help, lending a hand to his/her or her fellow during his or her daily activities or learning. The salary of student help providers is regarded as highly important, which indicates holding his or her help in high esteem. The interviewed disabled students usually would have liked to get in touch with their fellow students. This was true for not just the university groups but also of
their wider surroundings too. In this case people would know when and how to help, and when there is no need for their intervention at all.

Several problems arise from the high number of students, because the students with disability, as a general rule, are not acquainted with one another. Their main concern is their own succeeding, and under the pretext of the lack of time they will not make any effort to maintain relationships with their fellow-sufferers, also failing to put faith in the efficiency of any cooperation. Almost every student is a member of some kind of - usually national - organization, relevant to his or her kind of disability. As a general rule it is characteristic of the students that they have „grown into” this kind of membership, too, although most of them do not take any active part in safeguarding their own interests.

**Specific Problems Arising from the Different Types of Disabilities**

The problems related to the studies of disabled students are specific to their disability, which must be taken into consideration when providing help. Beyond the question of removing physical barriers, it is very important to mention the possible occurrence of mental obstacles, too. The persons asked tended to think there was no way to struggle with any mental obstacle if the physical barriers themselves did not get removed; because if a disabled student was reduced to physical help (especially in cases when other persons would have been able to act by themselves), these others would not treat the person with disability as a self-sufficient person with values equal to their own ones.

It is an ever-recurring difficulty in the buildings that the lifts - that other persons also use - are often out of repair, and that the lifts do not stop at every floor, so it is not all the floors that someone can gain access to by lift.

Hardships occur both when travelling by train and when ordering train tickets. A person with no disabilities can do so just by telephone, a person with disability, has to take the ticket in person before getting on, has to go to the station by taxi or to ask someone else to take the ticket. And, travel by taxi in most cases costs more than travelling by train to someone’s home village or home-town even 100 kilometers away, with a students’ ticket. The preconditions for travel (order for tickets, the accessibility of the train free of barriers) rarely allow the students to get home, so of course the chances to keep up family relationships worsen.

*The visually impaired students* can gain very few pieces of information, because for example, examination points of time and other pieces of information of public interest cannot be placed on any advertisement board for them. So, they are left in uncertainty, and they are always reduced to someone else’s helping hand. („What you do not know, does not exist at all”). They feel others raise the expectation that they should merely choose such professions that are suitable for them, for example that of a masseur or a switchboard operator.
In the lectures learning materials are projected. In such cases either understanding or taking notes, even after recording, proves impossible (if for example sentences like „this line is drawn here, and if this sum is added to this, we will get this and that” should sound).

In cases of teachers’ majors it causes a dilemma whether a visually impaired person can become a teacher or not. There is a need for quite a long process of either reconciliation of interests or legal help so that a visually-impaired student can get a teacher’s degree. For the persons in question transport proves to be highly difficult, because at lots of places there are no leading lanes on the pavements, which would make it easier for them to find their way. The situation of those who were grown up in other settlements or finished their studies elsewhere and therefore can identify almost nothing in the town where they start their university studies, is especially disagreeable.

During the interviews made with the hearing impaired students the hearing aids did not always seem to make it easier for them to communicate. The reason for this is that such pieces of equipment financed by the social insurance are not of fairly good quality, while some pieces of equipment of better quality would be unpayable for the students. Deaf people find themselves in an even more difficult situation. First of all, they have to learn lip-reading and sign-language. The latter is easier for them to carry out, although it is beyond their opportunities to communicate with their own immediate surroundings. The students consider an integrated kind of education to be the proper solution. In teaching speech the various teachers, speech therapists and parents should play a considerable role, too. On the lack of having learnt to speak, the students may feel they have no chance to succeed in life. Some difficulties arise from learning foreign languages and gaining certificates of foreign language examinations. The students have the opportunity to take language examinations in writing, which can take rather long periods of time. In a deaf students’ opinion „It is not good if two deaf persons become partners. This brings about decline in the capacity of speech.” Both sign-language and speech are important for someone’s success in life. There are certain organizations for safeguarding of interests that facilitate merely the use of sign language.

Dyslexia, dysgraphia are invisible, unrecognizable kinds of disabilities, which the students tend to keep secret. Although, as regards the various life-stories, the careers of people with dyslexia or dysgraphia can be traced from as early as a kindergarten age, it is highly characteristic for them that they encounter some difficulties of study, typical exchange of letters, some problems with understanding texts and understanding as a whole, and study slower than the average, although they usually have an excessively high level of intelligence. They tend to undertake having a problem before the public just when they face the requirements of language examinations (it is a prerequisite for the diploma in Hungary). The instructors tend to think this is merely a pretext, a way out, because the student in question has fairly good records of study. What is more, such students’ records of study have always been fairly good, except for example that their marks from Hungarian language have been perhaps worse than those of their peers.
There is a great deal of firmness and industry in the students in question, and several times they do their studies with resorting to help.

**Removal of Barriers**

During the interviews, the students, with no exception, gave voice to the problems of removing physical barriers. They were not merely the disabled persons who felt concerned with this, but those with other kinds of disability did so, too. They together formulated the opinion that it was the field of human attitudes where there was a need for some change to take place. Besides the removal of physical barriers, a kind of psychic obstacle-removal should also come about, namely as a result of view-formation. In the focus of the problem, there is the topic of failure to remove barriers. Several students with disability feel his or her legitimacy under threat, since it is lots of times that they are confronted with remarks made by those with no disability. The students with disability also suffer from the fact that because people, as a general rule, do not catch sight of them using means of public transport, people might think the students with disability do not exist at all. For example, lots of difficulties arise from the way ramps are built, from the placement of parking places for the disabled persons, from the building of parking places, from putting mirrors in the toilets for the disabled persons, etc.

With a few exceptions, gaining physical access to the facilities for entertainment, restaurants, pubs often causes difficulties for the students with disability.

**Undertaking Jobs**

Students with disability are far more troubled with undertaking jobs than those with no disabilities. Notice can be taken of the fact they usually start looking for jobs right at the beginning of their studies, to get to know where they will work in 3 or 4 years’ time. The students’ choice falls on the places of work in accordance with neither their fields of interest nor their line of profession. Instead, firstly they tend to observe „how many steps are found at the main entrance”, or they hand in their application just if a worker with specially reduced ability to work is being searched for.

In lots of cases, it can be experienced that a great number of employers refuse the applicant if it has come to light that he or she is a person with disability. On the occasions of telephone conversations a potential employer may break the communication with no explanation, or at best may reject the applicant with the expression of deep regret.

**Conclusions**

In the present study, different services disabled students of the University of Debrecen may use were discussed in detail. The provision system proper functions in Hungary as a unique model, in which the provision of mental hygiene and social support, the state-owned higher education system and a nonprofit organization, namely Stength of Mind
Association jointly provide a fairly complex system of services for the students with disability. Picture of the various service functions can be outlined partly on the grounds of the kinds of training, partly on the basis of the opinions expressed in various informal situations.

On the topic, someone can draw highly significant conclusions from a questionnaire of „Graduate Tracking System” and from the related interviews as well. After analysing the results, we can get a more detailed picture of the problems, relationships of the students with disabilities, their relationship to the world and to themselves, their various requirements and life-strategies. By having carried out such an analysis, the authors made a successful approach to a more complex and more profound understanding of the disabled student’s situation; which can serve as a basis for a more reasonable and more deliberate support for them. Based on the experiences and research results the support and inclusion of disabled students can be developed in the institutional, formal field.

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Mental Problems in Adaptation of HE Students - Organizational and Individual Model of Coping with Adaptation Problems among Students

Marzanna Farnicka

Abstract

The article presents the effects of the author's work in a psychological aid centre for students. On the basis of her own experience and the activities of other universities, the author intends to propose an organizational system and intervention strategies among students who encounter problems with coping with duties involved in Higher Education. The main topic will be students' problems and their needs during HE. The life and education situation of students with special needs (depression, adaptation, professionalization, identity and behavioural problems) will be presented and analysed. Clinical and social models addressing these problems will be presented. These two models of support for students with special needs are focused on improving the quality of teaching and the development of students by the use of specific methods such as mentalization, mentoring, coaching, trainings, therapy and teaching social skills among regular students and Erasmus exchange students.

Keywords: adaptation, coping, optimization, student mobility

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**Introduction**

In today’s changing world, with the pressure on achieving success constantly growing, mental health is a very important and delicate issue. Concentrated on their expectations of constant optimization and ever-raising efficiency, students fail to notice important psychological problems in their functioning. Instead of psychologists and therapists, they search for coaches, personal trainers or developmental, communicative or motivation training.

**Mobility as a Need and Challenge**

For young people, the period of studies is the time of developing interests and pursuing passions in various areas of life. This process is fuelled by knowledge gained during lectures and classes and facilitated by meeting various people. One peer group is substituted with another. That period also brings changes in family relations. Young people become more independent and exercise their right of making independent decisions (Brzezińska, 2002). At that stage of life, family social or religious values are revised and some of them become noticeably more important at the beginning of adult life (early adulthood -Bee, 2004, or emerging adulthood – Arnett, 2011).

Academic mobility referred that in the 2012-13 academic year, 268,143 students went to another European country to study or train, which represented a year-on-year increase of 6%. With this new record number of student mobility the Erasmus target of supporting three million students by 2012-2013 had been reached. Compared with the latest available data on the size of national student population, in 2011-12 the highest numbers of outgoing Erasmus students in relative terms were reported in Luxembourg, Liechtenstein, Latvia, Lithuania and Spain (Raport Europe, 2015, Feyen, Krzaklewksa, 2013)

**Problems with Mobility – What is the Issue?**

Those who have decided to pursue university education face changes in their environment and form of learning. Evaluation and verification, hitherto regularly provided to a student, is now replaced with feedback delayed in time (examinations, tests). The contacts between the ‘master’ (teacher) and the ‘pupil’ (student) also change, and the crux of that change is that now those contacts are to be initiated by the student. The student is free to choose the classes s/he attends and persons with whom s/he comes into interaction. In some students, that new situation creates the sense of abandonment and chaos. Back at school, the assessment system was a regular source of information about the student's performance and an indication of improvement resulting from his or her learning process. At the university, that type of regular feedback is no longer offered and students are expected to adequately judge the situation for themselves and act accordingly. Lack of proper understanding of a new learning environment leads to functional disorders and sometimes results in learning
difficulties, abandoning studies, or has even graver psychological consequences, such as depression or attempted suicide.

The survey made by Białkowska, Mroczkowska, Zomkowska, Rakowska (2014) showed that every 8th student was exposed to the occurrence of a depressive episode. Therefore it is advisable to conduct extended psychological research and diagnose reasons of depressive episodes in the group of students. Focus on the problem of students who taking up higher education beyond their home places were analysed by Szlendak and Lemska (2010). These problems involve personal difficulties and keeping single-handed households. Moreover, deficiencies of aid units responsible for helping students in personal, material, cognitive, organizational and adaptation spheres were discovered. According Sanchez, Fornerino and Zhang conducted a survey among 477 students from the United States, France, and China (2006). This survey suggests that the students who study in these three countries face family barriers, financial barriers, psychological barriers and social barriers. The psychological barriers are related to aspects such as homesickness or fear of the new environment; the social barriers usually are related to friends and family. Different students experience those problems to different degrees. Klahr and Ratti (2000) emphasized in their research the importance of the inadequate recognition of the academic year structure and subject organization. Moreover, insufficient foreign language skills are considered another big barrier for most mobile students, not only the credit mobile students. In order to show conditionings of barriers of student mobility Souto-Otero, Huisman, Beerkens, de Wit and Vujic made comparisons between participants and nonparticipants Erasmus program (2013). Based on large data set on Erasmus and non-Erasmus students in seven European countries they recognized two main problems; financial and personal. They also suggested a two-pronged approach to cope with them and in consequence increase the mobility of students. The first should focus on better information and communication with students and the second on stressing the benefits from Erasmus mobility. In this paper the short survey was presented. The main object of the case study was focused on conditionings of coping with stress connected with adaptation in two situation: the first year student and in Erasmus exchange situation.

The Scale and Examples of Problems among Students

In response to those functional problems, many universities have opened psychological aid centres for students. The official Psychological Aid Centre or sometimes called Career Centre offering advice and support to students. The services they offer include: diagnosing the nature of the problem, providing psychological support or training and referral to a therapeutic centre.

In psychological center for students in Zielona Gora the most frequently diagnosed problems among students are adjustment disorders (45%) among first year students and problems with coping with stress during the first and the last examination session (30%) (years 2012-2015). Another frequent (15%) diagnosis is problems connected
with traumas related to the family of origin or family of choice (unplanned pregnancy, domestic violence, breaking up with a partner). A small group (10%) of those seeking help report pre-diagnosed conditions such as depression, schizophrenia, anorexia, anxiety disorders, or are victims of accidents or crimes. Another group of clients in these centres are Erasmus exchange. In most cases they do not contact the centre themselves; it is usually the exchange supervisor who asks a centre employee to undertake an intervention or contact a student in need.

Cases of the Problem Studying out of Home

Below were presented two cases of young male students from Support Centre at the Zielona Góra University. In the first case, grave adjustment disorders have led to a suicide attempt. In the second case adjustment disturbances were fairly quickly diagnosed and resolved. Bringing the cases of those two men into attention seems important due to differences among countries and people, and mobility as a trend in higher education.

Tomek, aged 19, first year student, winter term, study outside home

The student began to skip classes in November. He only attended when he was required to take tests. After three weeks of absence his teacher, following the procedure that was in place at that University, contacted the dean’s office and the group prefect. The student was found and directed to the Centre, where he reported loss of control over body weight (gained 8 kg within 2 months), problems with establishing personal contacts with other students in his group, sense of cognitive helplessness and fear of failure. The student employed avoidance mechanisms, i.e. he did not attend classes, academic events or group meetings. He was sleeping most of the time. He stopped going home for weekends in order not to confront himself or others with the problem. In January, when the winter exam session was approaching, he reported suicidal thoughts. He was asked to contact a psychiatrist as soon as possible; unfortunately, he did not do that. Within a week he reported a failed suicide attempt. An ambulance was called and he was taken to hospital.

Imhar, Erasmus exchange student, aged 21

Imhar came from Turkey, being the only Erasmus student from his country. When choosing the country and city, he had been aware of cultural differences and the possibility that there would be no other Turkish students there. He had also known that the language of communication would be English only. He came three weeks later than other students, at the end of October. After two weeks of his absence from classes and avoiding the foreign co-operation office, he was contacted by the exchange supervisor, who talked to him and took him to see a psychologist from the aid centre. At the centre, the student reported problems with adaptation such as lack of appetite and longing. He was beginning to experience sharp cultural differences and felt that his needs connected with food, religion and feeling of loneliness were ignored; as a result, he began to withdraw from the social life, telling his supervisors (also fellow-students) that he was busy preparing himself for classes. Incredible as it may seem, his problems with food stemmed from the fact that he expected to be eating the same fruit and vegetables as in his native country, despite the fact that he had moved to a different climatic zone. He also began to experience problems connected with absent-mindedness. He left a water tap running and went to the park for the whole day. When he returned home, his room was flooded. He lost his keys, and soon after that he also lost his documents.

When he started to attend the classes again (at the beginning of December) he began to experience difficulties in communication – his English proved to be insufficient to match the expectations of his teachers, and his own needs. Then he started to communicate with the teachers through a translator.
Both examples show the way in which problems connected with the change of the learning environment (in both cases resulting from a voluntarily made decision) may influence the functioning of an individual. The same elements may be seen in both cases: a new environment, change of one’s social circle, being cut off from the family, pressure on success and feeling of loneliness. The result was the deterioration of social and cognitive functions. At that point it is worth reminding that every difficult, stressful situation triggers the process called ‘coping’ that governs emotions, controls the manner in which the world of inner and outer experiences is perceived and protects the image of self or other important persons (Heszen-Niejdek, 1991, p.19). Such situations require reorganization of internal psychological structure and activation of resources, and therefore may ‘force’ successful coping enabling better adjustment to the situation. Still, one should remember that the same circumstances may also trigger an unsuccessful coping reaction that may have grave consequences (functional disorders).

Analysis of the Problem Studying out of Home as a Difficult Situation

Psychology distinguishes three types of situations (difficult, stressful and crisis) in order to differentiate between the reactions to those situations and describe them. All these types may be treated as relations between an individual and his or her environment. Each constitutes a psychological burden for the individual and its evaluation is highly subjective. The term ‘stressful situation’ has different meanings. It may be described as a certain condition of a human organism that occurs in response to a negative event in the person’s environment (often called a ‘stressful situation’) or to demands put on the individual. By describing it in that manner, the physiological nature of the adjusting process is emphasised. After Selye (1977) three stages of physiological reaction to stress can be distinguished:

- alarm reaction stage, involving specific and non-specific changes resulting from encountering a stressor or the undertaken reaction and protection attempts,
- resistance stage, in which the organism defends itself better and better and learns to live with stress,
- exhaustion stage, which is the result of the organism’s reduced ability to resist stress.

However, in the contemporary literature the relational approach to stress prevails. This approach does not treat stress as a result of external factors or internal processes, but rather as a special type of relationship between individuals and their environment in which the individual appraisal of the situation is what matters.
A difficult situation occurs when the inner balance of the ordinary situation is disturbed so that the ‘probability of the realization of the task at the normal level decreases’ (Tomaszewski, 1978, p.32). We distinguish five types of difficult situations: deprivation, overburdening, threat, difficulty and conflict. The types and characteristics of particular difficult situations are not mutually exclusive but co-exist. For instance, the situation of overburdening and difficulty occurring when parents with normal hearing find about the disability of their child influences their perception of the reality. This may cause conflict between the hitherto cherished values connected with parenthood and the ones that currently become important. According to T. Tomaszewski (1978), stress occurs as a reaction to difficult situations and it lasts longer than the situation that has triggered it.

Situations in which an individual is no longer able to cope become crisis situations. Stressful and difficult situations can be endured without any intervention from the outside world. However, when a person is unable to cope with the situation for a prolonged period of time, feels helpless and finds out that the methods of coping usually employed become ineffective, an adjustment disorder or other disorders are diagnosed. It also becomes evident that outside help is necessary. As the situation is abnormal, it requires reorganization of behaviour, reinterpretation of the reality and resorting to one’s own resources. Various spheres of life are changed, relations with the family are damaged, and contacts with the circle of friends get limited. The person affected feels certain somatic symptoms and moods that make her or him feel lonely and sometimes guilty. Sometimes the adjustment disorders are diagnosed. According to ICD 10 adjustment disorders is a subjective state of emotional disturbance and strong stress that occurs when an individual tries to adjust to new life situations or after negative, stressful events. The important thing is that those disturbances are diagnosed when the triggering situations do not exceed the boundaries of ordinary human experience, yet are major, significant life changes (logos, 2014). ’The most typical events that give rise to adjustment disorders include: loss of parents or spouse, emigration, beginning a new school, retirement, becoming a parent, i.e. those that involve a significant change in life, alter plans for the future or change the individual’s social environment to a considerable degree. Symptoms include low mood, sense of helplessness, emotional tension, worry, anxiety, sometimes behavioural disorders. Those symptoms significantly impair or even prevent the correct fulfilment of social roles, or even everyday routines.’ (logos, 2014). One can say that a functional disturbance occurs in a specific difficult situation in which problems and impaired functioning are expected, and one is also expected to cope quickly and return to the optimum condition.

How to Help in Coping with Problems? – Challenges

The literature distinguishes two basic functions of coping. The former is an instrumental function consisting in changing the situation through the change of behaviour or change of environment. The latter is regulating emotions, i.e. controlling the somatic and subjective constituents of emotions so as not to allow them to disturb the social and psychological functioning of an individual (Heszen – Niejodek, 1991). According to
Lazarus, three categories of coping mechanism can be distinguished (1980). The first one comprises appraisal-focused strategies, i.e. those coping mechanisms which involve the change of mindset or a revision of thoughts. Denial is the most common coping mechanism under this category. The second category is connected with problem-focused strategies, i.e. those that modify the behaviour of the person. A good example of this is learning how to cook a family dinner knowing that your spouse’s family would come over to your house this weekend. The third category contains emotion-focused strategies including the alteration of one’s emotions to tolerate or eliminate the stress. Examples include distraction, meditation, and relaxation techniques.

In order to come up with effective aid, one should bear in mind that the coping process always relates to a specific person in a specific situation. This means that the choice of a certain mode of action depends on the qualities of that person and situation, and the effectiveness of provided aid also depends on the same factors. It should be remembered that the coping process may be changed or modified ('re-valued') under the influence of certain situational factors and psychological processes, but it may also modify certain psychological processes (cognitive evaluations). In order to understand the situation of the coping person one should take into account: 1) his or her personal situation (age, social and financial status of the family, emotional maturity, self-awareness, self-confidence, degree of personal control, a system of religious and philosophical beliefs) and earlier experience connected with coping during the time of life transformations and crises - the realization of earlier developmental tasks; 2) factors connected with the change of social environment, 3) characteristic features of the individual’s social and emotional environment (family ties, relations with friends, distance from the family, communicative skills, ability to get social support). According to Smith (1989, 1999) the most important thing is work with self-efficacy, assertiveness, locus of control, self-esteem and social support. Another one is spreading precise and positive information. A good example of this is the student book prepared by one of the universities (http://esn.org/studentguidebook). The challenge is to set up the aid model which will first of all offer access to information, not only about the student life but also about available aid and support services. Academic staff members should also have the information accessible in order to be able to tell their students where to look for help and what the scope of this help would be.

Therefore, aid activities should aim at searching and obtaining social support for the student, making him or her feel understood and able to take control over the situation and perceive it as ‘making sense’. This should be achieved through the exchange of emotions and information and through opening up the possibilities of real-life actions and change of the situation (Sędek, 2006, Taylor, 1983). The aim of all those activities is to regain self-esteem, self-evaluation and reconstruct the concept of ‘self’ in a given environment (Sędek, 1991, Dudek, 2006). Processes that should be activated when offering support to a person who is trying to cope with adaptation problems include: – logical analysis of an event, – cognitive redefinition, – cognitive avoidance or repression,
– seeking information and support, – problem-focused activities, – seeking benefits stemming from the situation, – affective regulation (emotional release), – confrontation with reality and responding to the needs of the situation, – maintaining contacts with the family, – preservation of the image of ‘self’ and sense of competence (Moos, Schaefer, 1986).

Conclusions

In face of modern mobility processes it seems that in the future, due to globalization processes (mobility) but also increasing demands related to own achievements, more students are likely to need psychological assistance and support in coping with problem with adaptation. For that reason, the number of cases should be analysed and monitored and the overall demand for such services assessed. A detailed analysis will only be possible when those institutions (aid centres) become organizational units at the university or faculty level.

One element is proceduralization of psychological aid and co-operation with a medical facility, if only to arrange for free-of-charge emergency visits. For financial reasons, the operation of university aid centres is based on voluntary service or duty hours of academic employees, but co-operation with another (healthcare) centre will allow for redirecting patients whenever necessary, not merely informing them about the existence of these options and leaving them to their own devices.

Another challenge is the way in which HE institutions handle organizational problems connected with operating aid centres. Those centres are staffed with volunteers working short and infrequent duty hours. The offered help is basically informal, although professional; yet all the certificates must be issued by a competent healthcare institution and this is where students are referred. In order to minimize the shame and resistance, students often obtain services anonymously or screening workshops are organized at which individuals are selected and encouraged to contact the centre for a more in-depth analysis. In Finland there is an Internet-based service for depressed individuals; unfortunately, that project is carried out in the form of a research grant, not a permanent form of work.

Each of the above-listed challenges touches upon the question of providing funds for the activity of aid centres. A question arises whether those centres are indispensable elements in the structure of a HE institution or rather an ‘added value’ based on the enthusiasm of HE staff. Each of the universities mentioned in this study had a different idea and organizational structure in that respect. The most common model was a grant-based one (a centre operating as part of a project) or one based on volunteers’ work or earmarked subsidies (in which case the target group was most often first-year students).
References


Commitment and Preparedness of the Pre-service Teachers in Hungary and in Slovakia

Edina Kovacs

Abstract

Related to commitment and preparedness of teachers we can see similar questions and problems all around in Europe. It seems that women’s high rate among the students in teacher training, academic achievement, which we can measure by grades or other indicators, and the commitment to the teaching profession are strongly connected to the image of teachers, the status of the teaching profession, and the expectations to the future to be teachers. So the first part of the study overviews how gender of students affects academic achievement and career choices. The second part of the study examines the database created in 2015 – supported by International Visegrad Fund – which includes the data of pre-service teachers studying at the Catholic University in Ruzomberok and at the University of Debrecen. My results show that that the image of the teaching profession is different in the two countries: we need further researches to tell what the exact differences are. The study also shows that the Hungarian students evaluate some dimensions of the teaching profession more positively. There are two important aspects: the prestige and the financial opportunities which are better in the opinion of the Slovak students, but these are not affecting their commitment at the first place. The male students in both countries are less attracted to teaching, and the reason cannot be only the relatively low pay, because there were no differences between genders in this item. Instead of it, there are several dimensions – including satisfaction with the teacher training and the vision of future professional development – together are the reasons that male students find other professions more attractive.

Keywords: higher education, pre-service teachers, gender

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Introduction

The emphasis on the examination of the effectiveness, and commitment of students who are participating in the teacher training, has increased in recent years. Seeing the similar problems and issues throughout Europe, it appears that the expectations and features of the teacher role were shaped by social, economic and political processes that more or less took place at the same time in a similar way in the Euro-Atlantic countries.

Sometimes the most successful students leave the teaching profession: countries with successful education systems have been already selecting students at the admission of the teachers training. The less successful ones can only select when it comes to employing the newly graduated teachers. However it's obvious that the preparedness of teachers and their ability is a determining factor in education according to local and international analysis. (Mourshed and Barber, 2007; Sagi and Ercsei, 2012). Every third teacher, whom the students are being working together, would be somewhere else, but in school. This is also a problem, because if the young ones leave the teaching profession, they never develop the complex pedagogical knowledge (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2012).

We see three phenomenon that are not so independent from each other: women’s large scale appearance on the labor market, instead of working in family farms as was common in the past, occupations changed in structure between the two world wars, new professions appeared after the Second World War, as well as public and higher education expansion. The appearance of women as teachers of lower levels of education meant that the kindergarten teacher and the primary teacher’s role contained primarily feminine attributes: it emphasizes the importance of personal attachment, concern and caring.

In the current teacher role there is a huge emphasis on the care for children, the well-developed social skills, and instrumental equipment knowledge that enables the teachers to teach heterogeneous groups. However, in one of Szabo’s researches that was carried out among school principals she states, that in relation to the teacher’s ability to assertiveness, in the descriptive model of reality. It appears rather bluntly that the teacher’s ability to assertiveness is not incompatible with social values. Figula, while examining current teachers, came to the conclusion that this profession is rather chosen by people who have repressive personality traits. These people have a dependent interpersonal attitude and they repress their aggression. They are also looking for loving interactions, they are tolerant and sociable however, they counter their negative impulses (Figula, 2000; Szabo, 1998; Szabo, 1997).

This should not be ignored when we examine students involved in teacher training. The high rate of women among the students, their academic achievement – or other measurable indicators – their efficiency, the probability that they leave or stay are not independent from the teacher’s image, the status of the teaching profession, or the expectations for the future teachers. That’s why we review further, how gender affects
students - and later in-service teachers – in their career and social effectiveness, and that the impact of what other features should also be considered in this regard.

In our earlier research studying new entrant teachers, we found that based on their grades, there is no difference between the academic achievement of education major graduates and non-education major graduates finishing their studies in 2007, 2008 and 2010. However, a particular tendency was displayed, namely that regardless of their gender, education majors seem to follow a feminine career strategy. More specifically, in the education major sample, both the percentage of graduate students and students planning to acquire an additional degree were higher, whereas, significantly fewer students intended to continue their studies in a PhD program (Kovacs, 2012; 2013) which is a tendency typically characterizing women. According to Fenyes (2009), women prefer acquiring additional degrees in order to have more cultural capital, however, they do not intend to continue their studies on a higher level of education, namely in a PhD Program.

In the case of education majors, the development of further indicators of achievement, such as competence, clearly has a major role since the knowledge and skills necessary for the teaching profession are complex. Based on some studies, this complexity includes, for example, cooperative skills, self-understanding and determination. Fonai claims that this strengthens the process of deprofessionalization. He refers to Etzioni’s interpretation that as for feminized professions in general, but helping professions in particular, the attributes of typical female activities were transmitted to the profession itself. Besides, the traditional subjection is presented with the phenomenon that in this dimension, the given profession is classified only as a semi-profession not as a profession (Etzioni, 1969; Fonai, 2012).

This can be an explanation for the status-loss of the profession since though founded in a different perspective, the relevant literature consistently claims that the core value and expectation of the teaching profession is caring, which is also perceived as a general expectation during teacher training. However, in Ireland, caring as a core value of the profession is even included in the Codes of Professional Conduct. Caring is often presented as an ethical dimension and/or interpreted as responsibility for the quality of relationships. In addition, reflected in traditions and stereotypes, caring is rather identified with the female gender (Drudy, 2008; Weiner, 2001).

Examining of excellence, we have to mention some studies note that besides academic performance, there are other factors, such as institutional embeddedness and satisfaction with both the training and teaching practice that influence teacher attrition. Consequently, even though the statement that better performing students leave the teaching profession is valid, it is undoubtedly simplified (Bruinsmaa and Jansena, 2010; Pusztai, 2012). In addition, the interpretation of achievement is also problematic: does it exclusively refer to academic performance or we should take into consideration other academic activities and certain competences, as well?
The Characteristics of Teachers in Hungary and Slovakia

As we have already mentioned, the teaching profession-related phenomena and problems are quite similar in all European countries, despite the fact that although sometimes there are only small differences, there can be significant differences that we can observe between the culture and education system in the countries. In the case of Hungary and Slovakia regarding the situation of the education system and the teacher’s state we can recognize many similarities.

The education systems of the two countries even during the time of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy – while the two states were parts of the same empire – formed and developed similarly. In the 20th century both the country’s educational system developments were influenced by the operation of the typical socialist states. Therefore, due to the weakening of the system a very significant education reform was launched in Hungary in 1985 and in Slovakia (then Czechoslovakia) in 1986.

In the 1990s such uniformity effects were no longer valid: Slovakia - after an independent Czech and Slovak state formation – for a few years placed great emphasis on strengthening the national character of education, and in Hungary the new national curriculum was created for public education.

However, we can still see the similarities rather than the differences, due to the expansion of education, accession to the European Union and participation in the related programs, and then the introduction of the Bologna system (Kosova and Porubsky, 2007).

One of the most significant parallels is shown in the teacher’s salary: the table below (Table 1) shows the wages of the entrant and the wages of teachers with more than 10 years of teaching experience, in some European countries. It can be seen that there is only a little difference between the wages of kindergarten teachers and primary school teachers, whoever secondary school teachers as entrants or after years and years of teaching can expect better wages in the majority of countries.

Between the beginner and experienced teachers’ salary the average difference is one and a half, which is true in the case of Slovakia, while in the Hungarian secondary education the possible salary is almost doubled. Comparing the Visegrad countries that are in a similar situation, both the Hungarian and the Slovakian teachers’ salaries are average, but significantly lower than the OECD and EU average.
Table 1. Teachers’ salary in 2013, in euro

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kindergarten</th>
<th>Minimum wage</th>
<th>Maximum wage</th>
<th>Primary Education</th>
<th>Minimum wage</th>
<th>Maximum wage</th>
<th>Secondary Education</th>
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<th>Maximum wage</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OECD average</td>
<td>28 057</td>
<td>43 448</td>
<td>28 854</td>
<td>45 602</td>
<td>31 348</td>
<td>50 119</td>
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<td>EU 21 average</td>
<td>28 386</td>
<td>43 273</td>
<td>29 123</td>
<td>45 001</td>
<td>31 738</td>
<td>50 175</td>
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<td>17 497</td>
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<td>22 083</td>
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<td>22 236</td>
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<td>40 119</td>
<td>29 418</td>
<td>46 060</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>35 881</td>
<td>50 770</td>
<td>35 881</td>
<td>50 770</td>
<td>40 308</td>
<td>56 536</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Education et a Glance 2015

The situation is similar when we look at the teacher’s unfavourable age composition, or the decrease regarding the attractiveness of the profession, and in the challenges of teachers such as the information explosion or the changing parental expectations that they need to face as well. The teaching profession image can be characterized by the following: it is consisting primarily of resignation, passive resistance to change, lack of preparedness against the individualization of education, the fear of losing the job and the acknowledgement of the low prestige of the teaching profession (Engler et al, 2014).

The teaching profession is chosen by students with the similar attitudes in both countries. In Slovakia in addition to gender, the socio-economic background plays an important role: the childhood of pre-service teachers are characterized by a caring family background and an interest in other people. 27 percent of them had a teacher in the family (Hanesova, 2014).

In Hungary, more research is showing that the pre-service teachers, whether women or men, significantly value helping others more than the high income among other work values. The relationship is stronger between the students who are practicing to be lower-level teachers. The choice of academic subject field is an affecting factor as well. The result of a research that was carried out at the University of Debrecen, the ideal professional according to the art students who are in the teaching major, is knowledgeable, flexible, wise, helpful, empathetic and successful in interpersonal relationships. In contrast according to the science faculty students with teacher majors, the emphasis is on the fact that ideal professionals have practical knowledge, has the ability to synthesize knowledge and has good language skills, while being flexible and helpful were also considered important. (Fonai, Marton and Ceglédi, 2011).

Characteristics of Hungarian and Slovak Students in Teacher Training

Aim of this study to compare the Hungarian and Slovak students who are studying at the University of Debrecen and at the Catholic University in Ružomberok. Based on the literature, we assumed that there will be no significant differences between the students neither in the two countries nor in their commitment neither in their achievement. The
male students of both countries tend to plan to leave the teaching profession, but this is affected not only by gender but their perception of the teaching profession and to the satisfaction of the training as well.

The database of this research was made in 2015. The questionnaire contained three main blocks, in addition the independent variables. The first block measured their thoughts about teaching profession and their aims. The second block measured their beliefs about the prestige of teaching profession and their achievement. The third block measured their satisfaction with teacher training. During the analysis, I primarily used cross-table analysis.

The situation of to the two higher education institutions is similar. The University of Debrecen is at the Northern Great Plain region of Hungary, located 226 kilometers from the capital. The Catholic University in Ružomberok is in Central-Slovakia, located 262 kilometers distance from the capital. There are other teacher training colleges or universities 50-60 yards from both institutions, but both universities have great regional catchment area (Figure 1). Students of the Catholic University in Ružomberok mainly come from Central-Slovakia, but about a third of them from East-Slovakia, and slightly more than 10 percent of them coming from West-Slovakia. Most part of the students of the University of Debrecen come from Hajdú-Bihar and Szabolcs-Szatmar-Bereg county, but there are students also from Heves, Borsod-Abaúj-Zemplén and Jász-Nagykun-Szolnok county. There is no significant effect to West-Hungary, but some students also come from these areas. At the same time it cannot be ignored that Debrecen is the main town of Hajdú-Bihar county, so there are students who come from a „main town”, although we can see the migration - mostly to the capital and mainly concerning the students with better academic achievement (Cegledi and Nyusti, 2011; Engler et al, 2014).

Figure 1. Teacher education Institutions in Hungary and in Slovakia

Source: own edition
During the research were asked the students in teacher training of both institutions. In Hungary this means students in Master Education, and those students in Bachelor Education who have taken 50 credits module necessary for future teacher master programs and the students of undivided teacher training. In Slovakia this means both the Bachelor and Master students in teacher education. The entire sample consist 204 students from Debrecen and 130 students from Ružomberok. The results are not representative, hence, the statements cannot be generalized to the education major of these countries, yet I consider that they support a more thorough understanding of the topic and mean a good basis for future comparative research. I focus on gender dimension, so it was important that the gender ratio be representative. Among the students in Debrecen: 71.4 percent of women, 28.6 percent of men, while in the sample 73 percent of women, 27 percent of men. Among the students in Ružomberok 79.8 percent of the students are women, 20.2 percent men, and in the sample: 80.9 percent women and 19.1 percent men.

The average age of Slovak students is 22.8 years. 65.4 percent of students have participated in BA and 34.6 percent of them in MA education. The average age of Hungarian students is 22.7 years. 41.4 percent of students have participated in undivided training, 14.8 percent of them in BA, 43.8 percent of them in MA education.

In connection with these facts we have to keep in mind two things: students who study in the Bologna system can choose at the end of their BA education while students who study in the undivided teacher training already made their decision and it can affect their commitment. Another important difference between the higher education system of the two countries that students with kindergarten majors can take part in BA education in Slovakia and they can continue their studies in teacher MA which is not possible in Hungary. The Hungarian kindergarten teacher education is done separately. Previous researches show that Hungarian students in kindergarten teacher education have worse cultural and financial background than the other students with education majors (Kovacs, 2014).

The highest level of education of mothers is typically higher in case of the Hungarian students: more than 40 percent of them have higher education degree. Among the fathers is relatively large number (44.5 percent) with vocational qualifications, while three-quarters of mothers have at least graduation (Figure 2). Teacher degree has 27 percent of mothers and 7.9 percent of fathers.
In case of Slovak students I examined the parents of students with kindergarten majors separately, because of the Hungarian differences mentioned earlier. The results show that – according to the previous Hungarian cases – the parents of students with kindergarten major have lower education level than the other students. Fathers of the students in teacher training in both countries have similar finished education level (Figure 3), but among the mothers of the Hungarian students have more who have higher education degree. But there are more parents with PhD in the Slovak sample (Figure 4). Teacher degree has 9.1 percent of mothers and 3.1 percent of fathers.
The financial background of the students is quite similar (the question was what they think about the financial situation of their family now, and when they were 14 years old). “Better than the average” were chosen by more Slovak students than Hungarian students, and there were no significant differences between the students with kindergarten major and the others (Figure 5). So the students in BA with kindergarten major have not the same characteristics than the Hungarian students in kindergarten teacher education.

![Figure 5. Financial situation of students' family (%)](image)

About the township: the ratio of students from small town and from larger cities is similar in the two countries, as it was expected, knowing that students from surrounding regions get to these institutions. The 12.5 percent of Hungarian students come from main town of a county: this confirm the drain-effect of the capital. None of the Slovak students live in a main town or capital, and the difference is filled with students coming from villages, so the two extremes are quite different between the University of Debrecen and the Catholic University in Ružomberok.

**Correlations between Students’ Achievement and Commitment**

Graduation outcomes of the Hungarian students are a little bit better, but the difference is less than a half credit: on a 5 grade scale (1 means poor and 5 means excellent) average of Hungarian students is 4.6, and average of Slovak students is 4.3.

There was a question about the most important aim of higher education in the questionnaire. The students can choose practical or comprehensive knowledge, or professional knowledge and guidance to social or cultural issues together. Also asked what they thought about other students' opinion, so we can tell how much they think others see their studies really intellectual education. Based on this, the Hungarian students have more traditional image of higher education: the most important aim of higher education is the comprehensive professional knowledge transfer to them and more than 20 percent believes that the university has to guide in social and cultural issues too. In addition, they consider this is less important for other students. This means that they see themselves in more intellectual role than other students. In contrast,
the Slovak students are more practical, they want professional knowledge transfer. However, they believe that other students prefer a comprehensive professional knowledge, or wider knowledge transfer (Figure 6).

*Figure 6. Students’ opinion about the aim of higher education (%)*

Probably not unrelated that the Hungarian students are more successful in academic competitions than the Slovak students. Although take part on the national or regional competitions can be affected by distance of a city or village, application to a school competition only depends on the intention of a student – and maybe his or her teacher. The participation rate is higher among Hungarian students, it seems, this is more important for them (Figure 7). There is no significant difference by gender in both countries; activity of men and women is similar.

*Figure 7. Taking part and ranking on academic competitions (%)*

More Hungarian students had applied to teacher training at the first place: 75.4 percent, this ratio is 61.1 percent among the Slovak students. We can observe similar difference to the intention of working as a teacher. There are more Hungarian students who want
to teach at the first place. There are a similar proportion of those students who want to teach only if they get a good job and those who want some other kind of work but apply for a teacher position too in both countries. However more Slovak students answered that they do not want to teach at all (Table 2).

Table 2. “Do you want to teach after graduation?” Students’ answers (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>University of Debrecen</th>
<th>Catholic University in Ružomberok</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, I want</td>
<td>83.8</td>
<td>72.9</td>
<td>79.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No, I don’t want</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: authors’ own source, Chi square: 0.012

Another question was if they want to leave the teaching profession in the first 5 years. The middle field is similar in both countries, the big differences there are in the extremes: far more Hungarian students said to be sure to stay in the school, while many more Slovak students think that do not remain there in any case (Figure 8).

Figure 8. “Would you leave the teaching profession in the first 5 years?” Students’ answers (%)

Source: authors’ own source

The starting and the leaving the teaching profession is strongly influenced by gender, as we expected based on the literature. Surprisingly, there is no significant difference between Hungarian male and female students in the intention of starting their teaching career. But more male students think that they might leave the teaching profession later. Less male students at the Catholic University in Ružomberok think that they want to teach than female students, and two-thirds of them think that would not remain in the teaching profession (Table 3).

Table 3. Correlation between gender and leaving the teaching profession (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>All</th>
<th>Chi square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Want to start teaching career, UD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>85.9</td>
<td>78.2</td>
<td>83.8</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will leave the teaching profession, UD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>85.2</td>
<td>69.1</td>
<td>80.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Want to start teaching career, CU</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>84.9</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>72.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will leave the teaching profession, CU</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>77.4</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>69.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: authors’ own source
Correlations between Commitment and Perception of the Training and the Teaching Profession

By the literature the satisfaction with the training and the feeling of competence can be one of the most important factors which can influence the commitment. That is why I asked the students how satisfied they are with the specific components of their training. Results show that the Slovak students are more satisfied with the most components of their training than the Hungarian students. The only exception is the “preparedness from academic subject” (Figure 9). This fact does not explain why more Slovak students want to leave the teaching profession, but we can see that in case of Slovak students there are stronger correlation between their satisfaction and commitment. From the viewpoint of gender the female students are more satisfied with their training than male students, in both countries.

Figure 9. Satisfaction with specific components of the training (%)

![Graph showing satisfaction with specific components of the training](image)

Source: authors’ own source

Our previous research has shown that those students who want to teach were significantly less satisfied whit the practical components of their training. So in those cases not the excellent training was the motivation, rather the students who are strongly committed would like to gain their practical knowledge (Kovacs, 2014). This result appears in present research too: in case of Hungarian students there is only one component which correlate with the intention of teaching, and this is the preparedness from academic subject (Table 4). In case of the Slovak students the correlation is quite strong: those students want to teach, who feel well prepared and competent (Table 5).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preparedness from academic subject</th>
<th>Want to teach</th>
<th>Not want to teach</th>
<th>All</th>
<th>Chi square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not satisfied</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>0.024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>86.8</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>83.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: authors’ own source

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preparedness from academic subject</th>
<th>Want to teach</th>
<th>Not want to teach</th>
<th>All</th>
<th>Chi square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not satisfied</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>71.1</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>63.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pedagogical activity</th>
<th>Want to teach</th>
<th>Not want to teach</th>
<th>All</th>
<th>Chi square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not satisfied</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>52.8</td>
<td>30.1</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>78.4</td>
<td>47.2</td>
<td>69.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Support for learning</th>
<th>Want to teach</th>
<th>Not want to teach</th>
<th>All</th>
<th>Chi square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not satisfied</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>89.7</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>76.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Develop students’ personality</th>
<th>Want to teach</th>
<th>Not want to teach</th>
<th>All</th>
<th>Chi square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not satisfied</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>88.7</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>78.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Communication</th>
<th>Want to teach</th>
<th>Not want to teach</th>
<th>All</th>
<th>Chi square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not satisfied</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>84.5</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td>77.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professional development</th>
<th>Want to teach</th>
<th>Not want to teach</th>
<th>All</th>
<th>Chi square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not satisfied</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied</td>
<td>76.3</td>
<td>41.0</td>
<td>66.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: authors’ own source

There were 12 item in the questionnaire about the students’ aims as a future-to-be teachers. There are some significant differences, e.g. who wants to take care of students and develop their personality also really wants to teach. But there are some important items for professional development by the literature such as “follow-up of educational innovations” and “participation in high-quality professional training” – and there are no significant differences between those who want to teach and those who want to leave the teaching profession.

According to the literature, the decreasing prestige of the teaching profession makes the teaching career less desirable. That is why I would like to know what the students think about the prestige of the teaching profession. The question was: where they think their major is in an imaginary university rank. Also asked what they think about other students’ opinions (who have not teaching major). On an 8 grade scale the students of both universities evaluate the prestige of the teaching profession quite similar, although the opinion of Hungarian students is more favorable, but the Slovak students believe that the “outsider” respect better (Figure 10).
As we see above, when students were asked about their own opinion, the difference is not significant between Hungarian and Slovak students. But the Slovak students think that the teaching profession has far more higher prestige in other students mind (Table 6).

There is a list in the questionnaire which contains other dimensions of the teaching profession’s appreciation, such as autonomy, professional development and career, induction of new teachers, and the salary. Comparison of the opinion of the Slovak and Hungarian students shows that that the Hungarian students see better opportunities for professional development and influence on education policy, while the Slovak students see the prestige and the salary better (Figure 11). Based on this, the dimensions cannot explain the differences in the commitment. But if we recall the traditional image of higher education of the Hungarian students, we will understand that the better professional development and the bigger influence on education policy can lead and keep them to the teaching profession.
I also examined that any difference can be shown by gender. There is no significant difference none of these characteristics in the Slovak sample by gender, female and male students see the teaching profession on a similar way. In the Hungarian sample there are three significant differences. Female students think that the opportunities of professional development are better, the professional autonomy and political influence are bigger (Table 7). If we add to this that more male students intend to leave the teaching profession, we will see that there is a correlation between gender, commitment and the appreciation of the teaching profession, but cannot tell exactly how they interact with each other.

**Table 7. Appreciation of the teaching profession, according to Hungarian students (%)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>All</th>
<th>Chi square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional development</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>week</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strong</td>
<td>87.2</td>
<td>67.3</td>
<td>81.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional autonomy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>week</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strong</td>
<td>63.1</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>56.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence on education policy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>week</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>0.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strong</td>
<td>77.2</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>72.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conclusions**

First hypothesis was that social and cultural characteristics of the two university’s pre-service teachers do not differ significantly from each other. This is also true as regards the midrange, but the Slovakian students are coming from a slightly better financial background, although more people are coming from villages than the Hungarians, and
the parents’ highest level of education is somewhat more favorable in Debrecen. In particular there are more graduates among mothers, and within the graduates there are many who have a degree in teaching.

Although there are no differences between the students of the two countries according to the academic achievement, the students in Debrecen were more active in high school academic competitions, even in the ones that were organized within the schools. Their image of the higher education is closer to the image of the classical intellectual training: primarily the students of the Catholic University in Ružomberok expect their institution to teach practical professional skills.

This shows that image that was created of the teacher profession differs in the two countries. To detect and identify what are exactly the specifics, requires further research. But the present study also shows that in some dimensions the students of the University of Debrecen evaluated the teaching profession more positively than others.

In two important aspects: in prestige and better material appreciation the status is better according to the Slovakian students; it seems this does not affect their commitment primarily.

According to the Hungarian students the opportunity for professional development and the influence on education policy is considered significantly better, and more women think these than men. Many among Slovak students think that they do not want to find a job as a teacher, and it is also more likely that if they are going to teach, they would choose a different profession within five years. The gender has a significant impact on the attrition: as expected, men are more interested in trying themselves in other fields. Surprisingly there are no gender differences in the intention on choosing this profession, just leaving the profession is considered to be more likely among men according to the students of the University of Debrecen.

Another strong influencing factor is the satisfaction with the training: those students who consider themselves more prepared felt better about teaching and rather wanted to teach. There is a particularly strong correlation in the case of the students of the Catholic University in Ružomberok, who are more satisfied with their education than the students in Debrecen except the preparedness of the academic subjects.

While the educational situation of the two countries is in many respects similar, it seems that the teachers’ recruitment base - at least in the two regional universities that were examined – is different. Hungarian students in some dimensions grade the teacher profession as a rather classical profession, which is reflected in their expectations of the higher-education training and increases their commitment of this field of education. However, it seems that the approach of Slovak students is more practical. This is also confirmed by the fact that in their case the satisfaction with the training is significantly associated with the intention of choosing the profession. The male students in both
countries are less attracted to teaching. The reasons are not just the relatively low salaries because there were no significant differences between the genders of this perception. Rather, it is likely that several dimensions - including the satisfaction with the training, or the assessment of the latter professional development opportunities - together cause the male students to find other professions more attractive.

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Research Paper

Issues of Roma Education in Light of Interrelations of School Theories between 1978 and 1998

Peter Bogdan

Abstract

This study places emphasis on school theories, particularly on school models developed over the centuries. In consequence of that the starting points for this writing were the so-called school theories and school typologies, respectively that such publications were published by László Gáspár, Ottó Mihály and László Zrianszky, I had to start from their texts during the writing of my paper. According to the methodology used here it will be analyzed, based on the school theory (school typology) framework mentioned above, that between 1978 and 1998, in Hungary, what kind of education theory models were associated with different school types and how the models of education theory were represented in the different school types or in the “other” category (if the given educational phenomenon could not be categorized into a single school type). According to the results of the analysis: There were educational schools, work-oriented schools, traditional schools, progressive schools, revolutionary schools and market schools in Hungary between 1978 and 1998. The Kádár-regime supported the “socialist idea of man”, and thus it neglected to emphasize Roma children’s ethnicity. Still, besides the assimilating traditional school, the segregating educational school model based on black pedagogy, which took ethnicity into consideration practically, also prevailed. Moreover, the concept of integrative education, which is characteristic of market schools, also appeared in the public mind. This means that those who thought in strategies and theories of Roma education did not always follow (either in their writings or in practice)

According to the basic assumption of the research, I was referring to the people with a „Roma” label in that case, when they declared themselves belonging to the Roma ethnic group and when, at the same time, they were considered by the external environment too as Roma persons.

This study was supported through the New National Excellence Program of the Ministry of Human Capacities

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the mainstream tendencies set by the administration, but deliberately turned against them. After the regime change, the integrative education model flourished while segregation still remained, suggesting that although the current state education policy accepts the concept of no segregation, reality fails to meet expectations under the democratic system just as it did in the socialist era.

**Keywords:** school theory, school typology, theory of education, education of Roma children
Introduction

The issues surrounding Roma education are represented in Hungarian pedagogical literature in terms of education theory, management, and sociology. Experts in education theory use experimental and theoretical methods to seek an answer to the question: how can we create an environment for learning and education for Roma people that is effective from the point of view of social and labor market integration? For this reason there have been written numerous pedagogical articles that describe Roma education development programs, school experiments, non-curriculum educational and teaching forms, but in this writing they will be ignored, because one the one hand I have already summarized them from the viewpoint of the alternativity in one of my papers with the title: Innovative endeavors in the Roma education in Hungary (In: Edit Bodonyi, Judit Györgyné Koncz (eds.), Modern alternative schools. p.120. Budapest, ELTE Eotvos Publisher, 2012, pp.93-112.), on the other hand, during my present research, I was interested in: what was the relationship like between the school typologies (forming the part of school theory) and the models of education theory from the aspect of Roma children, that is, It places emphasis on school theories, particularly on school typologies developed over the centuries, and investigates the following questions in light of the history of pedagogy: 1. In the conceptual framework of the state as responsible for education, which school types were supported or tolerated in Hungary between 1978 and 1998, according to the literature? 2. What was the image of Roma people in the school typologies preferred by the state? What framework was provided for the pedagogical and public education professionals who were aiming to find a solution for the problems surrounding Roma education? 3. How and to what extent did the offered or compulsory forms of schooling affect Roma people in the practice; that is were the officially recognized school types purely privileged, or could any school model that went against the official position also prevail?

Limiting this inspection to the 1978-1998 period is justified by the historical arc of Hungarian pedagogy spanning from the 1978 reformation of the curriculum through Ferenc Gazsó’s public education act, the democratic transition in 1989-1990 and the 1993 act on public education, to the introduction of the National Core Curriculum in 1998.

Due to the broad nature of the topic (the basics of the theoretical background and relevant information on Roma people can be found in pedagogical journals from the 20-

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23 I do not use the term “school type” to mean conventional forms of organization distinguished within the compulsory schooling structure, but the “types” concluded from the organizational function, pedagogical principles and hidden curricula of a school, as it is expressed in the literature on the theory of education, particularly in the works of Mihaly.

24 In this paper the concept of „democratic transition” means that era which started in 1989 and ended in 1990. During this period the socialist Hungary became a democratic country due to the political negotiations between the representatives of the communist power and the democratic intelligentsia.
year period), the author limited the research framework as follows: The theoretical background is outlined for the 1978-1998 period, while the actual data comes from papers published between 1978 and 1987 in the journal *Public Education (Kozneveles)*. This journal was selected because it was operated by the Hungarian administration during this period, making it the forum for “semi-official” discussion regarding the education of Roma people. It is only considered “semi-official” as not only did the journal publish opinions rooted in public educational policy, but it also totally opposed “private” opinions. (This study, as an experiment of thought, is an integral part of a comprehensive and ongoing research (future dissertation) applying press history tools. At this stage of the research, the journal *Public Education (Kozneveles)* was a ministerial magazine publishing mostly quality publications that, in large number of copies, was accessed by all schools and - according to the feedbacks - was read in the “teacher rooms” in their own time. I assume rightly – and I certify it during the closing of the research – that its content proportions – according to the mission of the journal – necessarily represent the issues raised by the given years both in education policy and in education or as problems of the everyday practice, because 601 writings appeared in the columns between 1978 and 1998, which can be linked to the Roma issue in some form).

**Chapter 1 – Literature Background**

*1.a. Literature of School Theory (School Typology)*

In consequence of that the starting points for this writing were the so called school theories and school typologies, respectively that – in a philosophical narration - for the mentioned period and age such publications were published by Laszlo Gaspar, Otto Mihaly and Laszlo Zrinszky, I had to start from their texts during the writing of my paper.

The three authors did not directly address the issues of teaching and education of Roma children. In their educational policy writings these topics did not play a clearly marked role. They approached the reality on other abstraction levels, that is, they tried to formulate theoretical models for the whole history of schooling.

Despite the above mentioned facts, I consider this method to be a viable one, because in the center of the life work of all three authors were not only the struggle for equitable education and the theoretical thinking of equal opportunities, but their richly demonstrated commitment (which has also prevailed their practical and experiment leader work) as well both in terms of social solidarity, integration and multiculturalism. (Cf. Otto Mihaly, Opportunities for human quality – Pedagogical studies, p.486, OKKER Publications – Foundation for School Development, Budapest, 1999; Laszlo Gaspar, School issues, p.211, OKKER Publications, Budapest, 2003; Zrinszky, 2000).
However, it can also be stated, that the literature on school theories regarding school typology from the 1978-1998 period is remarkably poor. (Apart from the works of Otto Mihaly, Laszlo Gaspar, Laszlo Zrinszky, relevant writings are not very much found in Hungarian). The domestic books and papers on the topic outline school theories in purely general terms and do not provide any specific school typology. This only allows us to conclude the school types in an indirect way, based on individual cases as they describe a school model. Nevertheless, we can state that they did not consider the nature of their relationships with the strategies regarding the teaching and education of Roma students. Were they integrated in the general trends, or did they deviate from them? I also had to include the literature on Romani studies in order to interpret the era after the regime change\(^{25}\) (Forray R., Hegedus T., 1990; Szoke, 1998a; Szoke, 1998b; Takacs, 2009), as although these works do not focus primarily on school typology, they nevertheless suggested, expected and elaborated conceptions in school theory, the very core of which was: the Hungarian teaching and education system should be adapted in some way to the special characteristics of Roma children.

In this study, the analysis is based on the school typologies elaborated by Laszlo Gaspar and Otto Mihaly.

In his work written with Elemer Kelemen, the History of education based on problem history (Neveléstitok problématörténeti alapon), Laszlo Gaspar distinguishes three school models and provides the dates of their appearance: 1. instructional school (focusing on automatic teaching and the memorization of information), 2. educational school (taking the individual personalities of children into consideration, focusing on education rather than rote learning), 3. work-oriented school (aimed at teaching students to work).\(^{26}\)

\begin{table}[!h]
\centering
\begin{tabular}{|l|l|l|}
\hline
          & Instructional school & Educational school & Work-oriented school \\
\hline
Date      & The middle of the 17th century & The end of the 19th century – the beginning of the 20th century & The beginning of the 20th century \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\caption{School typology of Laszlo Gaspar}
\end{table}

According to the classification given by this education expert, instructional schools emerged in the middle of the 17th century, and “they might have been “progressive” in the 17th-19th centuries, but by the 20th century they had become a hindering factor that limited the full development of human capabilities due to their unilateralism and rigidity.\(^{27}\) At the end of the 19th and the beginning of the 20th century, the formation of

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25 In this paper the concept of „regime change” means the elimination of the dictatorial and socialist regime, led by Janos Kadar, and the establishment of a democratic system between 1989 and 1990


the next school type, *educational schools* was most likely the consequence of this. According to Gaspar, this school model "conveys an extended - multi-faceted and differentiated pedagogical content rather than a narrow one. By organizing a comprehensive community life practice, it allows the students to learn (...) and to live together with others independently (...). Besides broadening knowledge, it includes skill improvement and the development of scientific attitudes (...) and the (...) organization of activities is not only flexible and based on the needs of the child but it premises – and evokes – self-motivated cooperation on the part of children, the pupils. Children take an active part in organizing their own school life.”

Another reaction to the dysfunctionalities of *instructional schools* at the beginning of the 20th century was the emergence of *work-oriented schools*, where: “the core elements of the pedagogical content were organized around the requirement to ‘learn to work’” but the “active participation in work and collective activities, and processing together the work and life experiences gained this way” was also important.

Otto Mihaly used a different approach to school typology than Gaspar, distinguishing not three, but four historical and theoretical school models.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2. School typology of Otto Mihaly</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>The school as a “service station”</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traditional school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The child as an empty “vessel”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: authors’ own source

According to Otto Mihaly, traditional schools try to convey knowledge as well as traditional values and norms. The teacher gives a presentation, the student will respond and the pedagogue evaluates the amount and quality of the learned information. Progressive schools are different in the way that they aim to evoke the desire for knowledge. Students learn according to their individual interests and authority is only minimally present. Decisions are made by consensus and problems are solved in a democratic way. Students choose their subjects and learning activities.

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29 Ibid. p. 76.

30 Ibid. p. 76.


32 Ibid. p. 132.
Students ask questions and teachers answer, with the whole point of the process being to fully develop the students’ abilities “within their personality”.

Mihaly states that the aim of revolutionary schools is to make changes in society, and one way to achieve this is through the students. Students learn the basic revolutionary doctrines, with the emphasis being on social and political self-awareness and on direct participation in the “revolutionary transformation of reality” as educational activities affecting the personality. The pedagogue is responsible for how indoctrinated his students will be. On the other hand, the market school or the school of the agora is built on cooperation and bargaining between adults and students, where the latter individually join activities that have been defined together with the pedagogue. This type of school is characterized by cooperation, mutual dependence and formal and informal norms. The community and parent are also involved in decision making.

1.b. Literature of School Typology and Education Theory

The literature on Hungarian school typology does not discuss issues of ethnicity, contrary to the radical critical literature on American pedagogy, which was closely connected to the idea of “revolutionary schools” for the education of African- and Latin-Americans. In light of this, the analysis of the relevant Hungarian literature revealed that the models and strategies of Roma education presented in Public Education (Kozneveles) need to be interpreted in the context of the theoretical and historical (school typology) models of Laszlo Gaspar and Otto Mihaly.

Based on the reviewed literature, instructional schools were no longer typical between 1978 and 1998 (even though traditional schools have a lot in common with them), while educational schools were present (Mihaly, 1999a), as were work-oriented schools – thanks to Laszlo Gaspar’s school experiment at Szentlorinc, which surpassed the failed “polytechnical” educational efforts of the Khrushchevian era (Torgyik, 2004). By their nature, traditional schools were part of the pedagogical practice due to the philosophy of the socialist power - essentially because of its regressive conservative pedagogical beliefs aimed at protecting the establishment. At the same time, progressive schools

33Ibid. p. 133.
34Ibid. p. 134.
(Kereszty, Polya, 1998), revolutionary schools (Takacs, 2009) and market schools\textsuperscript{37} (Takacs, 2009, Szoke, 1998a, Szoke, 1998b) were also typical between 1978 and 1998.

Regarding the management of Roma education, from the literature it can be concluded that between 1978 and 1998 we can talk about assimilation\textsuperscript{38}, segregation\textsuperscript{39}, progressive pedagogical reforms\textsuperscript{40}, revolutionary pedagogy\textsuperscript{41}, inter- and multicultural pedagogy\textsuperscript{42} as well as alternative pedagogy\textsuperscript{43}, inclusion\textsuperscript{44} and integration\textsuperscript{45}.

Chapter 2 – Relationship of School Typologies and Models of Education Theory

Based on the characteristics and aims of the school types described above, the education model of assimilation mostly fits into the framework of the traditional school type, while the education models of inter- and multiculturalism and the education principles of integration and inclusion fit into the framework of the market school. The educational institutions applying progressive pedagogies – naturally – fit into the type of progressive schools, but between 1978 and 1998 there was a school for socialist education and work socialization as well, respectively there was a nationality school too for national renewal, which covered the type of revolutionary school.

The education model of segregation does not fit into the school typology of Otto Mihaly. We might believe that it belongs to the type of traditional school, but when there is

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\textsuperscript{37} A note to the reader: when describing the model, the term “market” does not mean that school services are to be paid for; rather, it is a metaphor comparing the continuous bargaining between pupils and educators to the interactions taking place on a market.

\textsuperscript{38} In this paper the concept of „assimilation“ means the dissolution of the Roma ethnic group in the non-Roma majority society

\textsuperscript{39} In this paper the concept of „segregation“ means the artificial separation of Roma children from non-Roma peers by classes reserved only for Roma students

\textsuperscript{40} In this paper the concept of the „progressive pedagogical reforms“ means the critique of the „traditional school“ and means a pedagogical trend that innovates the teaching methods of the „traditional school“ according to the principles of a reformer pedagogue

\textsuperscript{41} In this paper the concept of the „revolutionary pedagogy“ means a pedagogical trend that includes radically new pedagogical approaches and the idea of a „new man“

\textsuperscript{42} In this paper the concept of the „inter- and multicultural pedagogy“ means a pedagogical trend that teaches children of different cultural and socio-cultural backgrounds to appreciate each other’s culture, and it means as well, that this pedagogical approach puts the children into interactive relationships by its own teaching methods

\textsuperscript{43} In this paper the concept of the „alternative pedagogy“ means the critique of the „traditional school“ and means a pedagogical trend that (instead of the principles of a reformer pedagogue) innovates the teaching methods of the „traditional school“ according to the principles and goals of other initiators (parents, teachers, NGOs)

\textsuperscript{44} In this paper the concept of the „inclusion“ means a personalized, inclusive school education.

\textsuperscript{45} In this paper the concept of the „integration“ means the integration of the Roma ethnic group into the non-Roma majority society in a form that preserves its original cultural characteristics
segregation, conveying knowledge is not as important as it would otherwise be. Therefore, however strange it seems, it mostly belongs to the line of educational it (with a strong ideology of commitment to socialization), but in a way – in this sense opposing Gaspar – that involves the application of black pedagogy\(^{46}\).

In light of this, and considering that no pedagogical concept focusing on economical production specifically for Roma students was established between 1978 and 1998 in Hungary, we may associate the education theories with the types of schools as follows:

Table 3. Pairing types with models of education theory between 1978 and 1998

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of traditional school</th>
<th>Type of educational school based on black pedagogy</th>
<th>Type of progressive school</th>
<th>Type of revolutionary school</th>
<th>Type of market school</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assimilation</td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>Progressive pedagogies</td>
<td>Socialist education, work socialization, Nationality education</td>
<td>Inter- and multicultural pedagogy, inclusion, integration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: authors’ own source Snapshots – School typological trends between 1978 and 1998 in the Public Education (Kozneveles) columns

The next analysis is based on the data of two extracts from my dissertation (Bogdan, 2011, Bogdan, 2015), which originally approached the articles of the Public Education (Kozneveles) from an educational-theoretical point of view, but this is not the case here. According to the methodology used here it will be analyzed, based on the school theory (school typology) framework discussed above, that between 1978 and 1998, in Hungary, what kind of education theory models (assimilation, segregation, reform pedagogy, socialist education, socialization for work, nationality education, inter- and multicultural education) were associated with different school types (traditional school, black pedagogical school, progressive school, revolutionary school, market school, integration, inclusion) and how the models of education theory were represented in the different school types or in the “other” category (if the given educational phenomenon could not be categorized into a single school type).

**School Typology between 1978 and 1982\(^{47}\)**

Fifty-one papers were published between 1978 and 1982 in the journal Public Education (Kozneveles). From these, only three substantively covered theoretical educational models that can be interpreted within the frames of school typology. These three ideas focused on either assimilation or segregation, and only one of them strived to realize integration in a progressive manner. The remaining 48 papers are classified under the “other” category, but it should be emphasized that two of them were included in this

\(^{46}\) In this paper the concept of the „black pedagogy” is the concept of Nadasi-Hunyadyne-Serfozo – according to which - it is a negative system affecting the children and hampering the original aim of the school: the harmonious personality development of the students

group as in certain respects they are equally characterized by the aim of integration and segregation. From the aspect of school typology, these models combine the features of traditional schools and educational schools based on black pedagogy.

Regarding these five years, we can also say that the demand for information regarding Roma people was relatively high among the readers of Public Education (Kozneveles), as 11 papers contained news and 14 papers contained information on Roma children. However, they hardly ever considered which form of schooling would be the most effective for Roma children. Still, we can reach two conclusions: 1. The emergence of the ideas of assimilation and segregation, typical of traditional schools and educational schools based on black pedagogy is unlikely to have happened by chance, as these were the two dominant school types in the socialist system between 1978 and 1987 (without counting work-oriented schools). 2. The upcoming regime transition can be felt in the contents of the articles, as besides integration, the demand for market schools is also stated. Moreover, two of these papers reveal that educational schools based on black pedagogy were no longer being challenged by traditional schools, but rather by agora schools.

Table 4. Quantitative data of the relationship of school types and education theory models between 1978 and 1982

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traditional school</th>
<th>Educational school based on black pedagogy</th>
<th>Progressive school</th>
<th>Revolutionary school</th>
<th>Market school</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assimilation</td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>Progressive pedagogy</td>
<td>Socialist education, work socialization, Nationality education</td>
<td>Inter- and multicultural pedagogy, inclusion, integration</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: authors’ own source

School Typology between 1983 and 1987

Between 1983 and 1987, 109 papers were published in the pages of Public Education (Kozneveles) that were in some way connected to the topic of Roma people. Figure 5. shows that in the “battle” between educational schools based on black pedagogy and market schools, the former was victorious, with its concept of segregation. In the meantime, integrative education theories were also gaining a foothold, and the preference for traditional schools was being neglected. It is important to mention that this picture is further elaborated in four articles that, like the two papers in the preceding five-year period, were also categorized as “other” because they represented a school model that did not exist in practice; namely, a combined concept of educational schools based on black pedagogy and market schools.
Table 5. Quantitative data of the relationship of school types and education theory models between 1983 and 1987

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traditional school</th>
<th>Educational school based on black pedagogy</th>
<th>Progressive school</th>
<th>Revolutionary school</th>
<th>Market school</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assimilation</td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>Progressive pedagogy</td>
<td>Socialist education, work socialization, nationality education</td>
<td>Inter- and multicultural pedagogy, inclusion, integration</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: authors’ own source


The data reveals that: compared to the period between 1978 and 1982, there was a slight increase in the interest in the question of how the education of Roma people can be successful (15 publications instead of three). However, it was still not a prominent issue, as the number of exploratory or informative publications also increased (14 news and 13 information specific to Roma children). Besides, it should be mentioned that while the concept of segregation was becoming more widespread, articles that treated Roma issues as ethnical issues were published in Public Education (Kozneveles) at the same time (in 14 cases). Between 1978 and 1982, these numbers changed in such a way that none of the 51 papers represented an “ethnical point of view”.

School Typology between 1978 and 1987

Summarizing the data from between 1978 and 1987, we can conclude that: traditional schools, that is, assimilative education strategies on the education of Roma people were largely excluded from the public thinking in those 10 years. There were two challengers; namely educational schools based on black pedagogy and market schools based on bargaining. This “battle” was won by the former because of the intensifying aspiration for segregation, and also because Roma issues were being increasingly treated on an ethnical basis.

Current experience shows that the educational schools based on black pedagogy held strong positions even after the regime change when looking for a way to educate Roma children. However, it can also be said that after 1989, there was initiative in progressive school at Csenyete and there was a revolutionary school at Pecs in the Gandhi High School and Dormitory, which did not aim the promotion of the communist idea of man, but rather to bring the strengthening and empowerment of Roma intellectuals within reach. We should also remember the (“unschooled” and extra-curricular) After School Place models established in the spirit of market schools.

48 In this paper the concept of the „ethnical point of view” means the over-empahsis of the Roma cultural features
Table 6. Quantitative data of the relationship of school types and education theory models between 1978 and 1987

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traditional school</th>
<th>Educational school based on black pedagogy</th>
<th>Progressive school</th>
<th>Revolutionary school</th>
<th>Market school</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assimilation</td>
<td>Segregation</td>
<td>Progressive pedagogy</td>
<td>Socialist education, work socialization, nationality education</td>
<td>Inter- and multicultural pedagogy, inclusion, integration</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: authors’ own source

Summary

Answering the basic questions of the paper and according to the literature: 1. there were educational schools, work-oriented schools, traditional schools, progressive schools, revolutionary schools and market schools in Hungary between 1978 and 1998. The concept of work-oriented schools is irrelevant from the aspect of Roma education, as neither the literature nor the publications in Public Education outlined a work-centered school model targeting Roma people specifically. 2. The theories behind the school models (school typologies) that were preferred, supported or tolerated by the government – in the domestic context – did not offer any guidance on solving the problems surrounding the education of Roma people, and thus education- and public education experts were left to argue among themselves on this issue. School types offered a framework for the education of Roma children as well that was deep-rooted for centuries. 3. The resolutions and opinions of the administration published in Public Education, as well as the utterances of politicians, reveal that between 1978 and 1987, the Kadar-regime supported the “socialist idea of man”, and thus it neglected to emphasize Roma children’s ethnicity. Still, besides the assimilating traditional school, the segregating educational school model based on black pedagogy, which took ethnicity into consideration practically, also prevailed. Moreover, the concept of integrative education, which is characteristic of market schools, also appeared in the public mind. This means that those who thought in strategies and theories of Roma education did not always follow (either in their turn or against them).

After the regime change, the integrative education model flourished while segregation still remained, suggesting that although the current state education policy accepts the concept of no segregation, reality fails to meet expectations under the democratic system just as it did in the socialist era.

Future Research Directions

This basic research can be a good starting point for the continuation of the investigations at theoretical level. It is an important conclusion, that according to the

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49 In this paper the concept of the „Kadar regime“ means the period of the socialist dictatorship, led by Janos Kadar, from the 1956 Liberation War and Revolution until 1989
results of the present paper the domestic school typological literature is extremely poor, which means that we have to find other relating writings yet. It is clear as well that in Hungarian language – in the literature - the Roma aspects of the school typologies can not be found, that is, based on a broader literature and based on a broader Roma database, in the future, we have to describe how the school types affected the education theory content in the case of the Roma.

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Different Students, Different Impacts?
Effect of School Characteristics on Disadvantages and Advantages Students’ Learning Outcome

Matild Sagi


Proposal Information

During the last decades the improvement of school effectiveness is emerging objective of education reform strategies around the world. Increasing emphasis on academic performance gives new importance to investigating factors that contribute to student achieving. While there is a wide literature about complexity of quality and effectiveness of education, the most prevalent analytical approach measure quality of schools on the base of students’ performance or test results. Previous analyses show that student achievement is determined both by individual characteristics and the school resources (including the quantity and quality of teachers) and also the efficiency with which those resources are used. Researches on students’ outcomes reveal that student performance is most influenced by family background around the world, at the same time the extent of this effect can vary among countries, among schools and over times. Past decade researches increasingly focuses on the school-level and system-level factors that can modify effect of family background on students’ educational outcomes.

Earlier researches reveal that easily-measured school characteristics such as schools facilities, class size or teaching hours have only modest effect on student performance. Equal access to education seems to have the greatest system-level impact on student performance, while teachers’ quality and classroom practice seem to be the most important factors of school-level impact on it. Although generally teachers act individually (alone, in the classroom), pedagogical work is considered not individual but collective action. Beyond individual qualities, motivation, ambition, commitment and

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experience of teachers, quality of teaching greatly affected by the support of professional community, school leadership and school climate. recent analyses emphasized that collective capacity building - shifting teachers from their isolated classroom practice to creating a collaborative culture based on interdependence, shared responsibility, and mutual accountability – seems to be one of the most important factor of school effectiveness.

Previous researches reveals two possible mechanism considering similar or different mechanism of school-effect on disadvantageous and advantageous students’ learning outcomes. “Cumulative effects model” suggest that effect of school on students’ outcome independent from pupils’ family background. Conversely, “protective model” propose that effect of school depends on the circumstances of individual students: students who have less advantageous family background can benefit more from good school than their luckier schoolmates – but maybe the negative effect of “bad” schools can also be stronger on less advantageous students’ performance than on the others.

Our present analysis based on individual-level linked data of National Assessment of Basic Competencies, Hungary, aims to contribute to the debate on “cumulative effects model” and “protective model” with some empirical evidence. While our analysis is based on data of a single country, the added value of national-level data construction allows us to conduct deeper analysis focusing on a more universal research question concerning the general mechanism of effect of school on student learning outcomes. Our basic research question is whether school-level determinants of students’ learning outcomes depend on the social-economic background of the pupils or does it the same for all?

Our main hypothesis is that less advantageous students’ achievement is effected stronger by the school than more advantageous ones, so quality of school is more important for the pupils who have disadvantageous family background than for their schoolmates with high social-economic background. Our additional hypothesis is that the effect of school features is stronger on individual level, time-based added values than on raw test scores.

Methods

Present analysis is based on data of National Assessment of Basic Competencies, Hungary, which is a standard-based assessment designed similarly to the OECD PISA survey. The National ABC measures reading and mathematical competences of every student in Grade 6, 8 and 10. Since 2008 test scores are standardized on the base of 6th grades test results in 2008 (with mean of 1500 and stddev of 200). From this year results can be compared over time and/or between different group of students. The database contains extensive information on student background and that on the school site as well. Since 2011, similarly to the PISA, national-level standardized index of economic, social and cultural status of students is also calculated. Its mean is equal to
zero and the standard deviation equals one across all 6th 8th 10th students in Hungary. Every student has individual ID therefore databases of the different years’ student assessments can be linked with each other on the individual student-level.

For present analysis we linked assessment data of 8th grades students in 2015 with their 6th grade results individually. School-level aggregated data (both in 2013 and in 2015) were also linked to the student’s individual-level data. Students who changed school between grade 6 and grade 8 (less than 5% of total involved student population) were dropped out of our final the data base.

Based on the mean and standard deviation of 2013 year-based standardized SES index (when majority of involved students were 6th grade pupils), we separated three groups of students as follows: (1) students whose social-economic status is far below the national average (2) students whose social-economic status is far above the national average and (3) the rest of students whose SES index is around national average.

After dividing our original data into the above mentioned three sub-data, the same linear regression model-series are separately applied for disclosing causal relationship between school characteristics and student’s achievement, with the dependent variables of A) raw math test scores in grade 8, B) raw literacy test scores in grade 8, C) changes in math test scores between grade 6 and grade 8, D) changes in literacy test scores between grade 6 and grade 8. Comparison of coefficient of school characteristics of three groups of students discloses similarities and differences between effect of school on test scores of pupils with (1) disadvantageous , (2) advantageous and (3) average family background.

Conclusions

Our exploratory linear regression model-series reveal that effect of school-level characteristics on disadvantageous students’ achievement stronger than that on students with most advantageous family background.

Differences in school-based effects are larger on added values than on initial raw scores.

Consequently, quality of school seems to be more important for the pupils who have disadvantageous family background than for their schoolmates with high social-economic background.

Keywords: student achievement, school effectiveness, National Assessment of Basic Competencies
References


Whole school approach of ENSI network for ESD in Hungary - achievements and challenges

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Proposal Information

ENSI is an international network which has supported educational developments, environmental understanding, active approaches to teaching and learning through research, connecting researchers with practice and policy makers and the exchange of experiences internationally on a whole-school approach basis since 1986 (Posch, 1999). Recently whole school approach is supported and promoted by various international bodies (EU, 2010) (UNESCO, 2016)) as one of the key factor for successful education for sustainability. Supported by this rich international professional background and strong political recommendations whole school approach of education for sustainability is present at the all level of education in Hungary. The Green Kindergarten Award for kindergartens, the Eco-school Award for primary and secondary education, the COPERNICUS program for higher education offer a framework to implement whole school approach. All of these programs give appreciation and professional support but no extra funds for institutions.

The Hungarian Eco-School network was established in 2000 with 40 pilot schools based on the whole-school approach of the ENSI network and has continuously been

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increasing since then. Since 2005 Eco-School title in Hungary serves the highest governmental recognition of those schools that deal with the practical realization of education for sustainable development (ESD) in a carefully considered, institutional and systematic way (Reti, Horvath, Czippan, & Varga, 2015). An eco-school differs from the average school in the fact that the principles of sustainability are not only present in education but in all fields of school life. Local environmental issues and problems are dealt with priority in the schools’ pedagogical work. These problems form part of the school’s pedagogical work embedded in the local pedagogical program. At present the network has almost 1000 members, approximately the quarter of all Hungarian primary, secondary and vocational schools. Schools could join the network on a voluntary basis by applying for the Eco-School title. (OFI, 2010)

For applying successfully for the Hungarian Eco-school title schools have to prove their effort in the field of educational and sustainable development by reaching a minimum points in eight areas of school life (basic documents, organizational conditions, pedagogical work, operation of the school, communication, co-operations, local community, specialties of the school).

The paper summarizes the results and obstacles of realization of whole-school approach within the Hungarian Eco-school network and try to identify effective methods for more effective spreading of it.

Methods

The paper summarizes the result of three researches on the realization of the whole school approach in Hungarian eco-schools.

A. a questionnaire study with 455 eco-school in 2016
B. on-situ visits including interviews with the eco-school co-ordinators and document analysis in 40 eco-schools in 2016 and 2017
C. document-analysis of application of 83 schools applying for eco-school title for third time in 2016, so working as eco-school at least for six years.

The first two researches were conducted as the part of the monitoring system of the Hungarian Eco-school network. In order to follow the work of Eco-schools, to gain information about their developments and the obstacles they encounter a two-level monitoring system is operated. As the first level of the system each year an on-line questionnaire is sent out to all the schools having the title (Research A). The questionnaire consist of questions about the state of art in ESD in eco-schools, about their improvements in last year, the obstacles their encounter and support they need. Data collected by questionnaires are used to evaluate the work of the network and to identify areas where central support is needed.

As the second level of the system on-situ visits, document analysis and interviews are executed on a more limited sample form schools having the title for at least for six years.
These visits serve two goals: first to develop a deep insight into the work of the most successful eco-schools, second to make diagnoses for the schools which have serious problems according to their questionnaire data. Based on these diagnoses the schools receive professional help to overcome their problems. As an amendment to these regular researches a document analysis was conducted in 2016 in order to compare different aspects of whole school approach according the self-reported performance of the eco-schools (Research C).

Conclusions

Results show that unless eco-schools in Hungary accept whole school approach of ESD as an overall goal and make continuous improvements on reaching institutional level ESD goals, there are significant differences between areas of school life in terms of realization of eco-school criteria on whole school level. Almost every eco-school have concrete goals and improvements in the area of the operation of school including in almost every case a more and more ambitious objective regarding selective waste collection. On the other hand, the most rarely realized and least targeted aspect of the whole school approach is the co-operation with the local community partly due to the fact that local community leaders are not always open for co-operation. Beside this overall picture of realization of whole school aspects in eco-school the researches also demonstrate a wide variety of effectiveness in eco-schools. There are several factors determining of the quality of a work of an eco-school. Distributed leadership combined with personal commitment of school leaders are needed for an effective involvement of the whole staff of the school. Sophisticated opportunities for professional communication and instututionalisation of eco-school principles like embedding innovative methods such as pedagogical project and fieldwork into the yearly official workplan of schools are needed for a continuous professional development of the teachers involved in eco-school activities. As conclusion the paper argue that whole school approach could be useful as a compass, or direction for ESD school development but if considered as a short term expectation it could be startling and so harmful for ESD development. The evidence shows that successful eco-schools have introduced aspects of whole school approach of ESD gradually and even the most develop eco-schools do not realize all aspects evenly.

Keywords: whole-school approach, education for sustainable development, qualification system

References


Reviewed by Dorina Anna Toth

The book's author is Istvan Polonyi, who is a professor at the University of Debrecen. Polonyi's research topic is about the economy of education, education policy, human resource and adult education. Istvan Polonyi's latest book was released in 2016, which title is Human resources in the 21st century. The author made a great effort to research human resources per the development of the factors in the future. The author not only predicts but also presents the current status. He brings into focus education, expansion, Hungarian gypsies and actual immigration. His predictions are based on the current statistical data. Polonyi used for his outcomes international results and special literature (Amable 2003; Barro – Jong 2013; Nordhaus 2002; Teichler 2003; Weon – Jung Ho Je 2009) and data (Education at a Glance 1998, 2008, 2009, 2012, 2013, 2014).

It is important to point out (like the author does) that this advance estimates and oracles frequently do not take place because things will be different. However, forecasts are really important, if somebody tries to predict something. We should also be aware, however, the big research work what is behind these predicts and that the author needed complicated formulas for statistical calculation.

“You do not get into trouble with what you do not know. But what you know for sure, but after all that’s right” – said Mark Twain. Therefore, Polonyi reserves the possibility of error, because the estimates are based on current trend and these trends’ more screening form. We can see that these trends are dynamically changing nowadays too, let us think of the labour market even, or the educational participative one onto data, but even onto the immigrants' masses. The author was wrong at the end of the 1990s, when he recommended for his good friend's daughter photo lab technician profession. 15 years later, digital photography as a profession became unnecessary. Many other examples could be mentioned with great errors. For example, there was a sheer folly in

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the early 1990s, when the Hungarian post office line invested the CIF, and then the proliferation of cell phones proved to be also unnecessary.

To understand the objective of the book, firstly we should interpret the meaning of human resource. Human resource is the man himself. A large mass of people was even uneducated, industrial, and agricultural workers in the middle of the 19th century. As time went by they were getting educated. The driving forces behind this learning were the industrial and educational revolution. Thus in this sense, the human resource means the development of the human factor.

An interesting question is how to develop the human capital and how to increase human capabilities. According to Theodor Schultz, there are some factors for the increase in:

1. health care institutions and services (for life enhancement);
2. on-the-job training;
3. formal education, higher education;
4. mobility of families, adapting to job opportunities.

In terms of human research development, Hungary is in a prime position per the politicians, per media and some representatives of the science. Nevertheless, Hungary is among the last ones, but also is in the last third between countries of the European Union. I would like to outline some data and estimate results from the book.

The first data is about the average educational attendant (the average number of years spent in school) of the aged over 25 years' population. I would like to emphasize the average of the world, the average of Europe and the average of Hungary. So, Hungary performed better than Europe. By 2050 the forecast is based on the general education will increase everywhere in the world:

1. average of the world: 10,4 years,
2. average of Europe: 12,9 years,
3. average of Hungary: 12,6 years.

Although Europe is going to leave us, worsen the average of the years spent at school in Hungary will even worsen until 2100. The average of educational attendant will 12,9 years in the world, 14,3 years in Europe and 13,1 years in Hungary. While the world is catching up, the Hungarian growth will be slowing.

Another interesting topic is the Roma situation in Hungary. One of the key questions about Romani people is how can be successful the integration of Romani people? Firstly, we must take cognizance of who will be Romani. In Hungary there are 4 methods to determine Romani people:

1. by vernacular;
2. by nationality (on his/her own admission);
3. by classifying (by statistical data);
4. by the person’s yoke-fellow/habitat.

Many researchers think that these classes pass for racist methods. With this object, the author falls back on data of census of Hungary (2011). The number of Romani people in 2011 was 713000 in our country. Polonyi made an appraisal for the Romani population from the previous data of the census. The next specification will contain Polonyi’s predictions about the number of Hungarian Romani people in the future are the following:

- 2011: 713000
- 2020: 835000
- 2040: 1073000
- 2050: 1175000

Polonyi wrote thoughtfully about the number of Romani people. He raised an issue: 1175000 Romani are too much for Hungary? If we would like to compare this number for the numbers of Hungarian population, it is too many Romani people. But if we examine Romani people’s age, we could see that they are principally 15—64 ages. The high number of Romani people will not be a problem if we could integrate them. We should build an education system, what could increase Romani people’s average educational attendant. We should put an end to discrimination and we should make the terms of the labour market for Romani people. The long and short of it we have to make an effort to close up the Romani people.

The key to human resources’ development is the education. I recommend this book everyone, who will make education researches. I think this book will be a great literature for sociologists and economists too.
Book Review


Reviewed by Gabor Dragony

The book entitled ‘Grass can grow on concrete as well – Studies of the Dance-house movement’ was published in 2006 and it presents the past thirty years of the national Dance-house movement. The book was published by the Hungarian Heritage House and it was edited by Ildiko Sandor ethnographer. The book is a collection of studies in the series of the earlier and later publications about the Dance-house movement, which after more than three decades of research results and analyses, not only merely describes the movement and its history, but it also demonstrates the movement’s enormous cultural, scientific and social impact that is inspiring even today. Numerous studies are dealing with the (back then) niche role of the movement in the education of folk dance and folk music. The dance-houses (and their associated camps) can be considered as the initiators of both the institutional and non-institutional (outside the institution) folk music education. Therefore, based on this book, which is used as a basic reference, the cognition of the movement, the exploration of its history and the consequences are essential, regarding my own research. In the introduction of the book, instead of a preface, Jolan Foltin dancer, choreographer remembers to her journey to Transylvania, Szek town and to the start of the movement in 1972. Her thoughts are the lyrical introduction to the subsequent seven studies: ‘Many of us share the miracle that we were part of it...’ (Foltin 2006: 5). The author of the first study is Bela Halmos (passed away in 2013) musician, ethnomusicologist, one of the initiators of the Dance-house movement. One of the most important things of the study is that it summarizes the key characteristics of the ‘modern’ dance-house. These include training, learning and the role of practice so that singing, playing music or dancing could provide a good experience from the very beginning for the participants (Halmos 2006: 8). The author

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considers the social conditions favourable to the development of the Dance-house movement including the development of Hungarian folk music research (Halmos 2006: 13). The instrumental folk music research, collection and scientific results grounded the launch of the institutional folk music education as well. Halmos presents the established and running educational scenes that were parallelly evolving together with the movement. These included courses and camps for example (Halmos 2006: 15). The author imagined the future of the Dance-house movement in an institutionalized form. In his study, he indicates two additional institutional areas, namely scientific research and folk music, folk dance education, besides the movement (Halmos 2006: 17). He explains the necessary changes in the education and the development of teacher training and continuing education in detail (Halmos 2006: 20).

At the beginning of her study, Ildiko Sandor - the editor of the book - describes the dance-house as a folklorist and cultural phenomenon from the very beginning until the early 2000s, and then she presents the audience of the dance-houses in detail, on the basis of sociological studies. The two longer chapters of the book are closely related to the history of folk dance and folk music education. First, the author writes about the activity forms of the dance-houses: in addition to the dance-houses, she marks the summer camps as scenes of education, where instrumental courses were usually featured as well (Sandor 2006: 28). I also investigate the summer camps during my research, as they are determinative from the perspective of both the students and the instructor musicians in the extracurricular folk music education today as well. The other chapter lists the basic dance-house methods of folklore broadcasting. These are as follows: live instrumental music, dance teaching and free dance, teaching singing, informative ethnographic lectures, learning music, crafts, folk games, folk customs and folk tales. Teaching music in camps today is happening the same way as Ildiko Sandor described in her work (Sandor 2006: 34). At the end of the study, the author summarizes the impact of the movement on cultural life. The third chapter of the book discusses the community of the dance-houses. Co-authors, Istvan Fabri and Katalin Fuleki, presents the sociological characteristics, the values and the way of life of the dance-house gathering participants based on the most important research results. The authors examine the age and the place of residence distribution together with the educational background of participants, based on the 2004 data. The results show that the majority of the dance-house gathering participants are between the ages of 20-45 (Fabri–Fuleki 2006: 43). Among the participants, women are present in the majority, and the audience is characterized by an extremely high level of education (Fabri–Fuleki 2006: 44–45). The next chapter of the book presents how the news of the dance-house gatherings is circulated, and the ways of information acquisition. If we look at the research data from the education side, it is conspicuous that among the younger respondents every one out of three has heard about the event in the folk dance class. The authors investigate the interest in the event’s programs and the satisfaction with the programs as well. From the side of the instrumental music, it is important to note that the majority of the audience of the folk music concerts is male and rural (Fabri–Fuleki
The next chapter of the book presents the motivations and specific components of going to dance-houses. Based on the data, the authors state that in addition to the love of dance and music, the participants are going to dance-houses because of the community experience (Fabri–Fuleki 2006: 55). The specific place is reserved in the study of values for the dress code and for the electoral residence preferences. The participants of the dance-house gatherings were interviewed by the authors about the clothing styles. It is interesting that women and people with higher education wear traditional clothes (Fabri–Fuleki 2006: 63). The author of the book’s next study is Ferenc Kiss, folk musician, composer and the founder of several folk bands and Etnofon Folk Music Publishing Company. Kiss’s writing casts an account of the past thirty years of the folk music movement. His study is not the historical summary of dance-houses, but the outlining of a broader picture of the past decades of the dance-houses, the music and dance institutions. He devotes a separate chapter to education and research. He presents the folk music education via the analysis of the various schools. First, he writes about the shortcomings of music education in elementary schools. Kiss mentions several domestic primary and secondary art schools, including folk music schools, as an example. At the time of the preparation of the study, instrumental folk music in higher education could only be studied at the College of Nyiregyhaza, so the author discusses the training plans and the launch of the Ferenc Liszt Academy of Music (Kiss 2006: 75–79). The study also presents the folk music publications, records and the relationship between the co-folk arts and the media. Finally, the author proposes solutions to the raised problems and specifies tasks. Katalin Beszprem, an employee of the Hungarian Heritage House, demonstrates the relationship between dance-houses and crafts of the seventies and eighties in her study. According to her findings, reformation started in crafts, together with the Dance-house movement, that is continuing even today (Beszprem 2006: 107). Beszprem lists the reasons for this and demonstrates the creative camps – including the nearly twenty years long running Teka camps – and other activities, institutions, crafts instructors. The launch and spread of the playhouse movement can be dated to this period and the operation of craft schools starts in the nineties. Katalin Juhasz ethnographer describes the dress fashion of the Dance-house movement and its change. The majority of her study consists of interview details of known or lesser known dance-house participants, musicians and dancers (Gergely Agocs, Marta Sebestyen, Andras Berecz, Eva Fabian, Lilla Javorka etc.). In these, we can read the personal toned confessions of the ‘speakers’ about their dress habits, its causes, reception and present survivorship. Juhasz lists four kinds of solutions for how tradition can be incorporated into dressing, among those attracted to folk culture. According to Juhasz, the two extremes are: nothing indicates that the wearer of the outfit is in connection with folk dancing and folk music or the person is dressed in an original wear from head to toe day and night. Third solution: clothing appropriate to current fashion with accessories made by original or folk artists; fourth solution: folk-inspired outfits and accessories with modern design (Juhasz 2006: 126). The last study of the book is written by Zoltan Szabo ethnographer. The author analyses a unique phenomenon between 1970 and 2000 in the Carpathian Basin. This
phenomenon is closely intertwined with the Dance-house movement, and it means the special, but mainly tourist trips of people belonging to the Dance-house movement (Juhasz 2006: 162–163). Out of these the collector roads of musicians and dancers stand out, which are directed mostly to the Hungarian-populated regions of Transylvania. The collector trips are linked to education, as they produce scientific results, and they also initiate camps where those interested in folklore can learn from the informants. The author establishes the concept of ‘Dance-house tourism’ (Juhasz 2006: 181). Some of the book’s seven studied are overlapping, but this is for its benefit: the individual subtopics and relations become understandable, clear and comprehensive from different points of views. This way the Dance-house movement becomes a complex, highly influential broad social ‘system’, including the past, present and future of folk dance and folk music education. The rich domestic and foreign bibliography at the end of each study is an additional benefit of the book. The high quality scientific educational study collection can be beneficially used also by professionals and non-professionals interested in the topic. The book is used as basic literature in the historical part of my dissertation.

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Book Review


Reviewed by Anita Csokai

The editors of this book work as instructors at Vilmos Apor Catholic College in the town of Vac, Hungary. Erno Kallai is a professor, and also a researcher at the Minorities Institute of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences. He was the Parliamentary Commissioner of National and Ethnic Minority Rights between 2007 and 2011 in Hungary. Laszlo Kovacs is an associate professor.

This book was inspired by the success of a conference organized in the autumn of 2008 as a joint effort by the Department of Education, Social Sciences and Romology of Vilmos Apor Catholic College and the Family Pedagogy Section of the Hungarian Pedagogy Society. The book gives an overview of the research results of the institution, and it also contains Romology related studies created by presenters invited to the conference.

The book is multidisciplinary. It features writings from experts in psychology, academic and practical pedagogy, and sociology. The reason for this approach is that the authors believe that there is no such thing as “Romani pedagogy”, instead, there is universal mastering knowledge that is well applicable to the education of several ethnic groups.

The primary goal of the editors of this book was to provide a knowledge base for the students at AVCC in Vac, but they also recommend the book to colleagues and students at other higher education institutions, or anyone else interested in the recent research results presented.

The editors would like to express their honour with this volume to Istvan Kemeny, the most influential researcher of Romology in the 20th century.

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The book consists of three major parts, all of which begin with a matching quotation. In the first part of the book, whose motto is that "I can only teach a child I have gotten to know." (by M. Montessori), authors touch on general subjects like values, moral tutoring, and challenges of multicultural education today. I have selected the following papers to be the most relevant to my research topic from this part.

The book starts out with ‘Being a child in the 21st century’ by Laszlo Varga, which gives an overview of the history of childhood and also analyses the connection between the child and the school. The study states that the effect of school as a child-rearing institution or factor is minor to that of the media in many cases. Besides the media, computers also endanger the development of children by excluding the possibility of belonging a community from their lives. How can schools react to the situation? The author thinks that schools themselves should change, because they can only show the value if they reinterpret the connections between adults and children in this changing world, and if they do not consider children as the followers of adult norms, but they take children as values of their own with their variegation.

“Recognizing personality and forming connections” by Istvan Babosik is about positive tutor-student relationships and their importance. Why is such a positive relationship important? Why should you aim for its establishment? The first question can be answered by that positive tutor-student relationship forms the bridge that conveys educational influence. Without this precondition, the child will not accept the guidance of the tutor, so the kid becomes unmanageable by the teacher. Another reason for having a positive teacher-student relationship is that it also brings a positive effect on teacher-parent and school-parent relationships. Being aware of these facts, teachers should start searching for communication possibilities with their students.

The work of Judit Torgyik is about multicultural education. Multicultural education is the field of education whose main goal is to provide equal educational possibilities for students of different genders, ethnic and cultural groups. In a narrower sense, it deals with the position and education of ethnic minorities.

The studies following this last one elaborate on more generic concepts related to the everyday life of schools. The work of Eva Csontos connects both to the title of the book and the motto of the first part: she focuses on analysing values for getting to know the world and students. The focus of Sandor Balazs’s study, on the other hand, is the current issues of moral tutoring. Furthermore, in her study entitled ‘Changing roles of families in the socialization of children’, Ilona Meszaros emphasizes the educative effect of the family, since kids first meet the norms, habits and values of the society in their families. Anetta Adam’s work focuses on discipline at school and demonstrates the way discipline changes as we walk the route of shame, courage and dignity.

The paper of Mrs. Gyorgyne Villanyi gives useful information and practical advice for kindergarten teachers on how to familiarize with small children.
The motto of the second part is “Future is shaped by today's schools” (by Albert Szent-Gyorgyi).

The second part of the book elaborates on disadvantaged positions, acceptance and exclusion, relationships between kindergarten and school, possibilities for empathy, and the pedagogical consequences of these.

Anna Bakonyi draws attention to one of the most pressing issues of today's pedagogical life: the integration of the handicapped and those living at the periphery of society. The author states that inclusive pedagogy provides the ideological background and the practice for integrational education. The purpose is not that these people catch up with others, but they should reach their own maximums, or in other words, the students should be able to advance within their own bounds and habits. This method requires differentiation from the teacher in the tasks, in the ways leading to these tasks, and in the evaluation as well.

In his work entitled Awareness of social identity and education, Arpad Skrabski points out that religion can play an important role in the education of Gypsy/Romani children. In schools organized on a cultural (ethnic, religious) basis, the aspects of belonging to the given culture dominate, so they are able to create equal chances in school for disadvantaged students.

The next study deals with the most important reasons why pre-school education got focused recently, and it also analyses the chances of getting day-nursery provisioning for families in a disadvantageous situation. The three authors perform SWOT-analysis to help the management of institutions. However, Laszlo Kovacs elaborates on a related topic in his paper, which starts out with the idea that the foundation for the educational programs for minorities lies in kindergarten education. The transition from day-nursery to kindergarten should be seamless for kids so that children should not notice the fundamental changes in the factors (attitudes and treatment) affecting their personalities. For this to work, the two institutions need connecting pedagogic programs.

Maria Fulopne Erdo's study, “Acceptance or exclusion” stresses that group connections play a very important role in the development of youth. The experience of belonging or not belonging to a group has a crucial effect on forming a person's identity. It is very important that a peaceful, accepting, non-aggressive attitude towards the members of other groups is formed before adult age.

Empathy can help educators in preventing and stopping segregation. It serves the basis for the good teacher-student relationship, and it also creates emotional stability, which opens the way for the possibility of broader emotional tutoring. Since it is Gypsy youngsters that face segregation predominantly, the study of Agota Feher marks chances for empathy as sources for deeper understanding.
The last study in this field is written by Rita Rostas, which gives an insight into a psychologist’s experiences acquired in “weekly homes” (institutions, where children stay from Monday to Friday) and temporary homes.

The third part engages in Romology, topics related to the sociological and pedagogic issues of Gypsy people. The following motto was chosen for this part: “Loving somebody means seeing them the way God wanted them to be.” (Dostoevsky)

One of the editors of the book, Erno Kallai deals with the history of Gypsies/Romani people from the very beginnings until the early days of the 21st century.

Zoltan Babosik elaborates on the history of education of Gypsies in Hungary from the 18th century to the present day. Since our research relates to the present, we focus on the corresponding part of this study. After the change of the political regime in Hungary, the ratio of Gypsy students who continued their studies after elementary school started to increase. New institutions were established to help Gypsy youngsters in this respect. Coaching and talent support programs, educational institutions for the Gypsy minority, along with scholarships from various foundations all added their share to this improvement. The most influential factor to persuade completing elementary school and choosing to continue studies is the relationship between parents and children to school. The last more than 10 years of improvement is the result of the fact that some families have a different view on the advantages and disadvantages of continuing studies today than they used to have in the past.

The studies (performed in 1971, 1993 and 2003 regarding Gypsies and school) by Istvan Kemeny and his workgroup describe the status of Gypsy society. Their research shows that the ratio of Gypsy youngsters who complete all 8 classes of elementary school has greatly improved. While 86% of the Gypsy population never completed elementary school in 1971, this ratio dropped by roughly a half to 42% in 1993 and decreased further by 2003. Today, completing elementary school has become a general property of the whole society. The change of the political system also brought by a substantial increase in the number of students that could be admitted to high schools, and this opened the doors of education for Gypsy youngsters as well. Kemeny and his team think that the reasons for dropping out early from school stem in the late start of education, and the high ratio of failures.

The author thinks that the issues unsolved till 2007 in education are the following:

- the majority of Gypsy children start school with several years of delay,
- only a fifth of them continue their studies in a high school,
- two-thirds of Gypsy student enrolled in a high school drop out early, and never complete their high school studies,
- only 1.2% of Gypsy youngsters make it to a college or university.
The paper of Katalin Zoka analyses whether there is a place for Gypsy tales in kindergarten literature education, and it gets to the conclusion that Gypsy folk-tales may be told in kindergarten groups of any nationalities if the tale is picked according to the appropriate professional aspects by the kindergarten teacher. Gypsy tales can help with getting to know, understanding and accepting each other.

The last study in the third block is based on the experiences of empirical analysis: it evaluates the effect of courses in the fields of Romology and multicultural education on the views of students. The changes in students' opinion were analysed by asking questions after they finished the courses. The responses show that a single semester of studies initiates a positive change in the thinking of college students regarding gipsies.

I recommend the book to the workers and students of higher education institutions, and to anyone interested in the recent research results in this field.
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