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The Problems of Contemporary Education

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The Problems of Contemporary Education

Organizational Justice and Job Satisfaction as Predictors of Turnover Intentions among Teachers in the Offinso South District of Ghana

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Abstract

There is high incidence of teachers' agitation for a better pay and other conditions of service in Ghana. This study assessed the influence of job satisfaction and organizational justice on turnover intentions among teachers. One hundred and fourteen teachers at the Offinso South District of Ghana were conveniently selected to complete the Organizational Justice Index, the Teachers Satisfaction Scale and the Turnover Intention Scale. From the results, turnover intentions negatively correlate with organizational justice and job satisfaction of teachers. With regard to the components of job satisfaction, only pay contributed a significant variance to their turnover intentions. Among the components of organizational justice, distributive and procedural justice contributed also significantly to turnover intentions. Nonetheless, gender had no significant effect on the turnover intentions among teachers.

Keywords: gender, Ghana, job satisfaction, Offinso south, organizational justice, turnover intentions.

1. Introduction

The teaching profession in Ghana is affected with the highest turnover and it has become a major threat to the effectiveness of the educational sector in Ghana (Kosi et al., 2015). About 10,000 teachers in Ghana leave the teaching profession annually for innumerable reasons (Ghana

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National Association of Teachers, & Teachers & Educational Workers of Ghana, 2010). Job dissatisfaction and perception of injustice are the prominent factors that contribute immensely to the higher turnover rates among teachers in Ghana (Adusei et al., 2016; Gyampoh, 2012). As emphasized by Suifan, Diab and Abdallah (2017), failure to ensure satisfaction and fair treatment among teachers affect their performance and result in the intention of staying in the profession.

Turnover can be categorized as either voluntary or involuntary. Voluntary turnover is when employees decide to leave the organization on their own choice while involuntary turnover occurs when the organization decides to lay off some of the employees (Owolabi, 2012). Involuntary turnover is often good for the interest of the organization but voluntary turnover is considered very destructive to the organization's stability (Ponnu, Chuah, 2010). The teaching profession in Ghana is more associated with voluntary turnover (Adusei et al., 2016).

According to Adusei et al. (2016), teachers do not only intend to quit their job location, but also their job role and the organisation. Similar to employees of other organisations, teachers give different evaluation regarding the job they do. Once they feel dissatisfied, then the intention to quit will set in. Satisfaction of teachers is therefore an important construct to study when assessing turnover intentions among them (Malik et al., 2010).

Job satisfaction is considered as a positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of the overall domain of a person's job (Malik et al., 2010). It deals with the overall feeling of the employee (Kosi et al., 2015). Employees are motivated to be committed to the job when they are satisfied with the job they do (Shah, Jumani, 2015). Teachers who are satisfied with the teaching profession are more likely to be punctual at work, teach effectively and stay in the teaching profession (Adusei et al., 2016; Malik et al., 2010). Kosi et al. (2015) identified four determinants of teacher's job satisfaction. These are pay, promotion, supervision and the work itself. The satisfaction level of teachers can be improved, if teachers are given enough pay (Malik et al., 2010).

Pay is the overall salary and incentives of teachers. It serves as the reinforcement for teachers to be committed to the teaching profession (Kosi et al., 2015). Pay increases with the promotion of teachers. Promotion is the extent to which teachers have the opportunity to progress in the teaching profession. Promotion gives the impression of recognition which promotes job satisfaction (Luthans, 2005). Supervision which is the next item deals with the leadership and leadership styles of superior heads of educational establishments. Job satisfaction factor increases with good system of supervision. It also allows for the development of trust and autonomy over the job. Hence, teacher's level of self-esteem can also be improved through the reactions of supervisors (Malik et al., 2010). According to Bodla and Naeem (2008), employee's job satisfaction is more reliant on environmental factors, rather than the job characteristics. From their study, employee's job satisfaction is more reliant on environmental factors than the job characteristics.

When employees react based on their level of satisfaction, then their motivation to react cannot be understood adequately without considering the perception of fairness (Barsky et al., 2011). Fairness perception is of key interest to the teaching profession. Teachers, like any other employees react to actions and decisions made every day by the organization. Teacher's perception of organizational justice influences their attitude and behaviour at work (Adusei et al., 2016; Byrne, 2005).

Research has identified distributive, procedural, and interactional justices as the three types of organizational justice that must be embraced in order to have happy and productive teachers (Ismail et al., 2009). Distributive justice deals with teacher's fairness perception concerning decision outcomes and distribution of tangible (e.g., salary) or intangible (e.g., commendation) resources. Procedural justice focuses on the fairness of the processes that lead to outcomes during work and is enhanced when they feel that the processes followed in distribution of resources are consistent, accurate and unbiased (Usmani, Siraj, 2013). Also, the treatment that teachers receive base on decisions that affect them is their interactional justice. To improve interactional justice, explanations must be provided for decisions and such decisions must be delivered with respect (DeConinck, 2010).

Perception of unfairness in processes, outcome and interpersonal treatments may result in dissatisfaction, which will finally compel teachers to think about quitting. According to the Equity Theory, teachers look at others in their social setting; they compare the ratio of their perceived

input-outcome to that of the referent other (Loi et al., 2006). In an attempt to rectify the unjust situation, teachers would either react behaviourally or psychologically (Loi et al., 2006). The unavailability of alternative jobs in Ghana makes it difficult for teachers to react behaviourally by quitting the profession. However, they react psychologically by having higher turnover intentions (Adusei et al., 2016).

Another theory that explains the research problem is the Self-Discrepancy Theory. This theory suggests that "*an employee has a 'threshold comparison level' that corresponds to the match between expected and actual outcomes from the job and organization*" (Thompson, 2008: 17). When there is disparity, the employee will endure the incongruity between their expectation and what they are getting to a certain point. If there is no improvement, they will react either psychologically or behaviourally. For example, teachers in Ghana expect certain rewards for their work. Consequently, the discrepancy between expectations and actual outcomes leads to negative behavioural outcomes such as dissatisfaction, low level of commitment and the intentions to quit the teaching profession (Adusei et al., 2016). The connection between job satisfaction, perception of justice and turnover intention has been documented by many researchers.

Generally, studies among non-teaching personnel show a significant relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions. However, little is known about teachers in Ghana (Adusei et al., 2016; Mahdi, & Zin, 2012; Shah, & Jumani, 2015). According to Mburu (2015), a significant negative correlation exists between job satisfaction and turnover intentions among public school teachers in Kenya. The study also found that dissatisfaction with pay predicts a significant variance in the turnover intentions of teachers.

In a study by Ali and Baloch (2011) shows that the components of job satisfaction affect the turnover intentions of employees. Among the predictors of job satisfaction, satisfaction with pay negatively predicts of turnover intention. Similarly, Shah and Jumani (2015) indicate that satisfaction with pay contributes significantly to turnover intentions among teachers. Yet, other components (work itself, promotion and supervision) moderately relate with turnover intention among the teachers.

In Ghana, job satisfaction negatively correlates with the intention to quit among teachers in public senior high schools in the Northern Region of Ghana (Kosi et al., 2015). According to Gyampoh (2012), job satisfaction significantly predicts turnover intentions among teachers in Ghana. However, findings on the correlation between the components of organizational justice and turnover intentions have not been consistent. For example, Tourani et al. (2016) found a significant negative relationship between organizational justice and turnover intentions with interactional and procedural justice correlating significantly with turnover intentions. However, the study did not report ant correlation between distributive justice and turnover intentions. The study also found no effect of gender on the intention to quit the job. Zaman, Ali and Ali (2015) also found that distributive and procedural justice contributes significantly to the intentions to quit a job. Khalil and Sharaf (2014) however found that distributive justice is the only component of organizational justice that predicts significant variance in employees' turnover intentions.

In Turkey, teacher's distributive and interpersonal justice perceptions negatively correlate with the intention to quit among teachers. However, procedural justice did not predict turnover intentions (Basar, Sıgrı, 2015). Suifan et al. (2017) alternatively found a negative correlation between all the four facets of organizational justice and turnover intentions. Thus, job satisfaction and perceived organizational justice have diverse implications on turnover intentions across different jobs. The purpose of the study is to identify the influence of perceptions of organizational justice and job satisfaction on turnover intentions of teachers in Ghana.

Accordingly, the following predictions were made by the researchers:

i. The combined components of job satisfaction will predict significant amount of turnover intentions among teachers

ii. Each component of job satisfaction will significantly predict turnover intentions

iii. The combined components of perceived organizational justice will contribute significantly to turnover intentions among teachers.

iv. The component of organizational justice will significantly predict turnover intentions among teachers

v. Males will have higher level of turnover intentions compared to females.

2. Method

2.1 Design

The study used the cross-sectional survey. It allows for large data collection within the shortest time (Bartlett, 2005).

2.2 Population

The population of the study are Senior High School teachers in the Offinso-South District of the Ashanti Region of Ghana. Offinso-South is one of the oldest districts in Ghana. Its capital is Offinso. There are three public senior high schools in the Offinso South District namely Dwamena Akenten Senior Secondary, Namong Senior Secondary and St Jerome Senior Secondary School. Teachers from these three senior high schools were used. The estimated number of teachers in these 3 senior high schools is 300.

2.3 Participants

Respondents for the study were recruited through convenience sampling technique. Of 120 questionnaires, only 114 questionnaires were returned [*Table 1 for description of the demographic characteristics*].

2.4 Measures

Three scales were used in measuring the main constructs of the study.

Organizational Justice: Perception of justice was measured with the Organizational Justice Index (OJI) (Niehoff, & Moorman, 1993). OJI is a 20-item scale assessing the degree to which employees perceive fairness in their jobs in terms of distributive, procedural and interactional justices. The procedural justice has 8 items (alpha value 0.94), interactional justice has 6 items (alpha value 0.89) and distributive justice has 6 items (alpha value 0.88). Responses to the items are rated on a 4-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = agree; and 4 = strongly agree). The scale has a Cronbach alpha of .91 (Khalil, & Sharaf, 2014). A sample item is "my supervisor has fairly rewarded me when I consider the responsibilities I have". Cronbach alpha for this scale in the present study was .86. Total scores ranged from 20 to 80 with higher score indicating higher level of organizational justices.

Job Satisfaction: The Teachers Satisfaction Scale (TSS) is developed by first author for the purpose of this study to measure job satisfaction among the teachers. The scale measures four components of job satisfaction. The 4 components provide a complete assessment of teachers' job satisfaction. The TSS is a 16-item scale that measures the four components; promotion, work itself and supervision. Responses to the four components are rated on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 0 - Strongly Disagree, 1 – Disagree, 2 – Agree, 3 – Strongly Agree. Pre-testing of the scale indicated a Cronbach alpha of .88. Correlating the TSS with the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, 1967) produced a reliability of .84. A sample item is "my remuneration is enough to meet all important expenses." Total scores ranged from 0 to 48 with higher score indicating higher level of teacher's job satisfaction.

Turnover Intentions: Turnover intention of teachers was measured with the Turnover Intention Scale (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979). The scale consists of 10 items measuring three indicators: thinking of quitting, intent to search, and intent to quit. Responses to the items are rated on a 4-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = agree; and 4 = strongly agree). The scale has an internal consistency of .83. An item on the scale is "I often think about quitting". Total scores ranged from 0 to 40 with higher score indicating higher level of turnover intentions.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the respondents

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
• Male	59	51.7
• Female	55	48.3
Marital Status		
• Single	41	36.0

• Married	73	64.0
Religion		
• Christianity	80	70.2
• Islamic	32	28.1
• ATM	2	1.7
Age Range		
• 20 – 25 years	12	10.5
• 26 – 30 years	24	21.1
• 31 – 35 years	30	26.3
• 36 – 40 years	32	28.1
• Above 40 years	16	14.0

2.5 Procedure

Introductory letters were presented to the three secondary schools to inform them about the study and also seek their permission to utilize the teachers for the study. With permission and consent of the school management granted, teachers in the schools were made known about the details and purpose of this study and asked to voluntarily consent to taking part in the study. Consented teachers were assured of their confidentiality regarding the responses they provide after which the questionnaires were administered to them to complete within a stipulated time. All the ethical principles outlined by the American Psychological Association in reference to the conduct of research using human beings were fully adhered to.

2.6 Data Analysis

Data analysis was done using the Statistical Package for Social Science (version 20). Inter-correlations among variables were first established as a requirement for performing the Multiple Regression Analysis (see Table 2).

Table 2. Zero-order correlations among the components of job satisfaction, organizational justice and turnover intentions

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Distributive	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2 Procedural	.36**	-	-	-	-	-	-
3 Interactional	.32**	.52**	-	-	-	-	-
4 Pay	.56**	.32**	.16*	-	-	-	-
5 Supervision	.22*	.13*	.17*	.40**	-	-	-
6 Work	.55**	.17*	.11*	.67**	.28**	-	-
7 Promotion	.42**	.20**	.16*	.30**	.32**	.33**	-
8 Turnover	-.45**	-.34**	-.23**	-.46**	-.23**	-.42**	-.26**

*Notes: *p < .05, **p < .01*

3. Results

Table 2 shows that all the variables significantly correlate with each other. Pay has the highest relationship with turnover intentions ($r = -.46$, $\rho < .05$) and interactional justice has the least correlation with turnover intentions ($r = -.23$, $\rho < .05$). The Regression Analysis (Model 1) in Table 3 shows that the combined components of job satisfaction explain 25.2% of variance in turnover intentions [$R^2 = .252$, $F_{(3, 109)} = 9.180$, $\rho < .01$]. For the individual contributions of job satisfaction on turnover intention, only pay significantly predicts teachers' turnover intention ($\beta = -.311$, $\rho < .01$). Supervision, ($\beta = -.022$, $\rho > .05$), work itself ($\beta = -.177$, $\rho > .05$) and promotion ($\beta = -.099$, $\rho > .05$) did not significantly predict teachers' turnover intentions.

Table 3. Regression analysis of the components of job satisfaction and organizational justice as predictors of turnover intentions

Model 1	*B*	SEB	*β*	*t*	*ρ*
Pay	-.693	.262	-.311	-2.640	.009*
Work	-.357	.230	-.177	-1.553	.123
Promotion	-.228	.209	-.099	-1.089	.278
Supervision	-.053	.226	-.022	-.235	.815
Model 2					
Distributive	-.497	.120	-.375	-4.149	.000**
Procedural	-.266	.130	-.206	-2.051	.043*
Interactional	-.006	.140	-.005	-.046	.964

Notes: *p<.05, **p<.01, R^2 = .252, F = 9.180** for model 1, R^2 = .241, F = 11.623** for model 2

The model 2 of the Multiple Regression Analysis shows that the three components of perceived organizational justice account for 24.1% of the variance in turnover intentions [R^2 = .241, $F_{(3, 110)}$ =11.623, $\rho < .01$]. Among the dimensions of organizational justice, distributive justice (β = -.375, $\rho < .01$) and procedural justice (β = -.206, $\rho < .01$) significantly account for variance in turnover intentions. However, interactional justice (β = -.005, $\rho > .05$) did not significantly account for variance in turnover intentions.

Table 4. Summarize results of gender differences in turnover intentions

Variable	N	Mean	*SD*	*df*	*t*	*ρ*
Males	59	23.98	6.33	112	.139	.890
Females	55	23.81	6.32			

The Independent *t*-Test (Table 4) indicates that there is no significant difference in level of turnover intentions between male and female teachers [$t_{(112)}$ = .139, p=.890].

4. Discussion

The results of the study indicate that job satisfaction has a significant negative correlation with turnover intention among teachers. This means that an increase in job satisfaction among teachers has the likelihood to decrease their intentions to quit. This finding is consistent with previous findings (Ali, Baloch, 2011; Mburu, 2015).

The study also reveals that among the components of job satisfaction, only pay contributes significantly to turnover intentions. This is also consistent with some studies among teachers (Mburu, 2015; Shah, Jumani, 2015). As explained by Kosi et al. (2015), teachers in Ghana place much emphasis on their pay because it is their sole determinant of livelihood. Thus, dissatisfaction with their pay produces an intention to quit. Promotions, work itself and supervision are not significant predictors of turnover intentions because these factors may come with insignificant effect on their pay. This is seen in how some of the respondents in the qualitative study by Adusei et al. (2016) show their loss of trust in the system of promotion and its influence on their salaries in Ghana.

Again, the results also predict that a significant negative relationship exists between perceived organizational justice and turnover intention among teachers. This finding is consistent with other findings in literature (Loi et al., 2006; Tourani et al., 2016). A possible explanation could be that teachers who perceive higher organizational justice feel that their efforts are being appreciated and so find no need to quit their organizations. From the self-discrepancy theory, a mismatch between teachers' expectations and actual outcomes in terms of justice, may lead to job dissatisfaction. When this happens, the teacher may tolerate the discrepancy to a certain point and if there is no improvement, may consequently react psychologically. Consequently, when teachers

perceive lower justice which mismatch with their actual expectations, turnover intentions are inevitable (Thompson, 2008).

In addition, distributive justice and procedural justice contribute significantly to turnover intentions. This finding agrees with the study by Zaman et al. (2015), which indicates that distributive justice and procedural justice are the only components of organizational justice that determines turnover intentions. Also, Abdel-Hadi et al. (2014) indicate that among the components of organizational justice, interactional justice did not contribute significantly to teachers' turnover. As explained by Suifan et al. (2017), each component of justice has exact role it performs in ensuring satisfaction among employees. However, teachers place much priority on their pay, which has to do more with distributive justice. Distributive justice and procedural justice are more important in predicting pay satisfaction as compared to interactional justice. When teachers receive enough remuneration, less emphasis is placed on interactional justice (Suifan et al., 2017).

Finally, there is no significant difference in the level of turnover intentions between male and female teachers. This suggests that in the teaching profession, males do not differ considerably from females on the level of turnover intentions. This finding is also consistent with previous findings on gender and turnover intentions (Tourani et al., 2016; Zaman et al., 2015). Male and female teachers receive the same remuneration per their rank and as a result, they may equally show similar levels of dissatisfaction in Ghana (Adusei et al., 2016).

5. Limitations

A future longitudinal research design may provide a better understanding the role of time in determining the effects of job satisfaction and organizational justice on turnover intentions. In spite of this limitation, the Ministry of Education and the Ghana Education Service need to design intervention programmes that can help improve teachers' levels of job satisfaction and perception of justice. Furthermore, emphasis must be placed on the remunerations of the teachers for better rates of retention.

6. Conclusion

The findings of the study establish that job satisfaction and distributive justice account for significant variance of turnover intentions among teachers. Teachers pay is also the only components of job satisfaction which significantly predicts turnover intentions. Distributive and procedural justice also significantly account for the level of turnover intentions. The study did not find any significant difference in the turnover intentions among male and female teachers.

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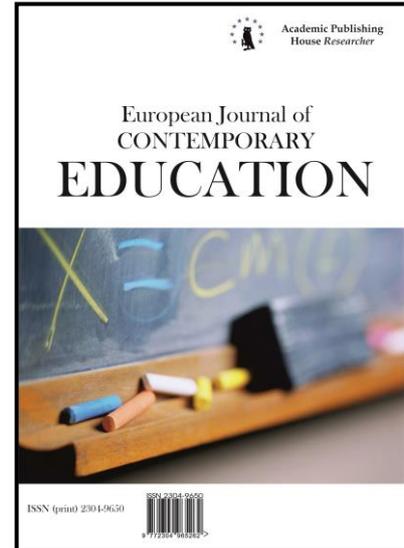
Exploring and Assessing Cross-cultural Sensitivity in Bosnian Tertiary Education: Is there a real promise of harmonious coexistence?

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Abstract

The aim of this research was to examine how university type, nationality, GPA, gender and grade level affect the cross-cultural sensitivity of students at tertiary level of education in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The revised and updated Inventory of Cross-Cultural Sensitivity (ICCSv2) was utilized for data collection. It contains four subscales: cultural inclusion, cultural behavioral integration, cultural anxiety, and cognitive flexibility. The representative sample consists of 219 students. The results have shown that university type, GPA and nationality have a significant effect on the development of cross-cultural sensitivity, while gender and students' grade level do not appear to have a significant impact on cross-cultural sensitivity. The results suggest that university along with its peculiar properties has a significant influence on shaping students' cross-cultural development. The major implication of the study is that some aspects of cross-cultural sensitivity can be developed further in the university milieu and through curriculum adjustment.

Keywords: cross-cultural sensitivity, university, grade level, GPA, gender, nationality.

1. Introduction

Culture can be defined as any framework of expectations and values (Brislin, Yoshida, 1994) and as 'learned and shared patterns of beliefs, behaviors, and values of groups of interacting people' (Bennett, 1998: 2). With economic globalization, rapid technological development and blending of myriads of different cultures resulting in rich cultural diversity, the amount of direct contact between people of diverse cultural backgrounds is increasing (Brislin, Yoshida, 1994; Yu, Chen, 2008). This cross-cultural contact and social interaction create a need for the development of deep sensitivity to cultural diversity. Anderson, Lawton, Rexeisen, and Hubbard (2006, p. 3) believe that "our ability to function effectively in an environment depends upon our skill in recognizing and responding appropriately to the values and expectations of those around us". The aforementioned authors also maintain that a combination of an individual's sensitivity to

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cultural differences and his potential for adjusting his behavior to those differences will become exceedingly valuable as his environment becomes more diverse and as economic globalization intensifies (Anderson et al., 2006).

Bosnia and Herzegovina* is an increasingly diverse country, with three dominant ethnic groups, declaring themselves as members of different religions and claiming to speak different languages, and with a growing number of immigrants, entrepreneurs, particularly from Turkey and Arab countries, as well as international students at several recently established private international universities (Bećirović et al., 2017). Taking into consideration strained relationships among these three culturally divergent groups as residues of the unfortunate 1990s events and a rather limited previous contact of Bosnian people with different cultures, there seems to exist a compelling need in Bosnian and Herzegovinian society for intensive work on the promotion of intercultural values through the educational systems and this paper presents an important move in that direction. The focus of this research is to determine the level of cross-cultural sensitivity among university-level students in B&H. Since the research encompasses local students of different ethnical groups studying at a public university and both local and international students with different cultural backgrounds studying at two private international universities, it presents research findings on cross-cultural sensitivity in Bosnian tertiary education on both local and international level.

1.1. Literature review and background

The notion of cultural sensitivity has received a lot of attention in the field of intercultural education (Anderson et al., 2006; Aoki, 1992; Bennett, Bennett, 2004; Bhawuk, Brislin, 1992; Chen, Starosta, 1997; Hammer et al., 2003; Kapoor et al., 2000; Stone, 2006), and it has been defined as 'the ability to be sensitive to cues that are often subtle or unfamiliar and to adjust behavior and expectations accordingly' (Stone, 2006: 348). Research into cultural sensitivity focuses on either cross-cultural or intercultural sensitivity and despite the fact that these terms are sometimes used interchangeably (Bennett, 2010; Stone, 2006), in every in-depth analysis they have to be clearly disambiguated. As defined by Bennett (2010, 2012), the term cross-cultural refers to the contact among people from two or more cultures and this term is more likely to be used for a comparison among different cultural contexts. On the other hand, the term intercultural is more likely to be used for the interaction between members of different groups and refers either to a particular kind of contact in which cultural differences play a role in the creation of meaning or 'the kind of skills or competence necessary to deal with cross-cultural contact' (Bennett, 2010: 2).

Thus, intercultural sensitivity is claimed to be the crucial factor that enables people to live and work with people from different cultural backgrounds (Landis, Bhagat, 1996). It is defined as "the ability to discriminate and experience relevant cultural differences' (Hammer et al., 2003: 423) and as 'a sensitivity to the importance of cultural differences and to the points of view of people in other cultures' (Bhawuk, Brislin 1992: 414). Cross-cultural sensitivity is also referred to as the awareness and acceptance of other cultures and is defined as 'sensitivity to intercultural differences in general' (Aoki, 1992: 114). Bennett (1993) claims that intercultural sensitivity is not an inherent trait but it develops through experience and the core of its development is acquiring the ability to understand and experience cultural differences in a more complex way (Hammer et al., 2003). Thus, intercultural sensitivity can contribute to the development of necessary skills needed for an efficient performance in the increasingly complex global environment (Earnest, 2003).

Bennett (1986, 1993) created the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS) aiming to explain why people react differently to cultural experiences. Bennett's DMIS model describes progressive stages of intercultural development through which people pass when they face difficulties in encountering other cultures, with the initial stage of the explicit denial of the existing cultural differences, namely ultimate *ethnocentrism*, to the closing final stage of noticing and accepting cultural differences, namely ethnorelativism (Bennett, 1993). The basic premise of Bennett's model is that the competence to interact with others and those different from us increases when someone's understanding of cultural differences becomes more sophisticated, i.e.

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* For the ease of reference, Bosnia and Herzegovina will be further referred to as B&H.

when someone's worldview incorporates cultural differences into their new identity (Hammer, Bennett, 2002).

Intercultural and cross-cultural sensitivity have been measured in different cultural contexts. Anderson, Lawton, Rexeisen, & Hubbard (2006) conducted research into intercultural sensitivity to assess the extent to which a short-term, faculty-led study abroad, as well as academic ability and gender, can affect intercultural sensitivity of student learners. In their subsequent study, the aforementioned authors measured whether the improvement in intercultural sensitivity continues months after the students return back from studying abroad (Anderson et al., 2008). Their research has shown that study abroad programs have a positive short-term impact on students' intercultural development, while the long-term impact of study abroad remains to be investigated further. Czerwionka, Artamonova, & Barbosa (2014) examined the intercultural competence development of Spanish students participating in a six-week study abroad program in Madrid. The research results showed a significant improvement in students' intercultural competencies, including intercultural knowledge, attitude, and skills. Aoki (1992, p. 107) conducted research into the effects of the culture assimilator as a teaching technique in cross-cultural education. His investigation focused on the assessment of the effectiveness of the Japanese Culture Assimilator in American college students' cross-cultural understanding and attitudes. His findings did not show positive effects on subjects' cross-cultural sensitivity or on their attitudes towards Japanese culture, but the reading of the culture assimilator increased their cross-cultural understanding, added sophistication to their cross-cultural thinking related to two specific cultures included, and added to the greater acceptance of Japanese people (Aoki, 1992). Jones, Neubrander, & Huff (2012) investigated the effects of an intense cultural immersion experience on nursing students' cultural attitudes. The students participating in an intensive ten-day clinical cultural experience in South America were pre-tested and post-tested and they recorded their guided journal trip experiences. The results showed improvement in students' attitudes towards cultural differences in the travel group, but the improvement was insignificant (Jones et al., 2012).

B&H is believed to be more culturally diverse than any other country in the Balkans, since it is the intersection of three different ethnic groups (Bosniaks, Croats, Serbs and others), different religions (Islam, Christianity, Orthodox Christianity, Judaism, etc.), and different, but structurally similar languages (Bosnian, Croatian and Serbian). Although claimed to be maintained, the diversity in this region has repeatedly jeopardized the coexistence of these culturally divergent groups, often resulting in armed conflicts occurring once in fifty years or even three times in a century. These conflicts almost always led to additional divisions of the region into smaller ethnically dominant areas or even independent countries and thus a man living in this region is said to be born in one country and die in another (Cvitković, 2005).

B&H, largely torn by the late 1992-1995 war, is still a hotspot of this unresolved ethnic bigotry. These unfortunate events from the 1990s caused a far-reaching change in attitudes towards members of other ethnic and religious groups which prevail even today under the impact of pre-election political campaigns and political struggle steadily working its way through the mass media. A growing intolerance towards the others has resulted in a widening gap between Bosniaks, Croats and Serbs, particularly between young people belonging to these three groups. In some parts of the country, Bosnian youth even attend schools divided based on ethnic segregation, which are widely known as 'two schools under the same roof'. Rich internal diversity has been steadily increasing in the past few decades due to the considerable growth of the number of immigrants, asylum seekers, entrepreneurs etc. Apart from the aforementioned groups, a significant number of international students have come to live and study in B&H at several private international universities established in the country (Rizvić, Bećirović, 2017). These universities are attended by students from B&H, the countries of the Balkan region, and many other world countries. However, the largest number of international students comes from Turkey.

Thus, Bosnian-Herzegovinian society, known for its diversity (ethnic, religious, linguistic etc.) and wealthier in that respect than many other European and world countries, is in urgent need of a comprehensive and continuous activity on the promotion of intercultural values through the educational system (Bećirović, 2012). This need is further heightened by the fact that B&H is a member of the Council of Europe and is striving to become a member of the European Union, the domain in which intercultural values are carefully fostered. Intercultural upbringing and education, viewed in the context of European values promotion and support for the European

dimension of education as the dominant guideline in educational policies of European countries, reflect the need for a novel approach to designing an international curriculum as a sub-construction process that is developed through interaction in a concrete social context (Brdarević Čeljo, Asotić, 2017; Dantow et al., 2002).

Thus, this research can be highly beneficial as there are not many empirical studies that deal with interculturality and intercultural education in the Balkan region, and with cross-cultural sensitivity in particular. Bećirović (2015) conducted a research on intercultural elements in curriculums and religious education school textbooks and intercultural attitudes of religious education teachers. The findings confirmed the existence of elements that may contribute to intercultural development, as well as elements that may lead to ethnocentrism. The same researcher carried out the analysis of English language textbooks used in Bosnian and Herzegovinian educational system (Bećirović, 2016) and the research results showed that there exists a systematic approach to the promotion of intercultural values. However, it is worth mentioning that there is some difference in the promotion of intercultural values between English language textbooks, published by the International publishers such as Pearson and Longman, and textbooks written by local authors and published at the local level. For instance, Husremović, Powell, Šišić, and Dolić (2007) conducted an analysis of history, geography, native language and religious education textbooks used in the educational system in B&H and identified the presence of elements that can contribute to intercultural competence, as well as elements that can have a negative impact on intercultural skills

Since previous experience has shown that an exceptionally low level of tolerance for diversity at the territory of B&H and the Balkans can have devastating consequences, people of different cultural backgrounds, youth in particular, must develop deep intercultural and cross-cultural sensitivity and competence to eliminate bigotry and prevent the recurrence of any kind of conflict and as a result to live harmoniously and peacefully in this culturally divergent society. As no empirical studies in the field of cross-cultural sensitivity have been undertaken in Bosnian context, this research can surely fill the gap in expert literature related to this matter and may be used as a guideline for the adjustment and improvement of all the curriculums followed in Bosnian education system.

2. The current study

The aim of this research was to examine how university type, nationality, GPA, gender and grade level were related to the cross-cultural sensitivity of students at tertiary level of education in B&H. Using participants' university, nationality, gender, grade level and GPA as independent variables, we explored the cross-cultural sensitivity and its four subscales (cultural inclusion, cultural behavioral integration, cultural anxiety, and cognitive flexibility) developed by each group of the participants. Therefore, the following hypotheses were tested:

1. H_0 There is no statistically significant difference in cross-cultural sensitivity including its subscales based on university type.
2. H_0 There is no statistically significant difference in cross-cultural sensitivity including its subscales based on students' grade level.
3. H_0 There is no statistically significant difference in cross-cultural sensitivity including its subscales based on students' GPA.
4. H_0 There is no statistically significant difference in cross-cultural sensitivity including its subscales based on gender.
5. H_0 There is no statistically significant difference in cross-cultural sensitivity including its subscales based on nationality.

2.1. Participants

The stratified random sampling was employed in the process of participants' selection. The research sample consists of 219 students from three universities in B&H: 62 participants from one public university (28.3 %) located in Zenica-Doboj Canton, and 157 (71.7 %) from two private universities, both located in Sarajevo Canton. 69 students from one private international university and 88 participants from the other private university participated in the study. Students from public university belong to different ethnic and religious groups elaborated in the cultural

background section. The students studying at two private universities come from Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Balkan region and Turkey, with some students from other world countries as well. Currently, 36% of the first private university students and 40 % of the second private university students are international (the percentage is subject to change) and the remaining students at these universities come from different cantons in B&H and belong to different ethnic and religious groups. The research sample comprises 121 female and 98 male participants, with the age span from 18 to 35, and with the mean of age M = 21.5 and standard deviation SD = 3.11. The sample consists of 125 Bosnian students, 78 Turkish students and 16 students of other nationalities, all of them being either freshmen, sophomores, juniors, seniors or master level students. Based on the students' GPA, the research sample includes four groups of participants: group 1 with GPA 6.9 or less, group 2 with GPA 7.0-7.9, group 3 with GPA 8.0-8.9, and group 4 with GPA 9.0-10. A detailed description of participants is provided in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive analysis of participants

Variable	Group	N	Percent
Type of the University	Public	62	28.3
	Private	157	71.7
	Bosnian	125	57.1
Nationality	Turkish	78	35.6
	Others	16	7.3
Gender	Female	121	55.3
	Male	98	44.7
	Freshman	55	25.1
	Sophomore	42	19.2
Grade level	Junior	38	17.4
	Senior	60	27.4
	Master	24	11
	Group 1 (6.9 or less)	34	15.5
GPA	Group 2 (7.0-7.9)	76	34.7
	Group 3 (8.0-8.9)	62	28.3
	Group 4 (9.0-10)	47	21.5
Total		219	100

2.2. Measures and procedures

In this research the Inventory of Cross-Cultural Sensitivity (ICCSv2), the updated version of the ICCS developed by Cushner in 1986 (Mahon, Cushner 2014), was employed. The same instrument was used by different authors (Aoki, 1992; Loo, 1999; Martinsen, 2010, Alonso-Marks, 2012). When it was initially developed, the ICCS was tested on multiple populations and it was determined that it has an acceptable content and construct validity. The original instrument consisted of 32 questions with five scales (Cushner, 2003), including cultural integration (α = 0.94), behavior (α = 0.70), intellectual interaction (α = 0.88), attitudes towards others (α = 0.78), and empathy (α = 0.52) (Mahon, Cushner, 2014). However, Cushner revised and updated the Inventory of Cross-Cultural Sensitivity (ICCSv2) and the empathy scale was dropped due to its weakness and the fixed four factors were analyzed (Mahon, Cushner, 2014). Thus, the Inventory of Cross-Cultural Sensitivity (ICCSv2) used in this study includes the following subscales: cultural inclusion (13 items), cultural behavioral integration (10 items), cultural anxiety (11 items, all these subscale items were reverse-coded) and cognitive flexibility (10 items). An item example of cultural inclusion is "I have at least one good friend with whom I interact weekly whose family speaks a different language than mine does". For the subscale cultural behavioral integration, an example item is: "I enjoy studying about people from other cultures" and for cultural anxiety, an example item is: "When I am in a new situation, I often feel stressed because I do not know

the appropriate way to behave" (the reverse code). For the last subscale, namely cognitive flexibility, an example item is: "I enjoy having people from different cultures to my home on a regular basis". The Inventory consists of 44 statements and a 7-point Likert scale,-ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The instrument contains two sections. Section A contains items related to demographic variables and Section B contains items related to cross-cultural sensitivity. The data about participants' GPA was collected through students' self-report statements. Based on the grading system used in Bosnian higher education, the minimum possible grade is 5 and the maximum 10.

After getting adequate consent, the inventory was administered to the students in classrooms, and the researchers properly explained to the students how to complete the inventory. The average time spent on completing the inventory was about 25 minutes.

2.3. Data analysis

In order to analyze the data gathered from the research participants, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23.0 was used and descriptive statistics in terms of means, standard deviations, and frequencies were employed. A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between different subscales of cross-cultural sensitivity. Null hypotheses were tested by inferential tests. Since all the assumptions were met, the one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and an Independent-samples t-test were employed. In order to measure an effect size, Eta squared and Cohen's d were employed.

3. Results

The descriptive findings including the number of participants, means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and correlations are presented in Table 2. The internal consistency reliability of the variables is acceptable. A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between cultural inclusion, cultural behavioral integration, cultural anxiety, and cognitive flexibility components. There was a positive correlation between all variables and it was significant except for the correlation between cultural behavioral integration and cognitive flexibility $p = .38$. The results show the strongest correlation between cognitive flexibility and cultural anxiety $r(219) = .48$, $p < .001$. The correlation between cultural inclusion and cultural anxiety is also significant $r(219) = .34$, $p < .001$. The detailed descriptive results, reliability scores and the correlations between all subscales are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics, Reliabilities, and Correlations among Variables

	N	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Cultural behavioral integration	219	4.74	0.82	(.82)			
2. Cultural inclusion	219	4.88	0.81	.23**	(.74)		
3. Cognitive flexibility	219	4.29	0.81	.06	.19**	(.70)	
4. Cultural anxiety	219	4.75	0.88	.16*	.33**	.48**	(.81)
Total score	219	4.68	0.55				

Note: Values on the diagonal in parentheses are Cronbach's coefficients.
*. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

Question 1. Is there a statistically significant difference in cross-cultural sensitivity between private and public university?

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the cross-cultural sensitivity of the students from public and private universities. There was an insignificant difference in the scores between the private university participants ($M = 4.71$, $SD = 0.57$) and the public university participants ($M = 4.62$, $SD = 0.49$); $t(217) = 1.10$, $p = .286$, $d = .16$. These results suggest that the type of the university does not have a significant effect on cross-cultural sensitivity. As for the four subscales, a significant difference has been found only with respect to the Cultural inclusion subscale ($p < .001$, $d = .62$), where the mean score ($M = 5.01$, $SD = 0.84$) for the participants from

the two private universities is significantly higher than the mean score ($M = 4.88$, $SD = 0.81$) for the participants from the public university. The mean scores on Cultural anxiety, Cultural Behavior integration, and Cognitive flexibility subscales are higher for the participants from the public university, but these differences are insignificant (Table 3).

Table 3. Descriptive results, significance, and effect size of subscales based on the type of university

	Private Universities		Public University			
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	*p*	Cohen's d
Cultural beh. integ.	4.72	0.86	4.81	0.71	.482	.11
Cultural anxiety	4.74	0.89	4.76	0.87	.870	.02
Cultural inclusion	5.01	0.84	4.55	0.63	<.001	.62
Cognitive flexibility	4.26	0.85	4.36	0.89	.381	.11
Total	4.71	0.57	4.62	0.49	.286	.16

Question 2. Is there a statistically significant difference in cross-cultural sensitivity based on students' grade level?

A one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare cross-cultural sensitivity among students from different grade levels. There was an insignificant difference at $p > .05$ between the students of different grade levels $F (4.214) = 0.941$, $p = .441$, $\eta^2 = .017$. Master students achieved the highest mean score $M = 4.82$ ($SD = 0.50$), while freshmen students obtained the lowest mean score $M = 4.60$ ($SD = 0.51$). Thus, the results indicate that cross-cultural sensitivity increases by the year of the study, the only exception being senior students, who achieved lower mean score $M = 4.69$ ($SD = 0.62$) than junior students $M = 4.76$ ($SD = 0.59$). Therefore, the statistical analysis has shown that grade level does not have a significant effect on cross-cultural sensitivity. As for the subscales, no significant difference has been found in any of the subscales (Table 4).

Table 4. Descriptive results, significance, and effect size of cross-cultural sensitivity and its subscales based on the grade level

Variable	Freshman		Sophomore		Junior		Senior		Master		*p*	η^2
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Cultural beh. integ.	4.73	0.99	4.81	0.78	4.79	0.87	4.81	0.91	4.69	0.50	.969	.003
Cultural anxiety	4.64	0.82	4.60	0.84	4.88	1.05	4.81	0.91	4.94	0.75	.371	.020
Cultural inclusion	4.70	0.64	4.79	0.91	4.93	0.80	4.97	0.84	5.17	0.90	.115	.034
Cognitive flexibility	4.30	0.76	4.31	0.79	4.38	0.98	4.19	0.76	4.37	0.82	.801	.008
Total	4.60	0.51	4.64	0.50	4.76	0.60	4.70	0.62	4.82	0.50	.441	.017

Question 3. Is there a statistically significant difference in cross-cultural sensitivity based on students' GPA?

A one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare the cross-cultural sensitivity of students with different GPA. There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ for four groups $F (3.215) = 4.39$, $p = .005$, with an almost medium effect size $\eta^2 = .058$. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for the first group's cross-cultural sensitivity ($M = 4.50$, $SD = 0.54$) was significantly different ($p = .043$) from the mean score

for group 3 (*M* = 4.81, *SD* = 0.48) and also significantly different (*p* = .047) from the mean score for group 4 (*M* = 4.82, *SD* = 0.60). However, the mean score of cross-cultural sensitivity for the second group (*M* = 4.57, *SD* = 0.55) does not statistically differ from the mean score for any group. Taken together, these results suggest that there is a statistically significant difference in cross-cultural sensitivity among groups of participants with different GPA. Specifically, our results suggest that GPA significantly affects cross-cultural sensitivity. As for the subscales the results showed a significant difference in cultural anxiety *p* = .013 with a medium effect size η^2 = .049 between the first and the third (*p* = .043) and the first and the fourth group (*p* = .036), then in cultural inclusion *p* = .036 with an medium effect size η^2 = .039 between the second and the fourth group (*p* = .024), and in cognitive flexibility *p* = .013 likewise with a medium effect size η^2 = .049 between the first and the third (*p* = .029) and between the second and the third group (*p* = .025). The descriptive results, significance, and effect size for cross-cultural sensitivity and its subscales based on students' GPA are displayed in Table 5.

Table 5. Descriptive results, significance, and effect size of cross-cultural sensitivity and its subscales based on students' GPA

Variable	Group 1 (6.9 or less)		Group 2 (7.0-7.9)		Group 3 (8.0-8.9)		Group 4 (9.0-10)		*p*	η^2
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Cultural beh. integ.	4.57	0.77	4.76	0.86	4.78	0.77	4.82	0.88	.573	.009
Cultural anxiety	4.42	0.99	4.63	0.85	4.92	0.79	4.97	0.91	.013	.049
Cultural inclusion	4.84	0.61	4.70	0.86	4.95	0.74	5.13	0.90	.036	.039
Cognitive flexibility	4.08	0.80	4.17	0.85	4.56	0.72	4.29	0.80	.013	.049
Total	4.50	0.54	4.58	0.55	4.81	0.48	4.83	0.60	.005	.058

Question 4. Is there a statistically significant difference in cross-cultural sensitivity based on gender?

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the cross-cultural sensitivity of female and male participants. There was an insignificant difference in the scores for female (*M* = 4.74, *SD* = 0.54) and male (*M* = 4.61, *SD* = 0.56) participants; *t* (217) = 1.72, *p* = .086, *d* = .233. These results suggest that gender does not have a significant effect on cross-cultural sensitivity. As for the four subscales, the mean scores for female participants are higher than the mean scores for male participants in all measures but these differences are insignificant (*p* > .05). The effect size is the largest on the cultural anxiety subscale *d* = .13 and the cultural behavior integration subscale *d* = .08 (Table 6).

Table 6. Descriptive results, significance, and effect size of subscales based on gender

	Female		Male		*p*	Cohen's d
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Cultural beh. integration	4.81	0.82	4.67	0.82	.219	.08
Cultural anxiety	4.85	0.84	4.62	0.92	.059	.13
Cultural inclusion	4.92	0.79	4.84	0.83	.478	.04
Cognitive flexibility	4.32	0.78	4.24	0.84	.474	.04
Total	4.74	0.54	4.61	0.56	.086	.233

Question 5. Is there a statistically significant difference in cross-cultural sensitivity based on nationality?

A one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare the cross-cultural sensitivity of students of different nationalities: Bosnian, Turkish, and others. There was a statistically significant difference at $p < .05$ for three groups $F (2.216) = 11.8$, $p < .001$, with a medium effect size $\eta^2 = .099$. Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score cross-cultural sensitivity for Bosnian students ($M = 4.82$, $SD = 0.53$) was significantly different ($p = .001$) from the mean score for Turkish students ($M = 4.45$, $SD = 0.51$) and not significantly different ($p = .934$) from the mean score for the "other" students ($M = 4.77$, $SD = 0.58$). However, the mean score of cross-cultural sensitivity for Turkish students does not statistically differ ($p = .074$) from the mean score for the group of "others". Taken together, these results suggest that nationality has significant effects on cross-cultural sensitivity.

The results show a significant difference on two cross-cultural subscales: Cultural anxiety ($p < .001$) where the mean score for Bosnian students ($M = 4.94$, $SD = 0.84$) is significantly higher than the mean score for Turkish students ($M = 4.43$, $SD = 0.86$), and Cognitive flexibility ($p < .001$) where the mean score for Bosnian students ($M = 4.44$, $SD = 0.74$) is significantly higher than the mean score for Turkish participants ($M = 3.97$, $SD = 0.82$). The results did not show a significant difference on Cultural behavioral integration ($p = .130$) and Cultural inclusion ($p = .077$) subscales. The results show moderate effect size for Cognitive flexibility ($\eta^2 = .090$) and Cultural anxiety subscales ($\eta^2 = .074$) and small for Cultural behavioral integration component ($\eta^2 = .019$) and for cultural inclusion ($\eta^2 = .023$) (Table 7).

Table 7. Descriptive results, significance, and effect size of subscales based on nationality

Variable	Bosnian		Turkish		Other		p	η^2
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Cultural beh. integration	4.83	0.79	4.59	0.90	4.81	0.61	.130	.019
Cultural anxiety	4.94	0.84	4.43	0.86	4.82	0.90	.001	.074
Cultural inclusion	4.99	0.86	4.73	0.75	4.80	0.90	.077	.023
Cognitive flexibility	4.44	0.74	3.97	0.82	4.63	0.78	.001	.090
Total	4.82	0.53	4.53	0.51	4.77	0.58	< .001	.099

4. Discussion

The null hypothesis which stated that there is no statistically significant difference in cross-cultural sensitivity between students who study at public and private universities has been supported. Despite the fact that the mean score for private universities is higher, the difference is insignificant and there is no practical effect ($d = .16$). Private universities have a significantly higher mean score with a moderate effect size only on the cultural inclusion subscale ($p < .001$, $d = .619$) but the public university has insignificantly higher mean scores on all the other subscales.

We further hypothesized that there is no statistically significant difference in cross-cultural sensitivity based on students' grade level. Despite the fact that participants' cross-cultural sensitivity increases by the year of the study, this increase is not statistically significant ($p = .441$, $\eta^2 = .017$), and thus it can be concluded that grade level does not have a significant impact on cross-cultural sensitivity and this null hypothesis has been supported. Grade level also does not have a significant impact on any of the subscales of cross-cultural sensitivity.

The null hypothesis, which suggested that there is no statistically significant difference in cross-cultural sensitivity based on students' GPA, has been refuted ($p = .005$, $\eta^2 = .058$). The Post Hoc test indicates that the group of students with the lowest GPA (6.9 or less) shows a significantly lower level of cross-cultural sensitivity than the groups of students with GPAs from 8.0-8.9 and 9.0-10.0. These results are in agreement with the findings of Rienties, Tempelaar & Whitelock (2017) which showed that high-performing students often express a desire for stronger relationships with cross-cultural group members and mid- to low-performing students are much more likely to generate social tensions that may negatively affect cross-cultural group work process. Significant differences have also been found on the cultural anxiety, cultural inclusion and cognitive flexibility subscales.

The null hypothesis, which predicted that there is no statistically significant difference in cross-cultural sensitivity including its subscales based on gender, has been supported. Gender does

not have a significant impact on cross-cultural sensitivity ($p = .086$, $d = .23$), nor on any of the subscales. Even though the difference in cross-cultural sensitivity between male and female students is insignificant, female participants have a higher mean score. These results are in line with the research findings of Anderson, Lawton, Rexeisen & Hubbard (2008) which also revealed an insignificant difference, but their female participants consistently had a higher score on measuring overall intercultural development.

The null hypothesis, which proposed that there is no statistically significant difference in cross-cultural sensitivity based on nationality, has been refuted, as the results show that nationality significantly affects cross-cultural sensitivity ($p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .099$). Significant differences have also been found on all subscales except on the Cultural behavioral integration scale. The differences in cross-cultural sensitivity among three groups of students, namely Bosnian, Turkish, and other students, were also tested and the Post Hoc test showed that Bosnian students expressed the highest level of cross-cultural sensitivity. Many Bosnian participants study at international universities, and therefore they have had ample opportunities to develop cross-cultural skills while interacting with students from different cultures through their study programs etc. On the other hand, Turkish participants exhibited the lowest level of cross-cultural sensitivity, probably resulting from their general lack of social interactions with people from other cultures. Turkish participants mostly spend their time in homogenous groups during their studies, either in extracurricular activities, in dormitories, or in private apartments they rent, and some major Turkish communities, including entire families, even run their own businesses in B&H. In addition, many Turkish students celebrate every important event related to Turkey together, such as the winning election results of a favorite political party, the winning of the Turkish national team etc., on the main streets and squares of Sarajevo. In another cross-cultural study, Rienties, Tempelaar & Whitelock (2017) have also found that social relationships are necessary components of cross-cultural collaboration and that tensions in cross-cultural group work are due to a lack of social relationships. Since there is a great emphasis in the Turkish society on the interdependence of its members (Kagitçibasi, 1996) and since Turkish society displays a deeply rooted collectivistic social structure (Kagitçibasi, 1996; Phalet, Hagendoorn, 1996), Turkish students evidently foster closer mutual relationships than other students and they succeed in shaping each other's attitudes. Therefore, all of the aforementioned facts might have had an effect on their development of cross-cultural sensitivity. This is in agreement with Kelly's (1963) view that students can study abroad without experiencing the culture of the country they reside in. This is further strengthened by the results of Medina-Lo´pez-Portillo's (2004) research into the development of intercultural sensitivity of students spending 7 weeks or a semester in Mexico. The statistical significance of these results measuring the development of intercultural sensitivity was minor. Based on these facts, it might be stated that study abroad does not necessarily contribute to the development of cross-cultural sensitivity unless foreign students are exposed to some common experience and are involved into activities that will develop and strengthen their cross-cultural sensitivity. The results also lead to the conclusion that international students studying in B&H will not necessarily develop deeper cross-cultural sensitivity than local students. This conclusion is in line with the research results of Patterson (2006) who found only a small improvement in the intercultural sensitivity of the students who studied abroad and no improvement in the intercultural sensitivity of those students with a traditional classroom experience. However, some other studies reported different findings. Anderson, Lawton, Rexeisen & Hubbard (2006) found that a short-term study abroad had a positive impact on intercultural sensitivity. The same researchers also found that the longitudinal study abroad had a positive short-term impact on intercultural sensitivity, while the long-term impact remains in question (Anderson et al., 2008).

The results of this research should be a challenge, as well as a stimulus, to all those who strive to improve the quality of tertiary education and cross-cultural relationships. Since no similar research has been conducted among participants with similar cultural backgrounds either in B&H or the entire Balkan region, this study substantially contributes to the expert literature by documenting how different variables may affect cross-cultural sensitivity. The study also addresses the issue of a long-term impact on students and society in general. Introducing activities that improve and develop cross-cultural relations into the existing curriculums and educational approaches will inspire greater mutual respect and the acceptance of culturally different others, ensure closer cooperation and facilitate the overall progress, which will have a tremendous importance for B&H and the entire region. Since educational systems can play a crucial role in raising young people's awareness of the importance of developing effective cultural relations and

deep cross-cultural sensitivity, curriculum adjustments and changes in educational approaches can perform a major role in helping raise generations of young people to live in peace and harmony and work together towards a sustainable development of Bosnian society.

The limitation of this study lies in the fact that students' cross-cultural sensitivity was measured during their studies, without any pretest conducted prior to their enrolment at university. This pretest would have helped determine whether any important changes occur in cross-cultural sensitivity after a period of studying abroad. This is in line with the findings in Paige, Cohen, & Shively (2004) and Engle & Engle (2004), which confirmed that students' cross-cultural sensitivity increases as their study progresses.

Furthermore, testing the last null hypothesis is limited by the fact that the group named "others" includes only 16 participants, even though many experts require that the minimum number of participants per group be 20 (Simmons et al., 2011). However, McMillan (2012), maintains that the minimum number of participants per group is 10.

5. Conclusion

This research reveals the role and effects of tertiary education on the development of cross-cultural sensitivity in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Positive correlations have been discovered to exist between different components of cross-cultural sensitivity among tertiary-level students in such a way that the increase in one component causes the increase in the other components of cross-cultural sensitivity. The attribute 'international' in the name of university does not guarantee that such a university will have a significant effect on cross-cultural sensitivity. It has to encompass some other important elements, relevant experiences and conditions that will improve students' cross-cultural sensitivity. Thus, the public university had a greater influence on cross-cultural sensitivity than the other international university.

Furthermore, the participants' study progress has positive but insignificant effects on cross-cultural sensitivity, because the research results show that there is an insignificant increase in the participants' mean score parallel to their study progress. In addition, students' GPA has a significant influence on cross-cultural sensitivity, as the participants with a higher GPA express a significantly deeper cross-cultural sensitivity. Moreover, female students express an insignificantly deeper cross-cultural sensitivity than male students. This research further revealed that local students express deeper cross-cultural sensitivity than international students despite their pursuing study abroad. That can be explained by the fact that the majority of local students live in a deeply intercultural environment and study at international universities. Despite the fact that international students also study at the same universities, they spend a lot of time in homogenous cultural groups. The claim that such groupings may shape attitudes and cross-cultural sensitivity is also supported by the results obtained through this analysis, which revealed that the group 'others' composed of students of different nationality display deeper cross-cultural sensitivity than the international students belonging to one homogeneous national group, in this case the group of Turkish students.

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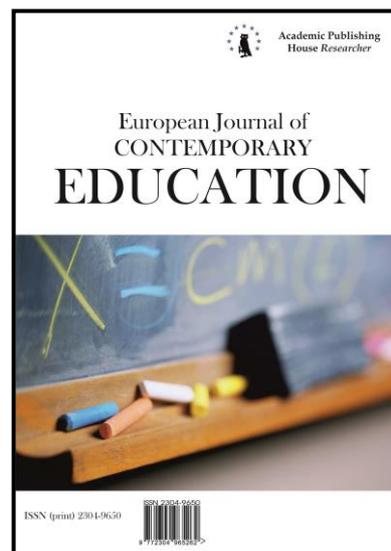
Management of Development of Creative Civil Activity of Student's Youth

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Abstract

Management of development of creative civil activity of student's youth reveal in article, results of research work on formation of creative civil activity of student's youth in educational work of higher education institution are described. Formation of civil activity is presented in the form of the model realized during three interconnected stages: theoretical-procedural (search), interiorization (transformative-reflexive) and eksteriorization (practice-oriented). The experience of transformative reflexive forms of work (the school of social development, youth forums, design work) is described on the basis of the Anton Chekhov Institute. Personally focused, activity, axiological approaches made methodological base of work. Material of the publication can be useful to organizers of educational work with students of universities, to teachers to acquaintance to pedagogical experience of social and civil education.

Keywords: psychology and pedagogical conditions, creative civil activity, student's youth, educational work, forum, project work.

1. Introduction

Education of the citizen is one of the priority directions of youth policy. It is urged to provide the steady growth of motivation of young people on positive actions, personal and professional development. The state and society in many respects assign this task to institutions of higher professional education. Therefore in modern conditions educational work with student's youth is based taking into account updating of a problem of the formation of the citizen of the democratic state provided with all rights and allocated with all completeness of duties allowing it to develop freely in space of civil society (Yarullin, 2011).

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2. Materials and methods

Personally focused approach (E. Bondarevskaya, N. Borytko, V. Serikov, I. Yakimanskaya, V. Zaytsev) provides the accounting of an originality of identity of the personality in pedagogical process, becomes a basis for design of educational work of higher education institution and judgment of mechanisms of the transfer of internal motives of students to practice of their civil activity (Bondarevskaya, 2003, Borytko, 2007, Serikov, 1998). Activity approach (A. Verbitsky, A. Zaporozhets, V. Zinchenko, A. Leontyev, S. Rubenstein, I. Zimnyaya) allows to prove inclusion of the personality in educational activity on the basis of the free choice satisfying need of student's youth for self-realization for forms of positive civil activity (Zimnyaya, 2007). Ideas of valuable approach (E. Bondarevskaya, A. Kiryakova, S. Kulnevich, L. Razbegayeva, V. Simonov, I. Solovtsova, N. Shchurkov) values as steady regulators of behavior of the person consider and become theoretical prerequisites for definition of the principles of activity of subjects of process of formation of civil activity of students in higher education institution (Razbegayeva, 2009). Basic provisions of the theory of complete pedagogical process (N. Borytko, V. Ilyin, N. Sergeyev) set a reference point on recognition of integrity of the personality and pedagogical process. Psychological theories (L. Vygotsky, I. Kohn, D. Feldstein, D. Elkonin) open features of age development of the young man (need for self-expression, determination, independence) which account forms the basis of definition of stages of formation of civil activity (Vygotsky, 1991). Humanistic theories (Sh. Amonashvili, E. Bondarevskaya, V. Sukhomlinsky) focus on understanding of the personality as kernels of pedagogical system. They serve as starting positions for identification of students of forms of civil activity, personally significant for self-development. The theories opening a social context of educational process (V. Krayevsky, A. Mudrik), allow to consider the education environment as the social relations, to model future civil examples of behavior in the conditions of higher education institution (Mudrik, 2000). Z-ratio test for the significance of the difference between two independent proportions (for participants of experimental group and control group) has been used.

3. Discussion

Relevance of civil and patriotic education of the younger generation is traced in a number of normative documents of Russia. Strategy of the state national policy of the Russian Federation for the period till 2025 contains the description of the priority directions of the state national policy of the Russian Federation, among which «development of an education system, civil and patriotic education of younger generation» (Strategy, 2012). The federal law «About education in the Russian Federation» contains the basic principles of a state policy and legal regulation of the relations in education, including humanistic nature of education, a priority of the rights and personal freedoms, education of mutual respect, civic consciousness, patriotism, responsibility, legal culture (The federal law, 2012). The concept of long-term social and economic development of the Russian Federation for the period till 2020 considers the questions connected with reference points of youth policy in the Russian Federation. It distinguishes civic education and patriotic education of youth, assistance to formation of legal, cultural and moral values from youth as the main objective (The concept, 2008).

Analysis of domestic and foreign researches (S. Lang, A. Hertel, M. Byursh (Lang et al., 2010), M. S. Kruglov (Kruglov, 2015), F. Shmitter (Shmitter, 1994), A. Pshevorsky (Pshevorsky, 2000)) shows insufficient quantity of the techniques directed on implementation of patriotic education and formation of creative civil activity of student's youth. The used means and programs not always conform to modern requirements. They include actual socio-political and psychology and pedagogical prerequisites of development of creative civil activity of student's youth that does not allow to realize fully educational resources of higher education institution in work with students.

4. Results

We carried out theoretical and practical studying of a problem of formation of creative civil activity of students in system of educational work of higher education institution, and also the analysis of socio-political and psychology and pedagogical prerequisites. Its purpose consists in identification of conditions of improvement of this process and development of scientific and methodical providing the matter. We were guided by ideas of civil activity as to the intrinsic

characteristic of the personality which differs in a public orientation. It is shown in readiness for personal participation in socially useful activity, performance of civil duties, initiative and focus on social values.

The methodological basis (idea of the personal focused, valuable, complete, humanistic, social and activity approaches) helped to consider conditions of development of creative civil activity of student's youth, to project the directions of educational work of higher education institution and to comprehend the mechanism of the transfer of internal motives of students to practice of their civil activity.

Provisions of the called concepts gave the chance to consider educational work of higher education institution on formation of civil activity of students as creation of conditions for creative self-realization and manifestation of positive and creative civil personal qualities. Composed the leading theoretical concepts allowed to prove inclusion of students in educational activity on the basis of the free choice satisfying need for self-realization. Its forms it is positive and creative civil activity. We also defined personally significant types of civil activity and ways of their manifestation in the high school environment modeling future civil examples of behavior.

The system of the following forms acts as priority and effective forms of work of modern higher education institution on formation of civil activity of students:
• search (interview, situations of civil dialogue, business and role-playing games, debate);
• converting and reflexive (academy of the young citizen, school of social development, trainings of personal growth, school of leadership, youth forums, project work);
• practice-oriented (patriotic propaganda teams, volunteering).

Practical coordination of all called forms was carried out by department of educational work and employment of the Taganrog institute of A.P. Chekhov within 2017–2018 academic years. Experiment united students of faculty of pedagogics and a technique of preschool, primary and additional education (91 persons).

Questioning of students on identification of individual wishes of inclusion in extracurricular public work and the level of activity of student's youth in various areas of work of higher education institution was organized by us at the beginning of experiment. 177 people (participants of experimental group – 91 persons and control group – 86 people) took part in poll (Table 1). Dependency is an important parameter when comparing two (or more) samples. This sample is considered independent because there is no such relationship between the samples.

Table 1. Desire of Students to join in extracurricular public work, % of total number of the interrogated

Activity degree	Experimental group	Control group	Z	p
plan to participate actively	33,4 %	34,1 %	0,15	p>0,05
I will participate if time	47 %	46, 5 %	0,41	p>0,05
I do not plan	8,6 %	8,1 %	0,25	p>0,05
plan to be engaged only in study	1,4 %	1,6 %	-0.54	p>0,05
find it difficult to answer	9,6 %	9,7 %	0,24	p>0,05

Questioning showed, what on a question of, whether «You plan to participate in public life of TI of A. Chekhov?» students stated high activity: more than 30 % answered that will participate by all means. 50 % specified that will participate if time allows. About 10 % do not plan yet. Small percent of students noted that them anything, except study, does not interest. 9,6 (9,7) % did not answer the asked question. Answers of students allow to judge interest trained participations in public work in higher education institution and manifestation of their active living position.

We started the organization of the practice-focused work in experimental group on the basis of definition of desire of students to participate in various forms of nonlearning life of higher education institution.

The analysis of conditions of development of creative civil activity of student's youth allowed us to define specifics of creation of educational work in higher education institution and to correlate it to features of the stages which are consistently realized and closely connected among themselves (teoretiko-procedural, a stage of an interiorization and an eksteriorization). They are directed on formation of theoretical, practical and personal readiness of students for manifestation of creative civil activity.

Each stage includes the purposes, psychology and pedagogical conditions, the contents and system of pedagogical means. Such approach allows to structure civil activity as the three-part unity including informative, motivationally-demanding and personal and reflexive components.

It gives us the chance to allocate criteria of formation of civil creative activity of students: existence of theoretical-civil knowledge, pronounced requirement, motive, interest and desire in manifestation of a civic stand, existence of own opinion on civil and world outlook questions of life of society, readiness and ability to carry out positive and creative civil activity, experience of performance of civil duties.

We approved the developed model of formation of civil activity in skilled and experimental work. It included the following activities:

- formation of theoretical readiness for manifestation of civil activity at the expense of the message to students of knowledge of civil and world outlook questions;

- formation of practical readiness for manifestation of civil activity due to introduction of the converting and reflexive actions constructed on an optimistic spirit and an emotional inclusiveness;

- formation of personal readiness for manifestation of civil activity in the course of inclusion of students in the practical activities demanding use of the main personal qualities civil - the active personality.

We will present experience on formation of practical readiness of students for manifestation of creative civil activity in the course of involvement of youth in converting and reflexive forms of activity (an interiorization stage) in more detail.

Survey among students of experimental group regarding identification of the most popular actions of a public orientation for respondents was conducted by us in the course of the analysis of interesting forms of work. We will specify the most widespread responses (Table 2).

Table 2. Popular forms of actions of a public orientation in the student's environment, % of total number of the interrogated

Direction	%
Participation in Forums	46 %
Participation in Flashmobs, quests	46 %
Inclusion in volunteer activity	32 %
Training activity	31 %
Participation in design activity	28 %
Participation in discussion platforms	22 %
Work in student's groups	18 %
Participation in student's self-government	14 %
find it difficult to answer	11 %
Another	9 %

We developed the plan of work on the basis of answers of respondents. It was presented by «School of the young citizen», trainings of personal growth, «School of leadership», a youth forum, the project work, elections of student's deans, discussion platforms, flashmobs and other forms of creative civil activity.

These forms develop necessary components of civil activity at students. It and positive installation to manifestation of civil activity, and knowledge of civil and world outlook character, both own opinion, and the relation to public processes, acquisition of practical experience of civil action.

The stage of an interiorization is directed on satisfaction of need for self-expression and self-realization. Educational work is focused on development of a humanistic orientation of the

personality, ability to understand importance of norms of social behavior and to accept them, perceptions of the personal importance, ability to reason the point of view, interest in social problems and political, positive and creative activity.

Experience with student's youth of higher education institution shows that design activity represents a unique form of effective cultural creativity, and allows not only to transform reality, but also to change subjects of this activity. Skilled and experimental work showed efficiency of forms for development of civil activity of students. It is development, protection and implementation of social projects. Therefore master classes in creation and presentation of projects for students of experimental group were organized by us. 28 socially significant projects were developed by students for the purpose of drawing attention of the student's public to questions of the Russian culture, traditions, promotion of a healthy lifestyle, design of the inclusive educational environment, creation of the space in educational institution promoting formation of civil activity of the personality. The prepared projects of students were directed for participation in competition of city youth self-government. Master classes came to an end with discussion on problems of the present and a political situation in the country in the course of which each participant could give an assessment to the events, share experience, discuss the created problems and ways of their decision further.

Students focused the attention on social problems in society at creation of projects. More than 50 people became active participants of various forums, student's self-government, moderators of socially significant projects (6 people were a part of student council, 16 acted as organizers by preparation of all-institute forums, 34 students joined the volunteer movement of higher education institution) from 84 students who passed a master class and studied public problems.

In the course of collaboration of students media projects not only were developed, but also video records were created which extended in the student's environment by means of social networks. The initiative of participants of experimental group was put forward in the course of organized discussion. 16 students volunteers carried out active work at schools, lyceums of the city of Taganrog. They used these media materials for promotion of an active civic stand among school students. This work gave necessary tools for successful implementation of the projects directed on promotion of civil activity of student's audience.

Students of experimental group took also part in an educational program of department of affairs of youth of a city administration of Taganrog «A design workshop». Experience of similar activity allowed students to become organizers of design actions. For example, 12 students of experimental group acted as moderators of the second city festival of student's ideas and projects on scope of promotion and promoting of a healthy lifestyle.

We marked out interest to one of psychological conditions of development of creative civil activity of students. Therefore we conducted survey of interests of students. We designated participation in youth forums the most popular and interesting form of activity. The forum, as a rule, represents an educational platform for active youth. Young people have opportunity to take part in discussion platforms, training programs, round tables, festivals, actions, meetings, competitions, meetings with famous people.

Therefore we organized a high school Forum on a platform of the Taganrog institute of A. Chekhov in the course of experiment. Work of a forum was based on the following principles:

- personal orientation: we considered interest of students; age features (self-assessment, self-expression, self-affirmation, etc.); acquisition of such civil values as public participation (belief in possibility of changes in society, awareness of importance of civil activity), competence (participation in political forms of activity), desire and readiness to interact with various groups, personal opinion and the relation, a freedom of speech and a choice;

- activity of subjects of education: educational actions had the practical character demanding activity of all subjects of educational process;

- integrity and systemacity of educational process;

- diagnostability: actions were constructed taking into account the feedback allowing to diagnose and correct organized work;

- humanization and selectivity.

The forum took place 3 days and involved 74 students of institute participating in experiment in active forms of work. Every day it was constructed for the purpose of acquisition of necessary

competences of civil activity: platform of mass media this creation of issue of the youth newspaper «Grazhdanin» (development of communication competence); the platform debate is development of oratorical competence; training course «My Choice»; competition of propaganda teams «Healthy to be fashionable!» (development of health saving competence); discussion platform of «Problem of modern youth policy» (development of political competence); a platform «Russian - breath of the nation» (intellectual game, development of linguistic competence); a training course on trust (development of tolerant competence).

We developed one more program of thematic immersion of students. It is called school of the day off. Schools it was realized on a platform of the Taganrog institute of A. Chekhov within the historical and patriotic direction of educational work. 68 students of experimental group took part in this program. The purpose of the program is drawing attention of students to the Russian history and a role of Russia in world historical process, formation of creative civil activity of youth. 3 thematic days included the following actions: training on acquaintance, self-determination, identification of leaders; reconstruction of a family tree; game on stories of Russia «That? Where? When?»; game elections; master class of a basis of civil self-defense; film society meeting (emotional recharge, viewing of the historical movie); patriotic flashmob. We involved specialists of higher education institution and the city to carrying out action taking into account wishes of participants. The leading historians, psychologists, experts in the field of education, and also students activists acted as moderators of a forum.

These actions proved as events on which students can not only communicate, but also gain unique knowledge, exchange impressions, receive an energy charge for future civil self-determination. Actions were highly appreciated by participants within the program.

By results of a forum organizers noted the positive relation of students to public and civil activity; interest of students country history, and also the innovative activity focused on personal development and formation; initiative, independence, commitment and organizational abilities of student's youth; increase of level of creative civil activity of students.

The reflection helped to consolidate knowledge and experience of manifestation of civil activity. Participants could switch attention to themselves and to the consciousness, in particular, to products of own activity, and also their any reconsideration under the direction of a psychological escort service. Acquisition of necessary knowledge, skills promoted formation of self-confidence and the forces, independence, to understanding of the role and importance of manifestation of an initiative.

The forum and School came to the end with game interview. We could reveal the directions of thematic immersions which caused the greatest interest, extent of assimilation of information in students to reveal problem situations in group and to receive an action assessment from participants.

Questioning by determination of interests of students revealed interest in such creative and converting form of civil activity as a flashmob. This activity can not always be positive owing to age features of young people. Therefore we paid to this area of work closer attention, sending activity of students to constructive forms of manifestation, having given them socially creative and patriotic orientation. We included this direction in the organization of educational work in experimental group. It allowed students to become organizers and participants of various events held in the territory not only institute, but also the city during the entire period (Birthday of the city of Taganrog, celebration of the Victory in the Great Patriotic War; the ecological: devoted to environmental problems and a healthy lifestyle and others). Similar actions promoted development of civil activity of youth. Students got experience of manifestation of activity, a positive discharge, trust and thereof desire and readiness to interact with world around.

We built work on the basis of the analysis of problems of the student, carried out pedagogical support of the young man, focused it on the independent solution of problem situations during experiment. It led to awareness of own abilities by it and increased its activity.

The result of the activity organized by us allows to speak about rather high level of work on formation of creative civil activity in the student's environment. Work was based together with teachers of chair and curators of the academic groups, department of educational work and employment, self-government institutions, clubs, public organizations.

Results of experiment showed development of initiatives in student's group, independence of participants, commitment and organizing abilities. Programs were highly appreciated by

participants of actions. Students began to participate with a great interest in life of higher education institution further, to be interested in cultural and leisure, sporting and public events. The atmosphere of emotional responsiveness, positive interaction gave feeling of comfort, self-confidence and the forces that improved civil self-determination and activity of youth.

We carried out diagnostics upon termination of skilled and experimental work. We revealed positive dynamics of formation of creative civil activity at students of experimental group (Table 3).

Table 3. Participation of Students in Public Work, % of total number of participants of experiment

Activity degree	Experimental group		Control group		
	The beginning of experiment (wish)	The end of experiment (upon)	The beginning of experiment	The end of experiment	Z^a
The active participant	Planned to join 33,4 %	36 %	Planned to join 34,1 %	13 %	3,68**
The participant of separate actions	Stated a wish 47 %	46 %	Stated a wish 46, 5 %	20, 5 %	3,62**
Weak participation	Designated 8,6 %	10 %	Designated 8,1 %	43,5 %	-4,66**
Lack of interest in participation, difficulties	Showed 11 %	8 %	Showed 1,6 %	23 %	-2,56*

[a] Z-ratio test for the significance of the difference between two independent proportions (for participants of experimental group and control group at the end of experiment) has been used.
*$p<0,05$; **$p<0,01$

5. Conclusions

Students of experimental group began to show active interest and desire to participate in country life. They gained practical experience of participation in public work. Trained began to feel need for political knowledge, to realize importance of participation in public life of the country (region) of youth electorate. Students developed ability to think and is reasoned to state the offers, started respecting opinions of other people, other cultures, traditions, a way of life, religions; to show indifference to problems of surrounding people (veterans, disabled people and other socially not protected categories of the population), etc.

Positive changes allow us to draw a conclusion on efficiency of the chosen forms of work and definition of psychology and pedagogical conditions of development of creative civil activity of student's youth.

6. Acknowledgements

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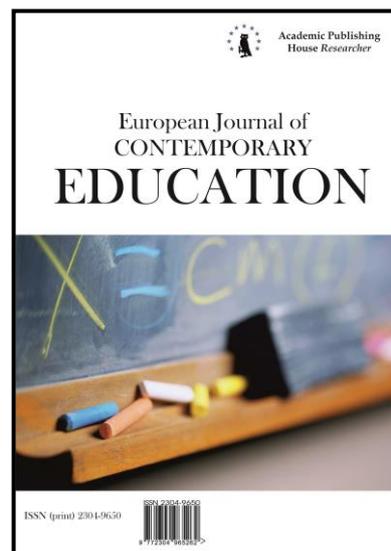
**The Particulars of Teaching Specialized Translation:
A Case Study of Matej Bel University**

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Abstract

This paper introduces the teaching model for specialized translation introduced at Matej Bel University. On one hand, the model is based on the tradition of translation studies in Slovakia and former Czechoslovakia, but on the other hand it takes into consideration the skills needed for the translation of specialized texts in contemporary working environments. These skills are based on the competences proposed by the EMT network as well as on the latest Slovak research on the domestic translation market. In 2012 the Translation and Interpreting Centre (TaIC) was established with the aim of enhancing the training of future translators and interpreters. Through supervised practice, the TaIC provides students with the opportunity to experience real working conditions in the field of translation and interpreting, as well as providing teachers with the opportunity to assess their students' performance. A survey conducted among students and graduates who participated in the TaIC is analysed in the last part of this paper. The paper describes the proposed model, its advantages and disadvantages and its contribution to the translator and interpreter training programme at Matej Bel University.

Keywords: specialized translation, didactics of translation, supervised translation practice, simulation of real working conditions, Czechoslovak tradition, teamwork, CAT tools, survey, students of translation and interpreting, teaching model.

1. Introduction

If we are to introduce our teaching model for *specialized translation*, we must first introduce the way translators and interpreters are trained in Slovakia. "Translator and interpreter training has a long-standing tradition in Slovakia. Its institutional and academic roots can be traced all the way back to the common state of the Czechs and Slovaks, to the times of Czechoslovakia. The Czechoslovak tradition has always preferred training translators and interpreters in conjunction via university programmes in translation and interpreting. Such a model provides

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students with training in both translation and interpreting within one study programme. Another distinctive feature of the Slovak model is that students of translation and interpreting study two foreign languages simultaneously. We believe that graduates of programmes designed in this way are better equipped for practice and have a better chance of finding employment in their trade. Such graduates may choose whether to pursue both professions (translator and interpreter) or work in only one field. This form of study seems to be a good choice with regards to the needs of the Slovak translation market, given the "smallness" of our language, among other factors, and this is clearly demonstrated by the long-standing Czechoslovak tradition. Such translation and interpreting study programmes traditionally consist of a bachelor's degree and a master's degree programme. Universities also offer doctoral programmes in the field." (Biloveský, Djovčoš, 2016).

The didactics of translation has long been neglected in Slovak translation studies. Contemporary Slovak research is focused mostly on the sociology of translation. Researchers study the status of translators and interpreters, as well as their place in society, financial compensation and their influence on the development of domestic culture. Another trait of contemporary translation studies research in Slovakia is reckoning with issues of the country's recent past. One such issue is censorship, which influenced the policies of publishing houses and dictated which writers could and should be translated, as well as which were unsuitable for ideological reasons. Censorship also affected translation strategies and forced translators to edit original texts, sometimes even by simply cutting out inconvenient passages. Many translators were prevented from translating for their ideological views – nevertheless, they sometimes translated under pseudonyms. No matter how paradoxical it may seem, at the same time, during this period now perceived as totalitarian, the biggest breakthroughs in Slovak thinking on translation were made. It was in this period when the essential works of Slovak translation studies were written (Ferenčík, 1982; Popovič, 1970, 1975, 1983; Bednarova-Gibova, 2017; Vilikovský, 1984; Gavrilenko, Dmitrichenkova, 2017).

Unfortunately, to this day we tend to neglect the importance of the proper training of translators and interpreters. Training is, after all, the foundation of the entire translation and interpreting ecosystem. The aforementioned topics, no matter how important, are built upon this foundation.

Contemporary translation production is dominated by translation of specialized and technical texts. There is a much lower demand for literary translations.* Such facts have to be reflected by universities preparing future translators and interpreters. The training of translators and interpreters at Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica is based on long-standing cooperation with translation agencies, but also on the teachers' professional experience as translators and interpreters. This experience has been applied to a distinctive model used for teaching courses of *specialized translation*. It should be stressed that in this model we strive to take into consideration the demands of the trade while at the same time to educate and shape students as individually thinking beings – combining the essence of a university education with Slovak thinking on translation (i.e. Slovak translation theory).

Many of these courses on translation of specialized texts meet the requirements of the EMT network†. According to the EMT network (Expert Network EMT…), a professional translator has to have "translation service provision competence (e.g. how to market services, negotiate with a client,

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* According to the research conducted by Djovčoš, Šveda (2017, p. 76), 70.3% Slovak professional translators translate only specialized texts, 18.6% translate both specialized and literary texts and only 6.5% translate literary texts only.

† The European Master's in Translation (EMT) was founded in 2006 as a joint project of the Directorate-General for Translation (DGT) and the European Commission with various European universities. In general, its goal is to (in accordance with EU priorities regarding university education) improve the quality of translator training and to create better conditions for the trade. The EMT is a certificate of quality granted by the European Commission to universities whose master's degree programmes meet the EMT's conditions and norms. The EC does not take into account the education of interpreters – it has separate directorates for interpreting and translation. Unfortunately, given the relatively small Slovak market, it would not make sense to separately train translators and interpreters. Some European universities have separate study programmes for translators and for interpreters. However, the EMT merely functions as a brand that can attract applicants and help graduates find a job. There is no financial or material aid included.

manage time and budget, handle invoicing), language competence (e.g. how to summarise texts), intercultural competence (e.g. how to understand presuppositions or allusions), data-mining competence (e.g. how to search terminology databases and familiarity with a series of databases), technological competence (e.g. how to use a particular translation tool) and thematic competence (knowledge about a specialist field of knowledge)" (Scarpa, Orlando, 2017). All of these competences are included in our teaching process.

To write about translation and translator training is impossible without acknowledging that the translation process is a creative process, one where the translator is the creative author of a final product – a translation. This basic theoretical axiom is also fully applicable to the translation of a specialized text, despite it being different from a literary text in its nature and function(s). Specialized texts, too, are the results of creative processes, and it is therefore necessary to treat them accordingly.

Courses in translation of specialized texts are compulsory for first- and second-year students of our master's programme. They build on previous translation courses (including topics such as the methodology of translation, the history of translation studies, the specifics of literary and specialized translation, Slovak language – as the training of interpreters and translators focuses both on target and source languages), in the bachelor's programme. Language training focused on the native language, Slovak, provides students with the possibility of employment as editors, copyeditors, or copyeditors of translations. This range of positions attests to the versatility of translation and interpreting graduates as well as their preparedness for professional life. The aim of our study programme is to provide graduates with both practical and theoretical skills – rather than just foreign language experts, our graduates should be autonomous subjects with an education in literary culture. It needs to be said that our students are also provided with literary translation courses. Many universities have dropped their literary translation courses, rationalizing that the market does not need such translators. However, our university is not considering taking such steps, and we continue to educate students in this area. Despite the much greater demand for specialized translations, one should not limit oneself solely to the translation of specialized texts – education in literary translation is necessary, too.

Our model for specialized translation courses has two main goals. On one hand, we strive to meet the demands of practice – by simulation of translation practice and the trade in the teaching process. On the other hand, the goal is to teach students how to work in teams. In our courses, they experience various functions within a translation chain – a useful experience, as our graduates are often employed in translation agencies.

As stated before, our specialized translation courses are divided into two seminars: Specialized Translation 1 and Specialized Translation 2. Each seminar is 80 minutes long and takes place once per week. Specialized Translation 1 takes place in the summer semester and is provided to first year students of the master's programme. It is devised as follows: first, students are acquainted with the term "specialized translation" and the particularities of specialized texts, after which they learn the typology of specialized texts and the terminology used to describe them, with particular emphasis on the special features of Slovak and foreign-language terminology. The curriculum also includes the history and development of specialized translation in Slovakia. When translating particular specialized texts, students make use of intra- and extratextual text analysis à la Christiane Nord[*] (having already been acquainted with her model during their bachelor's studies). They are taught to mine and verify terminology (of course, there are other theoretical tools used to analyse texts; nevertheless, we prefer Nord's intra- and extratextual analysis). Students also use their knowledge acquired from the bachelor's-level course Specialized Terminology and learn to anticipate translation problems related to specialized texts. They also learn to use CAT tools[†]. During the course, two CAT tools are used – MemoQ and Trados.

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[*] (NORD, 1991)
EXTRATEXTUAL FACTORS (sender, intention, recipient, medium, place, time, text function), INTRATEXTUAL FACTORS (subject matter, content, presuppositions, text composition, non-verbal elements, sentence structure, suprasegmental features)
[†] CAT tools – Computer-assisted translation, or computer-aided translation. The most widespread CAT tools are *Trados*, *Wordfast*, *MemoQ*, *Déjà Vu*, etc. Broadly speaking, such software uses *translation memory* and

Instruction in Specialized Translation 1 and 2 is carried out in a computer classroom where 20 PCs with MemoQ and Trados licenses are provided to students. Each student works on a single computer.

The organization of Specialized Translation 2 differs not just from typical seminars, but also from Specialized Translation 1. While in Specialized Translation 1 students learn to use CAT tools, improve their technical competence and reflexive interpretation, the structure of Specialized Translation 2 is based on that of a translation agency. Students work on translation projects – i.e. translations. Over the course of a semester (13 weeks), students work on three different translation projects, each consisting of a single translation. Students (approximately 15–20 per group) are assigned job positions in translation teams. Each translation team has five job positions. The project manager (PM) draws up a timetable taking into consideration the time demands for the individual positions within the team and the deadline set by the teacher. Then the PM acquaints the teacher with their plan, divides the text into several parts for translation (depending on the number of translators within the team) and coordinates the separate activities of the translation process. A key role is also played by terminologists. The terminologists analyze the original text, conduct an intra- and extratextual analysis, compile glossaries in Excel and search for parallel texts with a similar topic published in the target language. During the whole process, the terminologists have to be ready to explain any term to the rest of the team. After terminologists come translators. They study intra- and extratextual analyses, import the glossaries into MemoQ and begin to translate. They export the translated text as a bilingual file (includes both original and translation) and send it back to the project manager. PM then sends this file to editors, who import it and compare translation with the original text. The edited text is then sent to the copyeditor. The copyeditor checks the whole document, corrects any grammatical or stylistic errors and checks the formatting. If serious errors are found – errors that cannot be corrected by the copyeditor – the PM is notified and sends text for revision back to whomever is responsible for the error. After successful copyediting, the PM checks a random part of the text as part of the quality control process. The team members can communicate only via the PM. Upon completing a task, they always send it to the PM, who has to document them.

At the end of the project, all team members have to write a team evaluation report and send it to the PM, who evaluates the teamwork and any issues that came up in the process, gives advice on how to improve the process, writes what they learned and assesses their general satisfaction with other team members. The PM then assembles the project as instructed (document name, team makeup, intra- and extratextual analysis à la Nord, glossaries, translated text, and evaluation reports from each team member) and sends the complete set of documents to the teacher. Only then does the teacher begin to assess the work of the individual team members and the overall translation quality. The number of students in each position depends on the given translation team – the only conditions are that there be only one PM and one copyeditor, and that there be an equal number of translators and editors.

Such a model simulates real working conditions in translation agencies, which is to say in real translation practice. Throughout the process students use MemoQ, which they are trained to work with in Specialized Translation 1. The course aims to improve their analyzing skills (which are also trained early on in the bachelor's programme) and their work with terminological databases and parallel texts; upon completion, they are able to apply various translation strategies and assess translation quality as well as the performance of each team member. They also improve their ability to work in a team. In each project, students change their job positions, eventually becoming acquainted with each one.

Such a model of teaching and organization disrupts the traditional relationship between teacher and students, as well as their roles in the teaching process. Here, the role of the teacher differs from the traditional teaching role in a traditional class. Their role goes beyond that of intermediary and controller. The role of the controller (Homolová, 2011: 47) is connected solely to the traditional teaching methods and the traditional role of a teacher. According to teaching methodologist Eva Homolová, the teacher in the role of controller is at the centre of students' attention – in the majority of cases the teacher stands before them in a classroom and dictates the

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terminology databases. According to Djovčoš's research (2017), 66% of Slovak professional translators use computer-assisted tools (Djovčoš, Šveda, 2017: 78).

entire didactic process. In our model, the teacher acts more as a guide of the didactic process. They are its facilitator, an organizer or a manager as well as a tutor. As a facilitator, the teacher takes students' goals and individual needs and abilities into account and creates the conditions conducive to achieving such goals; they also provide students with motivation. In this role, the teacher leads students toward independence and autonomy (Homolová, 2011: 47). The role of the teacher as an organizer/manager is possibly their most important as well as most difficult role. To achieve the goals and tasks of a lesson is only possible by means of effective organization. In other words, students should be perfectly aware of what is expected of them (2011, p. 48). If the teacher takes the role of a tutor, students are deeply involved in the self-teaching process or work in teams, as in our case. On the basis of Homolová's classification of students' roles, students in these courses can be designated as student–resolvers or student–discoverers (Homolová, 2011: 51).

2. The Translation and Interpreting Centre (TaIC)

Students of translation and interpreting are obligated to pass the course "translation/interpreting practice" – in other words, they have to put in 150 hours of work in the field*. They can apply for internships in at various institutions and participate in paid or unpaid internships at companies cooperating with the Faculty of Arts. With the goal of combining practical and theoretical education, the Translation and Interpreting Centre (TaIC) at the Faculty of Arts was established in 2012. Its aim is to simulate the actual working conditions of translators and interpreters in the teaching process, but also to provide students with the opportunity to participate in supervised practice and teachers the opportunity to test their students and, if needed, adjust their courses to the students' needs. The Centre has been operating for five years and students have translated more than 6200 standard pages and provided interpreting at more than 30 conferences, among other events.

As in Specialized Translation 2, students at the TaIC also work in project teams. The makeup of the translation team depends on the size of the text to be translated. When translating shorter texts, the team consists only of a translator and an editor; in the case of longer texts (i.e. monographs) the team makeup is adjusted to specific needs. When interpreting, students are always accompanied by at least one professional interpreter – usually also teachers of interpreting. In this way, students acquire valuable experience and high-quality interpreting is ensured.

Translations into foreign languages are much more common in the TaIC. Therefore, a native speaker is an essential component of a high-quality translation. The TaIC cooperates with several external copyeditors (native speakers), who, in addition to copyediting students' translations, also record their errors using the "track changes" function in MS Word. Therefore, they also provide students with helpful feedback. Quality control of translations into the native language is provided by professional translators. The TaIC Project managers are responsible for communication with clients, copyeditors and students and also provide the last quality check of the translation – thus achieving multilevel quality control. Of course, this approach is by no means bulletproof, and in its five years of existence to date, the TaIC has registered approximately three complaints regarding the translation.[†] Nevertheless, considering the relatively low number of unsatisfied clients, the project could be considered successful.

The TaIC project is based on STN EN ISO 17100 – the 2015[‡] standard – and students are prepared to take part as the result of the courses Specialized Translation 1 (dealing with translation and terminological issues, CAT tools), Specialized Translation 2 (simulations of the project cycle and critical situations) and interpreting courses.

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[*] Translation of one standard page into a foreign language = 1.5 hours. Translation of one standard page into the native language = 1 hour. Editing of one standard page = 30 min. An hour of interpreting = 2 hours.

[†] The majority of inadequate translations are usually spotted by copyeditors, who return the translations to the PM. There have been three occasions where translations were delivered to clients who submitted them to academic journals which then returned the text, stating that the language did not meet their requirements. Such cases usually occur when the style of the original text is sub-standard for the recipient and students fail to adequately translate (and adapt) it into the target language.

[‡] This norm replaced the older STN EN 150038 standard. It is an international standard requiring that translation services follow specific procedures. It also provides quality criteria that providers of translation services must comply with.

3. Survey among Students and Graduates

In 2014, Zuzana Kraviarová conducted a survey among the first graduates of our specialized translation teaching model (Kraviarová, 2014). She found that from the sample of 29 course participants, more than 90% participated in the TaIC. Their motivation was both professional and personal growth. More than 95% of the participants considered supervised practice in the TaIC to be *absolutely necessary* and 90% regarded the management of the TaIC to be *very good* or *good*. The respondents reported that the practice had helped them to acquire skills needed for the translation and interpreting professions, but also in the area of soft skills – communication skills, time management and working under time stress or other types of pressure. However, students stated, the practice with the TaIC did not improve their specialization, translation ethics or their chances of finding a job.

A similar survey, but focused on both students and graduates, was conducted by the authors of this paper. A Google Form was shared on the department Facebook page and also on the page dedicated to organizing translation projects. The questions for graduates slightly differed from those for current students, but in general, the respondents' motivation and opinions about the practice and about the quality of courses dedicated to specialized translation was studied – as well as whether the practice at the TaIC helped graduates to find a job. Chi-squared test was used to determine if there is a statistically significant difference ($p<0.05$) between the answers of students and graduates. The survey consisted of both open and closed questions, though closed questions also included the answer "other". It was online for 10 days and was distributed five times.

4. Results

The form was filled by 31 participants (18 students and 13 graduates). The sample may seem rather low, as there were not many proactive students who participated in TaIC compared to the total number of students. In the academic year 2016/2017 as many as 23 students participated in the TaIC (eight students participating in the TaIC did not fill the form, three student participants stated that they did not participate in the TaIC). As many as 50 students usually enrol in courses of specialized translation – on average, approximately half of them participate in the TaIC. It can therefore be concluded that more than two thirds of the students who participated in the TaIC (current master's students) also filled in the questionnaire. Three graduates did not work for the TaIC.

Table 1. Question no. 1

Question no. 1: Why did you decide to participate in the TaIC?	Graduates		Students	
	sum	in %	sum	in %
1. I wasn't able to find practice anywhere else.	1	7.68%	1	5.55%
2. I wanted to, because it improves my specialized skills.	8	61.54%	11	61.11%
3. I wanted to, because I was personally interested.	1	7.68%	1	5.55%
4. I didn't want to, because it's pointless, I was able to find (paid) practice somewhere else.	0	0.00%	1	5.55%
5. I didn't want to, because it's exploitation of students for free.	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
6. I didn't want to, because I wasn't interested.	0	0.00%	1	5.55%
7. Other.	3	23.08%	3	16.66%
In total:	**13**	100%	**18**	100%

In general, both students and graduates agreed that participating in the TaIC improved their professional skills, some participated because of personal interest in the topic of the translation; nevertheless, both groups also included "pragmatists", who participated in the TaIC solely for not

being able to find practice elsewhere. Only one student stated that they were simply not interested. Two students selected the option "Other", stating that they did not participate in the TaIC – to allow, one of them reasoned, other students to participate. There was, however, a third student who selected the option "Other" while stating: "*I've participated because I need to pass, but I think it's also exploitation students; it should be paid, at least at half the usual rate.*" A similar statement was found in the response of one graduate. We can only conclude that financial compensation of students is for logical and legal reasons impossible, which is why paid practice is not a common practice at any Slovak secondary school or university.

Three graduates had not participated in the TaIC, and one of them stated he was able to find practice elsewhere. There was no statistically significant difference (p<0.05) between graduates and students, the p-value = 0.38.

Table 2. Question no. 2

Question no. 2: Do you consider supervised practice in the TaIC during studies to be necessary?	Graduates		Students	
	sum	in %	sum	in %
1. Absolutely necessary.	8	61.54%	9	50.00%
2. Rather necessary.	5	38.45%	8	44.44%
3. Rather unnecessary.	0	0.00%	1	5.55%
4. Absolutely unnecessary.	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
In total:	**13**	100%	**18**	100%

Aside from one student, all the students and graduates considered practice in the TaIC during their studies to be either "absolutely necessary" or "rather necessary". The students agreed that practice during studies in the translation and interpreting programme is of the utmost importance. The results are almost identical to the survey conducted by Kraviarová (2004, p. 35). No statistically significant difference (p<0.05) was found between graduates and students, the p-value = 0.62.

Table 3. Question no. 3

Question no. 3: How would you evaluate the management of the supervised practice at the TaIC?	Graduates		Students	
	sum	in %	sum	in %
1. Very good	5	38.45%	11	61.11%
2. Good	8	61.54%	7	38.88%
3. Bad	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
4. Unsatisfactory	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
In total:	**13**	100 %	**18**	100%

Similar results can also be found with the question of TaIC management. Everyone agreed the management was either "very good" or "good". In both cases it can be concluded that practice and its management meet the needs of both students and graduates. Students and graduates are satisfied with the current management of the TaIC. In the survey conducted by Kraviarová (2014,

p. 35) two participants (7.41%) selected the option "bad" without further clarification. There was no statistically significant difference (p<0.05) between graduates and students, the p-value = 0.89.

Table 4. Question no. 4

Question no. 4: Do our specialized translation courses meet the needs of practice at the TaIC?	Students	
	sum	in %
1. Yes.	7	38.88%
2. Somewhat.	9	50.00%
3. Not really.	1	5.55%
4. No.	0	0.00%
5. Other.	1	5.55%
In total:	**18**	100%

As many as 88 % students were satisfied with the specialized translation courses. One student was rather discontent with the training, but they added that "*courses at the Department of English and American Studies are of high quality, but there should be twice as many of them, students need a lot of practice, they won't acquire skills at home.*" Training within the Translation and Interpreting study programme is skill-based, but it is also appropriate and necessary for students to translate at home as well. Here, it is difficult to determine the adequate amount of homework from translation courses. Students could certainly show more initiative. One student who selected the option "Other" wrote that they were satisfied with the courses and added the qualification: "*thanks to the English part of my study programme*".

Graduates were asked whether practice at the TaIC raised their chances of finding a job. In Kraviarová's 2014 survey the answer was no. In the current survey only one graduate (among those who responded) stated that participating in the TaIC did not help them find a job. All others answered affirmatively and stated that, at job interviews, the translation of longer texts (such as monographs) resonated particularly positively. Although our sample was low, it is obvious that the form was filled in mainly by those graduates who had been able to find a job because of their practice at the TaIC – and those who wanted to have a job within their field of study. Allow us to quote from at least one answer: "*Yes, participating in the TaIC helped me a lot. There were translations from many fields, and so I learned a lot of new information. At the same time, the writing style differed as the texts were written by different authors, so I had to adjust my writing and work creatively with the text. Feedback from the TaIC helped me, too. I've learned a lot. Participating in the TaIC was a fulfilling experience for me as a novice translator, and I improved my work with language and text.*"

The aforementioned remarks demonstrate that supervised practice for students is important and useful.

However, both graduates and students complained that the majority of texts were translations into a *foreign language*, mainly into English. In a survey conducted by Masárová (2012), as much as 40% of clients need translations into foreign languages in a ratio of 1:1, 35 % generally need more translations into foreign languages and only 24% need more translations into Slovak. Translation courses are focused mainly on translation into the domestic language, which is why the higher number of foreign-language translations at the TaIC could be seen as an advantage for students – a way to compensate for the lower number of translations into foreign language during their studies.

One student stated: "*The style of the authors caused me a lot of trouble, because some texts were written in very complicated and chaotic Slovak and were difficult to understand. I had to read them several times, otherwise I wouldn't be able to translate them – it took a lot of time. However, it was a very good experience, it improved my creative skills and writing skills as well as my ability to find the gist and translate meaning in the most comprehensible way.*"

The statement confirms that students participating in the TaIC automatize their reflexive interpretation of texts as well as improve their application of stylistics.

In the last question, both graduates and students could add further comments. In general, they considered feedback to be extremely valuable as well as the opportunity to participate in the department's Centre – the only translating and interpreting company founded by a university in Slovakia providing students with practice within the university.

To sum up:

1) the most important motivation for participating in TaIC is improving professional skills (70%),

2) 100% of graduates and 95% of students consider participating in the TaIC in the course of studies to be "absolutely necessary" or "rather necessary" and describe the management of practice as "very good" or "good",

3) more than 80% of students agree that skills acquired in courses of specialized translation meet the needs of TaIC,

4) graduates who to work in the translation and interpreting trade find participating in the TaIC to be extremely valuable,

5) both students and graduates consider acquiring translation and interpreting skills and feedback to be the primary benefit of the TaIC,

6) both students and graduates wish the TaIC would provide more translations into Slovak.

Implementing the aforementioned model of specialized translation has been a successful experience, and it has improved the didactical process as well as students' chances of finding a job. The model is especially useful for proactive students who want to be employed within their field of study.

5. Conclusion

The aforementioned model of teaching future translators and interpreters at university provides us with a chance to shape future graduates as independently thinking beings, able to think creatively and critically and highly capable of working in a team. Another important advantage of the model is that graduates are immediately able to work in real translation and interpreting agencies. The aforementioned model may also provide – though this may sound too idealistic – an improvement of the overall translation quality of specialized texts in Slovakia, making the texts more readable and easily comprehensible as opposed to a simple transfer of information from source to target language. Even specialized texts are the results of creative work and thinking. The Translation and Interpreting Centre constitutes a necessary and enriching part and parcel of this model.

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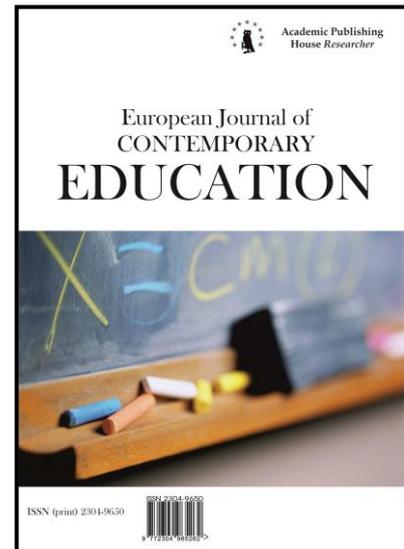Popovič, 1975 – *Popovič, A.* (1975). *Teória umeleckého prekladu.* Bratislava: Tatran.

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Applying the Ideas of the Developmental Teaching at the Foreign Language Lessons to Develop Students' Communicative Competence

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Abstract

Foreign language lessons at school are designed to form key competences, with communicative competence being an important one, implying students' ability and readiness to communicate in a foreign language. However, there are difficulties in mastering the foreign language. As before, the main ones are: the lack of active oral practice, the absence of the environment for foreign language communication, and the presentation of educational material in textbooks without taking into account the principle of individualization and differentiation of education. The solution to this problem is possible through applying the ideas of developmental teaching at the lesson. The purpose of this study is to substantiate theoretically and test experimentally the effectiveness of using the ideas of developmental learning at the foreign language lessons to develop students' communicative competence. The leading method of the research is a pedagogical experiment aimed at revealing the level of the development of students' communicative competence. The content analysis of foreign language textbooks was also used to identify potential options to apply ideas of developmental learning. Results of the research: The article presents a selection of topical projects aimed at students' partially exploring and research activities that form the communicative competence directly; there were developed lessons to introduce the ideas of the developmental teaching at the lesson. It is proved that the projects assembled in the textbook contribute to building interdisciplinary connections, stimulate the development of the communicative competence and, on the whole, favour the development of the student's personality. Relevance of the study: The study proved the effectiveness of using the ideas of the developmental teaching to develop students' communicative competence. The materials of the article can be used to improve the process of teaching the foreign language at the secondary school; developed and tested different topical projects can be used by teachers of the foreign language in class.

Keywords: developmental teaching, communicative competence, personality, lexical skill, project.

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1. Introduction

The ideas of the developmental teaching are widespread in Russia, Ukraine, Belarus, Latvia, and Kazakhstan. In the domestic school, the ideas of the developmental teaching are used in teaching many subjects, including foreign language lessons. In these conditions, the concept of the developmental teaching, worked out by L.S. Vygotsky (2005), V.V. Davydov (1996) is still in demand. The main ideas of the concept of the developmental teaching ensure that educational activity is aimed at meta-subject results, involving integration of various subject areas, which leads to the development of students' creative thinking, intellectual abilities and key competencies.

The urgency of the work is also determined by the growing tension between the requirements of the Law on Education in the Russian Federation and the FSES of the second generation on the use of the ideas of the developmental teaching and the content aspect of the teaching package that do not conform to this task adequately. The conditions to resolve this contradiction is the teacher's creative work aimed at applying the ideas of developmental teaching in developing lessons summaries.

The purpose of this article was theoretical substantiation and experimental verification of the effectiveness of ideas of developmental teaching at the lessons of English to developstudents' communicative competence. The main tasks: analysis of psychological, pedagogical and methodological literature on the research problem; identification of potential options of the textbook in English to implement the ideas of the developmental teaching; selecting projects and developing lessons summaries to use them for the development of students' communicative competence.

2. Relevance
2.1. Literature review

Many Russian educators turn to the study of the developmental teaching. The scientific substantiation of this theory was first given by L.S. Vygotsky (2005), who expressed the ideas of the leading role of teaching in the pupil's psyche development (teaching leads to development), the areas of the personality's actual and immediate development. V.V. Davydov, D.B. Elkonin (1996) introduced the concept of the developmental teaching as an activity method of teaching, which is based on forming mechanisms of thinking, and not on using memory; singled out the principles of developmental teaching: the developing character of educational activity is connected with theoretical knowledge and methods of its application in solving academic problems; the academic subject is a kind of science projection through which theoretical creative thinking is formed. L.V. Zankov (1990) also gives priority to theoretical knowledge in teaching students and adds his principles of developmental teaching: high-level difficulties in teaching, studying the program material must move forward at a rapid pace; students' awareness of the reading process; systematic work on the development of all students (including the weak). Within the framework of educational activity, the participants establish relations of business cooperation, partnerships, subject-subject relations.

The manual on pedagogical technologies (Selevko, 1998) reveals the essence of developmental teaching and basic didactic principles that clearly define and regulate the algorithm of the technology of the developmental teaching.

The work of S.V. Yutkina (1995) substantiates the developmental teaching in English classes in the seventh grades of the comprehensive school. The researcher suggests ways to increase the level of understanding of the foreign language text by means of a specially organized problematization of the textual material, which creates a positive motivation in the process of acquiring knowledge by students and contributes to better understanding of written foreign language texts. G.F. Trubina (2014) actualizes in her work one of the ideas of the developmental teaching - building partnerships in the learning process. The organization of the process of teaching languages involves creating conditions for a dialogue based on understanding and, what is important, on mutual understanding (in the traditional system only on understanding), interaction in the subject-subject field.

I.V. Novikova, O.I. Novikova (2008) review the developmental techniques used at foreign language lessons. So, they consider the project as an effective method, which involves independently planned and performed work. The project develops quite effectively students' creative abilities, teaches them how to plan their own actions. The project integrates verbal

communication with the intellectual-emotional context of other activities (games, travels, etc.). E.B. Repich's work (Repich, 2015) analyzes variable types of projects: research, creative, game, informational, interdisciplinary, monoprojects, etc. Their use allows to overcome inertia, fear of speaking a foreign language due to possible errors in speech. In the conditions of the project, the student turns from the position of the object to the active subject of educational activity. The telecommunication project is topical for the formation of the communicative competence (Repich, 2015). The methodology for organizing and implementing projects and project activities in order to create the communicative foreign language competence, the specificity of organizing students' project activities at foreign language lessons and non-school hours are presented in I.A. Shcherbakova's work (Shcherbakova, 2011). Her work also made an attempt to implement interdisciplinary ties in teaching foreign languages.

The development of the student's personality is one of the ideas of the developmental teaching considered by the teacher of English E.I. Palesheva as the main goal of education (2011). To implement this goal, she suggests to use at foreign language lessons such kind of speech activity as reading authentic texts (depending on the goal: skimming, exploratory reading, reading for detail, reading for specific information). In the context of the ideas of the developmental teaching, E.I. Passov and E.S. Kuznetsova (2002) suggest the teacher to rely on the students' intellectual potential: first to "measure" their abilities, to check their visual, auditory memory, ability to concentrate attention, etc., and then develop these abilities at each lesson on the basis of educational material.

The exemplary programs for teaching foreign languages in the Russian school reflect the trends of modern world education. A.N. Shamov (2011) reveals the essence of speech competence, which consists in improving communicative skills in four main types of speech activity, which directly depends on the level of development of students' lexical skills. G.V. Rogova (1991) proposes to develop communicative competence using two categories of lexical exercises aimed at memorizing the word, its semantics in the unity with its pronunciation and grammatical form; forming combinations of words of a semantic nature.

Thus, Russian researchers disclose the ideas of developmental teaching, the use of specially organized learning conditions, developing techniques, including those at foreign language lessons. However, teachers do not pay enough attention to the ideas of developmental teaching in forming students' communicative competence at foreign language lessons.

The analysis of foreign studies has shown that the ideas of the developmental teaching are presented in the works of T.A. Kirkpatrick, D.H. Howe, D.L. Kirkpatrick (1992) and Maria Jose Lobo, Pepita Subira (1993). They offer several developments on working out training strategies for teaching foreign languages. The first stage of the strategy is the students' awareness of the specific individual goal of learning a foreign language. The second stage is the development of an individual way of achieving the goal, when students answer such questions:

What are their needs? How can they plan their learning?
What are the factors which effect their learning?
How can they evaluate their learning and monitor their progress?
What do they need to do next?

Thus, researchers designate the individual character of teaching languages, defining the process of motivation and realization of the goal.

A slightly different approach is presented by Derek Edwards and Neil Mercer (1987). They argue that the school gives students all universal knowledge already in an adapted form. Through interacting with the teacher, through organizing joint communication, knowledge is transferred, which definitely contributes to the development of the student's personal qualities. This idea of the developmental teaching–to construct the student-teacher interaction in organizing the learning process was reflected in the works of J. Jia (2014). It is supplemented by modern means of teaching foreign languages: "intelligent web-English instruction" (Jia, 2014) computer multimedia (Ni, 2017), training programs on the tablet (Weible, Seemann, 2013), which are used to listen to foreign speech together with checking questions after listening. K. K. Kiyassova et al. (2017) consider the problem of English-speaking individualized instruction in junior school. They suggest using exercises specially selected for each student, taking into account his/her level of readiness to perceive the foreign speech. This system of exercises contributes to the development of the student's speech activity.

Researcher Jing Ding (2015) indicates the importance of teaching a foreign language through the method of projects. This method is necessary at foreign language lessons in order to strengthen the speech activity practice. In the article the researcher sets out the significance of the method of project, gives its theoretical substantiation, analyzes its significance in teaching languages.

Thus, the analysis of foreign sources has shown that scientists and practitioners do not often turn to the ideas of the developmental teaching. Overall, the works actualize issues related to the students' individual approach; motivation to learn a foreign language; using modern techniques aimed at strengthening the speech activity practice at foreign language lessons.

3. Materials and methods
3.1. Theoretical and empirical methods
- Analysis and synthesis of normative documents, study of psychological, pedagogical and methodological literature.
- Content analysis of the "Starlight" teaching package in the English language for the 8th grade, authors K.M. Baranov, et al. (2010), which made it possible to identify project assignments for the development of students' communicative competence.
- Development of English language lesson summaries for the 8th grade on the basis of the ideas of developmental teaching.

3.2. The base of research
Class 8 "B" of the MBEI School № 47 (Kirov). The study involved 2 groups of students, 11 pupils in the first and 14 pupils in the second, the total number of 25 people. The experiment was conducted in 2015-2016 academic year.

3.3. Stages of research
The study consisted of three stages:

The first stage – the search-theoretical stage –involved understanding and formulating research problems; defining the goal, the hypothesis of the research; drawing up the research plan.

The second experimental stage conducted the content analysis of the English textbook; revealed the possibilities of the textbook to use the ideas of the developmental teaching in order to develop students' communicative competence; developed summaries of the lessons; analyzed the results of the pedagogical experiment, including the selection of topical projects to develop the communicative competence.

The third stage was generalizing the research results, including the qualitative analysis of the results and their theoretical substantiation.

3.4. Evaluation Criteria
The basis for assessing the development of students' communicative competence was made of basic skills:
• to read and understand authentic texts (understanding the main content and full understanding);
• to hear and understand the oral speech;
• to communicate verbally in situations of educational, labour, cultural, everyday life and other spheres;
• to speak about oneself and surroundings, to retell, to express an opinion, to give assessment;
• the ability to write and transmit information in writing (a letter).

Against this background the levels of the development of communicative competence were determined.

High level –the pupil understands the content of oral and written speech; can participate in the dialogue without preparation; expresses his/her opinion in a monologue; can write messages, essays, reports; the vocabulary allows to participate actively in the conversation; uses correctly the known constructions; the rate of speech is quite high; can start, support and end the conversation; uses coherent and logical construction in speech construction.

Intermediate level – the student understands the main content, follows unfamiliar vocabulary in a clearly spoken speech; understands the main content of the text, but finds it

difficult to understand unfamiliar words; can support the conversation and build his speech utterance using simple phrases within familiar topics; uses learned constructions, word combinations and standard speech patterns in dialogues and monologues; expresses the idea in short phrases, the rate of speech is low; knows how to answer questions, follows the partner's thought, but cannot support the conversation independently; uses widely simple conjunctions to make utterances coherent and logic.

Low level - the student understands separate words and simple phrases in a clearly sounding speech and text; can ask simple questions and answer them within the framework of the learned topics, but makes mistakes; makes up a story on the learned topics, using simple phrases, but with mistakes; makes mistakes in writing; has a small stock of words and phrases; uses vocabulary in simple grammatical constructions; no fluency of speech, stops to find the right words, expressions, to correct mistakes; communication is limited to personal matters within familiar topics; speech cohesion is difficult.

3.5. Procedure and description of the experiment

The study was conducted on the basis of MBEI School No. 47, Kirov. The experiment involved fifty pupils of the 8 grades, both the experimental group and the control group included 25 pupils.

The content analysis of the "Starlight" teaching package in the English language for the 8th grade made it possible to identify the textbook options for implementing the ideas of the developmental teaching, and it was also determined that the contents of the textbook did not fully comply with the principles of the developmental teaching. For example, the basic principle of the developmental teaching – the principle of the leading role of theoretical knowledge is not included in the conception of the "Starlight" teaching package.

Based on the available "Starlight" teaching package, reflecting the ideas of developmental teaching, there were developed summaries of the foreign language lessons

4. Discussion
4.1. The ascertaining stage of the experiment

During the ascertaining experiment each group of pupils was given a test to identify their level of the development of the communicative competence. The results are presented in Figure 1.
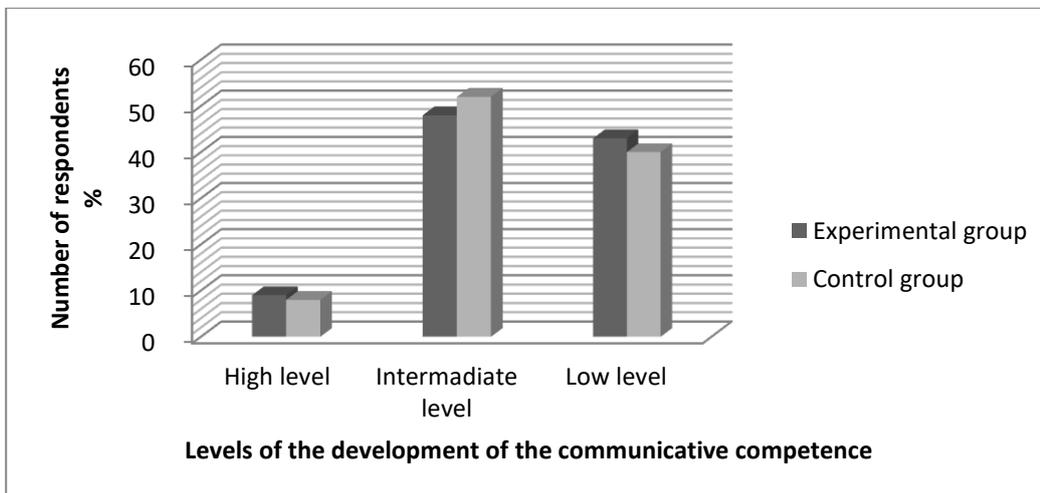
Fig. 1. Diagram of the levels of the development of students' communicative competence at the ascertaining stage

Analyzing the data shown in Fig. 1, we can state that in the experimental group 9 % of pupils show a high level of the communicative competence, 48 % of pupils have an average level, 43 % of pupils demonstrate a low level. In the control group, 8 % of students have a high level of the development of the communicative competence, 52 % – an average level, 40 % – a low level. Consequently, students of both groups have approximately the same level of the development of the communicative competence.

4.2. Forming stage of the experiment

At the foreign language lessons in Class 8 "B" we used "Starlight" teaching package in the English language, authors K.M. Baranov, D. Dooley, V.V. Kopylov (2010). The work on developing the communicative competence was carried out with the use of the content of this textbook. In this regard, first, we conducted the content analysis of the Starlight textbook to identify its possibilities to apply the ideas of developmental teaching, and selected project tasks for the development of communicative competence of students. Secondly, we developed lessons summaries to introduce the ideas of developmental teaching at the foreign language lessons.

1. The "Starlight" teaching package is an innovative joint project of the Russian publishing house "Prosveshchenie" and the British publishing house "Express Publishing", which reflects modern trends in Russian and foreign methods of teaching English. The textbook contains authentic material about Russia. A distinctive feature of the teaching materials is a modular construction of the textbook. The materials of the textbook contribute mainly to the achievement of the personal, meta-subject and subject learning outcomes. In general, "Starlight" teaching materials meet the requirements of the Federal State Educational Standard, the federal component of the State Standard of Basic and Secondary General Education in Foreign Languagesand the exemplary programs in the English language.

The purpose of the "Starlight" course is to form students' communicative competence. The textbook is of a sociocultural orientation and implies the activity character of learning (drawing up mini-projects, scenarios).

The textbook consists of 6 modules, each in turn is devoted to a separate topic. For example, 1 – "Breaking News", 2 – "Consumer Society", 3 – "Doing the right thing," 4 – "Still a mystery", 5 – "Lifelong learning", 6 – "Getting to know you". Quite standard topics for studying English are encoded under these names: world events, weather, services, society, learning, appearance.

It should be noted that each section includes a set of specific lexical and grammatical materials (mostly lexical). At the beginning of the textbook there is the content in English; at the end of the textbook there are texts for home reading, a culturalguide, a list of irregular verbs, a grammar reference and an English-Russian dictionary, which contains the vocabulary necessary for this stage of training.

Each module consists of 9 lessons, aimed at the development of all types of the speech activity: reading, listening, speaking, writing, and also contain additional information of a cultural and regional character. Each module copies the structure of the previous one.

Each section begins with the introduction and subsequent application of the active vocabulary on the given topic. Exercises are diverse in content and focus, the workbook is actively used. All vocabulary belongs to the productive vocabulary. The advantage of the textbook is illustrations that contribute to a better understanding of the vocabulary in question.

To identify the possibilities of the textbook in respect of using the ideas of developmental teaching, we analyzed the modules and defined the tasks aimed at partially exploring and searching activities that help to determine the connections of phenomena, to go deeper into the study of the material, to comprehend it. All project assignments can be divided into several groups: geographic, cultural, environmental, socially significant, literary and biological projects. Their ratio is shown in Fig. 2.
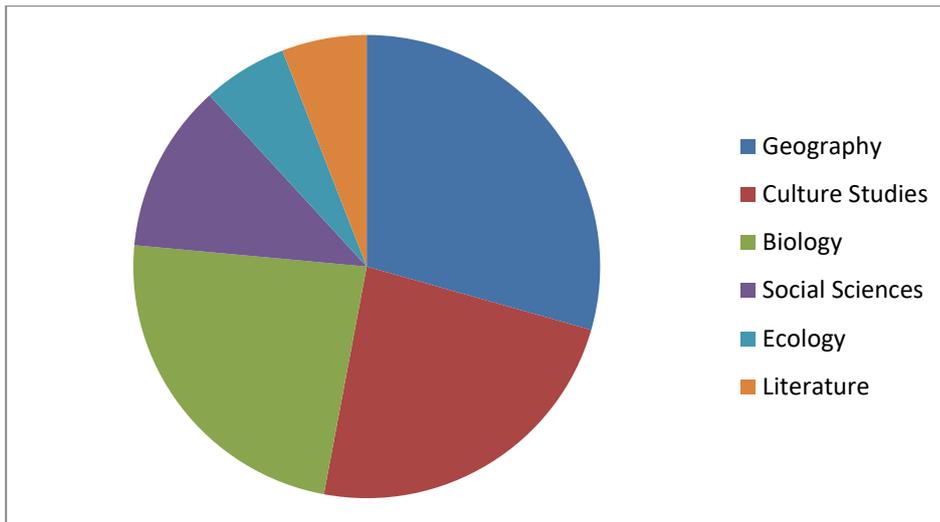
Fig. 2. Projects orientation in "Starlight" textbook modules

Thus, the content of the "Starlight" teaching package, the projects identified in the textbook, help to acquaint students with new lexical material (introduction and somatization of lexical units). However, the textbook of a communicative type does not meet the requirement of the basic principle of the developmental teaching – the principle of the leading role of theoretical knowledge. The ideas of the developmental teaching at the foreign language lessons require additional teacher's creative work who will be able to integrate the textbook materials in order to form students' communicative competence.

Based on the textbook content analysis there were developed lessons summaries applying the ideas of the developmental teaching. Each lesson is built according to a certain scheme that meets the requirements of the Federal State Educational Standard.

Let us present a fragment of the lesson.

Lesson: Curricular: Geography

The purpose of the lesson: communicative and speech development of students through developing a project on the topic "Tsunami" (a geographical project).

At the lesson:

Motivation for learning activities. At the beginning of the lesson, there is a motivation process to study the program material. The goal of motivation is to create student's internal readiness for performing tasks on the individually significant level. The realization of this goal is provided by using the method of the narration about such a natural phenomenon as tsunami. The story stimulates an individual internal need to study the program material.

Actualization and trial action. The actualization of knowledge occurs through establishing the feedback – the students remember what they know about tsunami. To expand the knowledge of tsunami, the text from the textbook is proposed, which is given without a title and the student's task is to propose a title.

Identifying the place and causes of the difficulty. An obligatory stage at the foreign language lesson is the use of the section *Check these words* to explain new words and concepts on the topic. Students get to know new lexical material. In order to consolidate the material, the following task is proposed: "Tell your partner about 4 new facts related to tsunami", which is aimed at developing dialogical speech.

The stage of project construction and problem solution – organizing students' research activity. Tsunami projects are created in groups (3–4 people). The preparation of mini-projects takes 10–15 minutes of the lesson.

Realization of the formed model and primary consolidation with pronouncing out aloud. At this stage, groups present their projects on tsunami, which allows to see the level of lexical skills and to check the construction of monologues, concerning their logic and cohesion.

Independent work with self-control. Each group gives marks to other groups, mutual evaluation takes place.

Inclusion in the system of knowledge and revision. The homework given to students will be aimed at revising the lexical material studied and at developing coherent speech, which, on the whole, results in forming students' communicative competence.

Thus, including projects in the course of the lesson makes it possible to mobilize students, putting them in a situation of a problematic, research character. Projects help to build interdisciplinary connections, in this case, with the academic subject Geography, as well as to broaden the horizons, to form intellectual abilities, theoretical creative thinking of students (one of the ideas of the developmental teaching), all this contributes to the development of students' communicative competence.

4.3. Control stage of the experiment

After completing the experimental teaching, the experimental and control groups of the 8th class were again offered a test in order to establish the level of the development of their communicative competence.

Comparison of the results of the ascertaining and control experiments showed that the level of the development of communicative competence of experimental group students increased. The number of the high level students in the experimental group increased by 15 %, the intermediate level – by 9 %, and the low level decreased by 24 %. In the control group, the indices changed insignificantly – only one student made progress in comprehending the lexical material. In the control group, the number of students with the intermediate level of development of communicative competence increased by 10 % – Fig. 3.
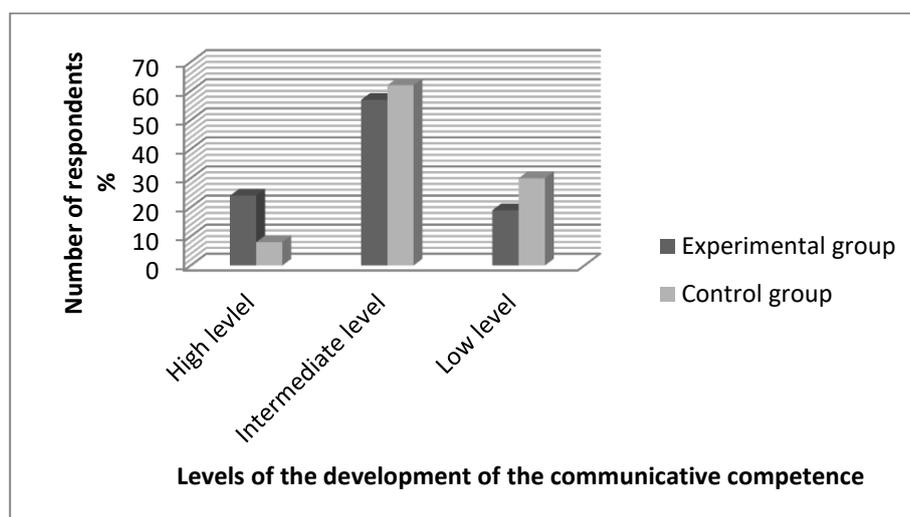
Fig. 3. Diagram of the level of the development of students' communicative competence after the experiment

The effectiveness of applying the ideas of the developmental teaching is confirmed by the qualitative analysis of the development of the communicative competence of students who were at different levels.

For example, Masha M. had the intermediate level of the development of the communicative competence at the stage of the ascertaining experiment. At the lessons she could talk to the teacher, answered questions, but did not always use new lexical units, made mistakes in the use of new words or replaced them with previously studied vocabulary. The rate of reading was not high, but she could understand the main content of the text, it was difficult for her to understand some unfamiliar words. There were difficulties in understanding some unfamiliar and newly studied words. While listening she understood only half of the information, there were difficulties in perceiving phrases with unfamiliar words. The rate of speech was slow, the utterances in monologues and the dialogues were a bit confused. She used a fairly large amount of linguistic means, made certain inaccuracies in the use of words in written speech.

After using the developmental material of the Starlight textbook, as well as specially selected assignments in the form of mini-projects, Masha M. showed a leap in the development of the

communicative competence. Her level of the development of the communicative competence increased to a high level. She tried to express her opinion, while using new words correctly. There were practically no mistakes in written and oral assignments, she used new vocabulary. She had no difficulty in understanding the content of the oral or written text. The range of linguistic means in speech utterances was quite wide. A high rate of speech was combined with good pronunciation. Written works showed the knowledge of a large stock of vocabulary, logic and coherence of speech.

To verify the reliability of the quantitative data obtained, we used the method of mathematical statistics, the Fisher test. In our study, Fisher's criterion is used to compare the distributions of quantitative indications.

In calculations, we use the basic calculation formula (Ermolaev, 2003):

$$\varphi_{emp} = (\varphi1 - \varphi2) \cdot \sqrt{\frac{n1 \cdot n2}{n1 + n2}} \quad (1)$$

φemp - the number to determine significance levels.
φ1 – the value taken from the table, corresponding to a larger percentage;
φ2 – the value taken from the table corresponding to the lower percentage;
n1 – the number of observations in series 1;
n2 – the number of observations in series 2.

In our case, according to the table [24], we find the values φ1 and φ2 – corresponding to the percentage of each level of students' communicative competence (high, intermediate, low). By changing the data of the high level of the communicative competence in the control group, according to the table, the corresponding value for 8 % is φ1 = 0.574, and for 7 % the value is φ2 = 0.536. n1 = 25, n2 = 25. Substituting the data in the formula (1), we get that φemp = 0,134. Critical values for this criterion are as follows:

$$\varphi_{kr} = \begin{cases} 1,64 \text{ for } P \leq 0,05 \\ 2,28 \text{ for } P \leq 0,01 \end{cases}$$

Analyzing the location of the φemp on the "axis of significance", we can say that the obtained value φemp = 0.134 falls into the zone of insignificant measurements. In other words, the measurements obtained are statistically unreliable.

In the changed data for the intermediate level of the communicative competence in the control group, according to the table, the corresponding value for 64 % is φ1 = 1.855, and the value for 52 % is φ2 = 1.611. n1 = 25, n2 = 25. Substituting the data in the formula (1), we get that φemp = 0,862. Analyzing the location of the φemp on the "axis of significance" relative to the critical values for the Fisher test, we can say that the obtained value φemp = 0.862 falls into the zone of insignificant measurements. In other words, the obtained measurements are statistically unreliable.

In the changed data for the low level of communicative competence in the control group, according to the table, the corresponding value for 40 % is φ1 = 1.369, and for 29 % the value is φ2 = 1.137. n1 = 25, n2 = 25. Substituting the data into the formula (1), we get that φemp = 0,820. Analyzing the location of the φ on the "axis of significance" relative to the critical values for the Fisher test, we can say that the obtained value φemp = 0.862 falls into the zone of insignificant measurements. In other words, the measurements obtained are statistically unreliable. Accordingly, data changes the for the control group on the whole are statistically unreliable.

In the changed data for the high level of the communicative competence in the experimental group, the corresponding value for 24 % in the table is φ1 = 1,024, and the value for 9 % is φ2 = 0.609. n1 = 25, n2 = 25. Substituting the data in the formula (1), we get that φemp = 1,467. Analyzing the location of the φ on the "axis of significance" relative to the critical values for the Fisher test, we can say that the obtained value φemp = 1,467 falls into the zone of uncertainty of the measurements. In other words, at the 5 % level of significance, one can talk about the difference between data on the high level of students' communicative competence in the experimental group.

In the changed data for the intermediate level of the communicative competence in the experimental group, the corresponding value for 57 % in the table is φ1 = 1,711, and the value for 48 % is φ2 = 1.531. n1 = 25, n2 = 25. Substituting the data in the formula (1), we get that φemp = 0.636. Analyzing the location of the φ on the "axis of significance" relative to the critical values for the Fisher test, we can say that the obtained value φemp = 0.636 falls into the zone of insignificant measurements. In other words changes of the data on the high level of students' communicative

competence in the experimental group on the ascertaining and control stages of the experiment are 9% and statistically are not distinguished

In the changed data for the low level of students' communicative competence in the experimental group, according to the table, the corresponding value for 43% is $\varphi_1 = 1.430$, and the value for 19% is $\varphi_2 = 0.902$. $n_1 = 25$, $n_2 = 25$. Substituting the data into the formula (1), we get that $\varphi_{emp} = 1,866$. Analyzing the location of the φ_{emp} on the "axis of significance" relative to the critical values for the Fisher test, we can say that the obtained value $\varphi_{emp} = 1.866$ falls in the zone of uncertainty of the measurements. In other words, at the 5 % level of significance, one can talk about the difference between data on the low level of students communicative competence in the experimental group.

Thus, we can conclude that changes in the experimental group are statistically more significant than in the control concerning the level of the development of the communicative competence. Qualitative and quantitative analysis of the results of the experimental work has shown an increase in the level of the development of students' communicative competence while applying the ideas of the developmental teaching at the foreign language lessons.

The conducted research has shown that theoreticians and practitioners of Russian education pay attention to the ideas of the developmental teaching in the context of educational activity. Moreover, one of the main principles of reforming the Russian school proclaimed is the principle of the developmental teaching. The developmental teaching is a system of organizing the teaching process that facilitates the inclusion of internal mechanisms of the students' personality development and the fullest realization of their intellectual and creative abilities (Makhmutov, 2009).

The assimilation of foreign vocabulary in the classroom while applying the ideas of the developmental teaching is much more effective than while traditional teaching. Here, the range of students' thinking of widens together with increasing their creative potential through the use of projects of different topical focus.

Analyzing the concept of the developmental teaching of V.V. Davydova, D.B. Elkonin (1996) and L.V. Zankova (1990), we can conclude that the student, included in the educational activity, becomes an active subject of training. However, the pupil is not given the right to choose the methods and forms of educational activity, conditions are created for him in the context of partial exploration and research activities. So, the lesson becomes dynamic and interesting for the pupil.

Thus, the use of the ideas of the developmental teaching at the foreign language lessons in modern conditions is relevant, but it has its own peculiarities determined by the specific development of students' communicative competence.

5. Conclusion

In the course of the research, there was conducted a content analysis of the "Starlight" teaching package in the English language for the 8th grade, which showed that in general the textbook meets the ideas of the developmental teaching. However, the concept of "Starlight" does not reflect one of the main principles of the developmental teaching – the leading role of theoretical knowledge.

Selected projects of different topical focus: geographical, cultural, environmental, socially significant, literary and biological, develop students' intellectual abilities and creative thinking and, on the whole, contribute to the formation of the communicative competence. The developed lessons with the use of the project activity meet the requirements of the Federal State Educational Standard.

Using the ideas of the developmental teaching at the foreign language lessons allows to create a favorable environment for the development of students' foreign language communicative competence. Students quickly memorize new lexical units, use them more correctly and more often in their monologues and dialogues, they have less difficulty in learning new vocabulary while reading and listening. Students' speech becomes more literate, fluent, the number of mistakes that make communication difficult decreases, the contextual and speech guess develops.

The materials of this article can be useful for teachers of foreign languages as well as for teachers of higher educational institutions.

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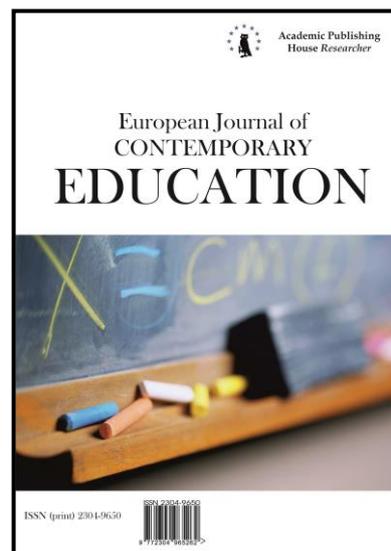
Students' Humanitarian Science Club Activity in 2006–2012

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Abstract

The article deals with the experience of establishing of the students' humanitarian science club and its' activity in a classic university. The authors pay attention to regulations, structure, duties, daily activities, as well as the publications of the scientific club.

The authors come to the conclusion that a quite large variety of methodological practices and approaches in the organization of students' science activities, aiming at improving the quality of students' scientific researches can be applied. The algorithm of organization and activity of the student scientific club proposed in the article demonstrated effectiveness and, in the opinion of the authors, can be used in organizing students' science research in other higher educational institutions.

Keywords: students' scientific club, humanitarian science, structure, activity.

1. Introduction

Students' research activity is the main part of the learning process at the university. The specialist's future professional suitability as well as obtaining necessary competencies depends on the effectiveness of this work's organization. In this article, we would like to share the experience of establishing and operating a student scientific club.

2. Discussion

The principles of the establishing of students' scientific clubs and their functioning have been reflected in numerous publications. Typically, these publications are divided into two main types: reporting (Baranov et al, 2010; Novopashina, Mudrov, 2017; Panasenko, 2013; Shastny et al., 2017; Brukhovskikh, Folieva, 2007; Stromov et al., 2017) and methodical publications (Primchuk, 2010;

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Yanutsh, 2011; Tyumentseva, Shtabnova, 2016, Kompaniets, 2016). In reporting publications, the main emphasis is on demonstrating the effectiveness of students' science activity in an educational institution. In methodological publications, more attention is paid to methodological techniques and mechanisms for managing the scientific process of the students' activities.

3. Results

It is commonly known that there are some students interested in thorough study of the subject in every department. These students are the core of the students' scientific club.

3.1. Regulations

The activity of the student scientific club in the university is governed by Regulations. Usually, it is the "Regulations on the students' scientific club". The Regulations is typical and, as a rule, consists of: 1) general information, 2) aims and goals of the club, 3) membership, 4) the organizational structure, 5) the basis for the interaction of the club with the university administration, 6) the final regulations. In its majority, the student scientific club is subordinated to the pro-rector for scientific work.

3.2. Structure

In many Russian universities, the best students are appointed the Leaders of the scientific club.We did the contrary – students' scientific club was leadered by Leader of the Department, at the moment of its establishment – a Candidate of science and a few years later – a Doctor of Science. Thus, a scientist became the Leader of the scientific club. The club also enlisted the prefect and the club members (the most active member of the club was appointed the prefect). The position of a prefect was not limited in time for a student and, as a rule, he resigned on completing his education at the university.
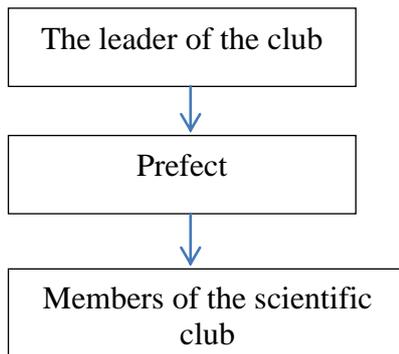
Fig. 1. The structure of the scientific club

3.3. Duties

Every member of the scientific club has his own duties. The leader of the club conducted students' research work, provided scientific advice, corrected students' reports.

The club prefect carried out the organization and interaction between the leader and the members of the club, was a reserve speaker during the meetings of the society, in the absence of a scheduled speaker. The prefect served as a role model for the other members of the club.

The members of the club are the active students from the 1st to the 5th year of full-time and part-time forms of education, conducting scientific research, attending the club meetings. Members of the club were also divided into two categories: 1) new members and 2) old members. These differences were manifested only at the conferences. Thus, the old members did not have the right to claim prize-winning places at the university's internal conferences, the only prizes available to them were in other universities. We must note that they often got them.

The number of members of the scientific club reached from 15 to 20 people. The club also included students from schools that were interested in this professional career. These schoolchildren were selected by the leader of the club at city school competitions and conferences (for example, the annual conference "The First Steps in Science"). The most effective

club admission was in 2008, when three winners of school competitions (city, regional and national level) entered the department.

3.4. Activity

The main activities of the club were in monthly meetings. At the meeting, the leader of the club and its 3 members (including the prefect) made a report. The meetings were held on the 20th of each month. One academic session was allocated for one meeting (1.5 hours). In order to attract more people to the meeting, the club leader held a meeting during one of the academic sessions of the educational process. Not only it increased the number of people who attended the meeting, but also the scientific work among the students was promoted. During the meetings, the speaker was asked questions, which made it possible to improve the report and expand the understanding of the material, and also made it possible to get recommendations. In addition, the speaker got used to the audience and to the process of speaking, which reduced the anxiety during his speech.

For first year students, the acquaintance with a scientific club began on the first lesson. Before the beginning of the first introductory lecture, the students were visited by the leader and the prefect of the club, who marked the themes of their scientific work, told about the activities of the club and invited the students to join. As a rule, after the first lecture, students entered the club by applying.

The club was established on February 24, 2006 and this date became the official day of the beginning of the club's work. Annually on this day, the so-called anniversary readings (extended meetings) were held. During the anniversary readings, four lecturers (including the leader of the scientific club) delivered speeches. After the meeting, all the students and schoolchildren who made reports throughout the year were rewarded by the rector.

The activities of the club were carried out according to the work schedule (Table 1).

Table 1. Annual schedule of the scientific club activities

№	Month	Event
1	September	Meeting
2	October	Meeting
3	November	Meeting
4	December	Meeting
5	January	Meeting
6	February	Anniversary meeting
7	March	Meeting
8	April	Conference presentation
9	May	Conference presentation
10	June	Meeting

Table 1 shows the annual distribution of meetings of the scientific club. It is important to note that every year in April and May the students' scientific-practical university, city and regional conferences were held. As a result, students performed at those conferences and thus no meetings were held. The reports already presented at the club meetings were presented later at the conferences and usually won prizes. The reason for this is very trivial: students, who were not engaged in the club activities, began their scientific activities in the last two years of education mandatorily as an approbation of a thesis. For them, for the most part, speaking at the conference was something completely new, unusual and unexpected. For the club members, even for the first-year students, delivering speeches was a common activity, their reports were already approved, so performing and answering questions was not a difficult matter for them.

In addition to meetings and conferences, the members of the club took part in discussions on the regional history problems, as well as in 1-10-day field trips. During field trips the students crossed rugged terrain; their route was built considering the latest theories on the particular area history. Such field activities had a strong pedagogical impact and tightened the bonds between the members of the scientific community.

After each meeting the prefect of the scientific club prepared the meeting protocol. It listed the speakers at the meeting, as well as the topics of their reports. The protocol was signed by the leader and the prefect of the club. Every year the protocols were included in the annual report of the scientific club activities.

3.5. Publication activity

The range of scientific research was wide. It included questions of historiography, new and pre-revolutionary history. Students worked in the local, regional and central archives of the Russian Federation, collected personal materials and held interviews. The research materials were published in the conference proceedings, as well as in scientific journals. Among the journals were the historical periodical "Bilye gody" ("The Past Years") and the multi-topic journal "Vestnik Sochinskogo Gosudarstvennogo universiteta turizma I kurortnogo dela" ("The Bulletin of the Sochi State University for Tourism and Recreation"). Complete studies were published as separate brochures. The most important works of the club were the following (Cherkasov, 2006; Cherkasov, 2011; Cherkasov et al., 2011; Gargolina, Cherkasov, 2009; Ermachkov, Cherkasov, 2007; Karataev, Cherkasov, 2006; Karataev, Cherkasov, 2007; Markelova, Cherkasov, 2008; Merkulova, Cherkasov, 2008; Merkulova, Cherkasov, 2010; Polyakova, Cherkasov, 2006; Rozhko, Cherkasov, 2007).

In conclusion, the effectiveness of the students' scientific club should be mentioned. In 2006-2012 students repeatedly became the holders of the Government of the Russian Federation scholarship, the administration of the Krasnodar region scholarship holders, laureates of the "Olympus Kuban" competition, they also got the title "A student of the year". They also received higher university scholarships and took part in funded research projects.

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, we would like to note that a quite large variety of methodological practices and approaches in the organization of students' science activities, aiming at improving the quality of students' scientific researches can be applied. The algorithm of organization and activity of the student scientific club proposed in the article demonstrated effectiveness and, in the opinion of the authors, can be used in organizing students' science activity in other higher educational institutions.

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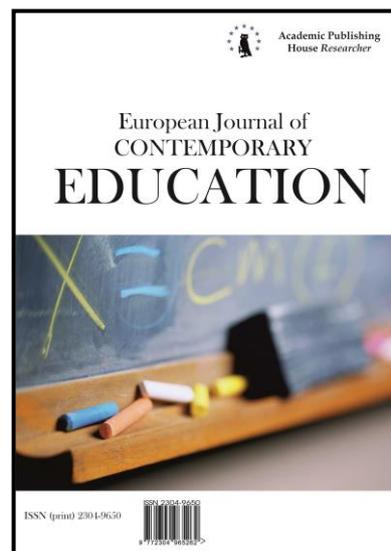
Professional Risk: Sex, Lies, and Violence in the Films about Teachers

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Abstract

Pedagogical issues are rather popular in the world's cinematography. Images of school and university teachers occupy a special place in it. Hoping to attract as many viewers as possible the cinematography prefers to refer not to everyday routine education process but to "hot spots" of teaching associated mainly with sex, lies and violence (in this regard deception is successfully combined with narrative moves of violence and sex) in recent decades.

Thus, the title of the French film *Risky Business* (*Les risques du métier*, 1967) contains the essence of the media presentation of the teacher's image whose profession is undoubtedly linked to serious risks and challenges. The review and analysis of 1300 Western films about school and university, study of more than 7000 published materials (books, research articles and film reviews) on the declared topic have enabled us to reveal the following basic types of teacher's images in the Western cinematography: positive (super)hero (often a male, a school teacher recently employed) who reeducates an aggressive and disobedient class; a negative personage who hates students (in some cases he/she can even be a robot-killer or an alien); a loser / clown, outsider suffering from his job; a bureaucrat-administrator.

The authors of the article point to the fact that the teacher's image on the Western screen has significantly transformed over time. The self-censorship that existed practically till the 1960s did not allow film makers to touch upon such radical aspects as violence, sex, obscene language, racial and religious problems in schools and universities. But after the lifting of the Hays Code and the advent of the so-called sexual revolution of the 1970s the Western screen began to successively exploit the topics forbidden before, thus creating new horrifying narratives moves every year. On the other hand, the tendency for reflection on the pedagogical mission and real professional challenges involved stills remains in the Western cinematography.

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Such hermeneutic analysis of Western audiovisual media texts about school and university allowed the authors to integrate the structure of media stereotypes of school and university teachers in films.

Keywords: film, cinema, movie, cinematography, teacher, educator, school, university, student, education.

1. Introduction

The article analyzes the teacher's image on the Western screen including the most popular media professional risky aspects of teaching related to the problems of sex, lies, and violence. As well as in our previous works (Fedorov, et al., 2017), we use the hermeneutic analysis of Western film texts about school and university teachers based on the technologies developed by C. Bazalgette (Bazalgette, 1995), A. Silverblatt (Silverblatt, 2001: 80-81), W.J. Potter (Potter, 2001) and U. Eco (Eco, 1998; 2005).

2. Materials and Methods

Our research material is foreign fiction films about school and university; the basic method is a comparative hermeneutic analysis of Western films relating to the topic (including stereotypes analysis, ideological analysis, identification analysis, iconographic analysis, narrative analysis of media texts, media text's character analysis, etc.), anthropological and gender analyses. We also analyzed monographs and articles devoted to film images of school and university teachers (Ayers, 1994; Bauer, 1998; Beyerbach, 2005; Brown, 2015; Bulman, 2005; Burbach, Figgins, 1993; Conklin, 2008; Considine, 1985; Crume, 1988; Dalton, 2004; 2005; Doherty, 2003; Edelman, 1983; Ehlers, 1992; Farber, Holm, 1994; Farber et al., 1994; Farhi, 1999; Gauthier, 1996; Giroux, 1993; 1997; Grobman, 2002; Hill, 1995; Hinton, 1994; Hooks, 1996; Joseph, Burnaford, 1994; Lafferty, 1945; Lasley, 1998; Long, 1996; Martinez-Salanova, 2010; Mayerle, Rarick, 1989; McCullick et al., 2003; Newman, 2001; Paul, 2001; Raimo et al., 2002; Reed, 1989; Reyes, Rios, 2003; Reynolds, 2007; 2009; 2014; 2015; Robertson, 1995; 1997; Rosen, 2004; Ryan, 2008; Schwartz, 1960; 1963; Swetnam, 1992; Tan, 1999; Tatulescu, 2011; Thomsen, 1993; Trier, 2000; 2001; Tucciarone, 2007; Umphlett, 1984; Wallace, 2009; Wasylkiw, Currie, 2012; Watson, 1990; Weinstein, 1998; Wells, Serman, 1998; Wilson, 1986, etc.). In total we viewed and analyzed one thousand Western films about school and university, studied more than 7000 published research materials (books, articles and film reviews).

3. Discussion

Among numerous works concerning the topic of school and university in the Western cinematography (Ayers, 1994; Bauer, 1998; Beyerbach, 2005; Brown, 2015; Bulman, 2005; Burbach, Figgins, 1993; Conklin, 2008; Considine, 1985; Crume, 1988; Dalton, 2004; 2005; Doherty, 2003; Edelman, 1983; Ehlers, 1992; Farber, Holm, 1994; Farber et al., 1994; Farhi, 1999; Gauthier, 1996; Giroux, 1993; 1997; Grobman, 2002; Hill, 1995; Hinton, 1994; Hooks, 1996; Joseph, Burnaford, 1994; Lafferty, 1945; Lasley, 1998; Long, 1996; Martinez-Salanova, 2010; Mayerle, Rarick, 1989; McCullick et al., 2003; Misterova, 2015; Newman, 2001; Paul, 2001; Raimo et al., 2002; Reed, 1989; Reyes, Rios, 2003; Reynolds, 2007; 2009; 2014; 2015; Robertson, 1995; 1997; Rosen, 2004; Ryan, 2008; Schwartz, 1960; 1963; Swetnam, 1992; Tan, 1999; Tatulescu, 2011; Thomsen, 1993; Trier, 2000; 2001; Tucciarone, 2007; Umphlett, 1984; Wallace, 2009; Wasylkiw, Currie, 2012; Watson, 1990; Weinstein, 1998; Wells, Serman, 1998; Wilson, 1986), the research by J. Schwartz (Schwartz, 1963) comes first since he analyzed not only 470 films created in the USA between 1931 and 1961 but also 3000 reviews of these films published in the American press.

The research results proved that these films supported the social values of the American society, and 13% of the films showed such problems as public dissatisfaction with school teaching, underfunding and discrimination (Schwartz, 1963).

When thoroughly analyzing 30 American films about the school of the 1950s J. Schwartz stressed that the films as a rule belonged to entertainment genres (comedies, musical comedies, melodramas) including entertaining topics, love affairs, household and family problems, research and teaching, mental disorders, alcohol abuse. And the teachers were presented in the films for the greater part as unmarried male middle-aged white people (Schwartz, 1960: 83-84).

J. Schwartz also noted a curious tendency in the films under analysis: the lesser part of the film action took place in the classroom while the extracurricular life of school students and teachers usually dominated in the film plots. Furthermore, very often the images of teachers on the American screen were shallow and the school image was rather negative (Schwartz, 1963).

It should be noted that we also observed that in the coming decades the presentation of real events in the school or university classroom took the lesser part of the screen time in the film. One of the bright examples of the last few decades with a lesson dominant in the film narrative is the drama – *The Class* (*Entre les murs*, France, 2008).

The gender analysis made by J. Schwartz revealed that female characters in the American films about school of the 1930s-1960s were shown in a greater degree as teachers of primary and secondary schools whereas the male characters were more frequently shown as university professors (Schwartz, 1963: 38). A number of researches concluded that male images of teachers dominated in American media texts at the expense of female images (Crume, 1988; Beyerbach, 2005). In addition, A.S. Wells and T.W. Serman (Wells & Serman, 1998) indicated that the American cinematograph prefers to feature white teachers educating Afro-American and Latin-American students (it is fair to say that before the 1960s practically all teachers on the Western screen belonged to the European race).

G. Gerbner (1919-2005), a well-known media theorist published an article in 1966 in which he analyzed media images of teachers in the USA and Europe (including the USSR) in the cross-cultural context. As a result, he came to the conclusion that media representations of teachers in different countries have much in common, while in the socialist countries teachers were shown in those times more favorably with an emphasis on the personal and social morality.

"The terms of this morality, – stressed G. Gerbner – are not necessarily comparable across cultures; the idea of laissez faire liberalism is not the same as that of "socialist morality" or devotion to the cause of a revolution or the Soviet concept of education as "the moral development of the child" (Gerbner, 1966: 228). In G. Gerbner's opinion, the media image of the teacher in the socialist media reflects a happier fate and more "stable", "purposeful" and "democratic" existence in its own fictional "world" of education than it does in the West (Gerbner, 1966: 229).

P.A. Ryan considers that a positive image of American educators was characteristic of the Cold War (Ryan, 2008: 143). In this case the positive image of the USA was also supported by audiovisual images of teachers who were the embodiment of high moral principles and traditions.

M.G. Ehlers analyzed American films created between 1968 and 1983 and found out that the film images of teachers of that period began to lose its mission of setting positive examples for imitation (Ehlers, 1992). By the end of the 1960s and the beginning of the 1970s teachers were more frequently shown in crisis or frustration (Hinton, 1994), and later very often in the erotic context (Bauer, 1998: 302-306). After analyzing a number of American films created between the 1980s and 1990s D.M. Bauer concluded that teacher's sexuality on the screen during George Bush's presidency was "repressed" whereas under B. Clinton teacher's eroticism in the cinema was rather emphasized (Bauer, 1998: 305-306). D.M. Considine states that two basic stereotypes of presenting teachers and students dominate in the American cinema (Considine, 1985: 112-113). We believe that this is a generalization: teachers in the cinematograph (Western, Soviet and Russian) also face serious challenges and often become their victims.

However, D.M. Considine is convinced that the image of the teacher in the American cinema actually became more negative by the 1980s; and even an appealing dramatic image of a teacher-hero who alone defeats all the negative characters in the end created a negative impression on the public perception of the teaching profession since it prompted the idea that serious school problems could be solved by individual efforts and not systemic measures. Similar reflections are expressed by W. Ayers (Ayers, 1994), X.A. Reyes and D.I. Rios (Reyes, Rios, 2003), A. Farhi (Farhi, 1999). P. Farber and G. Holm (Farber. Holm, 1994).

H.J. Burbach and M.A. Figgins gave a bright description of the situation relating to the image of the teacher in the American cinema of the beginning of the 1990s: "an exceptional teacher in exceptional situations" (Burbach, Figgins, 1993: 69) who sometimes succeeds without having the necessary professional qualifications or experience. D. Hill added a film image of the teacher-clown to this (Hill, 1995). P. Farber and G. Holm had similar findings.

Contrary to R. Edelman who is convinced that the images of teachers contained a dominating sentimental positive basis (Edelman, 1983: 28), T. Brown believes that fairy-tale stories about

teachers-magicians and self-sacrificing idealists significantly lost their positions at the turn of the 19th and 20th centuries.

By the beginning of the 21st century this idealized version of education quite rarely appears in media images since teachers were shown not only as heroes and/or victims but also as liars, loafers, and incompetent people unwilling to face new challenges and even using drugs. Teachers on the screen now fall under the influence of politicians, demanding parents; cultural, religious and racial differences, cuts in funding and have to focus on acute social problems (unemployment; gender, religious and racial conflicts, etc.) (Brown, 2015).

The image of the teacher in the Western cinematography in the context of sexuality
Heterosexual risks on the screen

Very often heterosexual risks on the Western screens lie in wait for teachers of secondary and high school. Usually, it is referred to situations of real and false seduction. In this respect both teachers and students can be shown as heterosexual seducers. The drama *Risky Business* (*Les risques du metier*, France, 1967) is one of bright examples of false sexual seduction / contact. Here a provincial teacher became a victim of false accusation of sexual harassment of three school students under age. The film was shown on the Soviet screen, regardless of such a "slippery" narrative, because none of the students' dreams had been visualized. The film *Risky Business* stirred mush debate in France (Travers, 2002), whereas in the USSR the film did not arouse much interest: taking into account the strict rules of that time, the Soviet audience perceived the French plot as something exotic...

Three years later the same French film maker André Cayatte created another drama – *To Die of Love* (*Mourir d'aimer,* France-Italy, 1970). At the present time the age of consent in liberal France is 15. But in the 1960s the morality was much severer and when, according to the film plot a 32-year-old teacher had sexual relations with a 17-year-old bearded senior school student (their feeling were mutual), his parents accused the young woman of seducing their under-age son and actually sent her to prison. This dramatic love story was shown with sympathy for the characters in love (Weiler, 1972) and maybe that is why it was not shown on the Soviet screen.

But two years later in another drama – *The First Night of Tranquility* (*La Prima notte di quiete*, France-Italy, 1972), a lyceum teacher suffering from a permanent psychological crisis maintains a romantic relationship with a beautiful senior student, soon after he learns that she has a very jealous criminal lover. And this very jealousy becomes a serious threat to the teacher's love melancholy (Shepherd, 2008).

In the 1970s-1980s, the plots touching upon sexual relations between school teachers (to a greater degree – female ones) and senior school students were very often created in a comic genre. This was particularly characteristic of the Italian cinema (*The Lyceum Student / La liceale,* 1975; *The School Teacher / L'insegnante,* 1975; *Private Lessons / Lezioni private,* 1975; *The Mixed Class / Classe mista,* Italy, 1976; *Professor of Natural Sciences / La professoressa di scienze naturali,* 1976; *The High School Girl in the Class of Repeaters / La liceale nella classe dei ripetenti,* 1978; *The School Teacher in College L'insegnante va in collegio,* 1978; *How to Seduce Your Teacher* / *La liceale seduce i professori,* 1979; *The Repeating Student Winked at the* Principal / *La ripetente fa l'occhietto al preside,* 1980, etc.). There were also American films, for example, *Loose Screws* (USA-Canada, 1985) which J.M. Anderson even called "a movie that understands teenage boys far better than most of today's output" (Anderson, 2010).

At the turn of the 19th and 20th centuries and essentially in the 21st century, heterosexual risks in teaching, on the one hand, shifted towards the age reduction of students, and on the other hand, to a considerable degree began to resemble erotic thrillers.

The widely-known film *Notes on a Scandal* (UK, 2006) is about a love affair between a female teacher and her 15-year-old school student. The film makers stress that "when the child is a male, there may be more at work than simple victimization by an adult" (Berardinelli, 2006). However, R. Stein rightly points out that "forbidden sex is merely a come-on, not the substance of this superlative British drama ... it insightfully explores the unpredictability of human behavior" (Stein, 2006).

On the other hand, a Spanish television series *Physics or Chemistry* (*Física o química*, Spain, 2008-2011) treats a love affair between a teacher and a senior student as a norm (the media text

does not disapprove of the teacher's taking drugs and free-and-easy sexual relations of school students either).

The topic of students' sexual harassment/seduction of teachers is sublimated in the films *Notes on a Scandal* (UK, 2006) and *Physics or Chemistry* (*Física o química*, Spain, 2008-2011).

In the film *Daydream Nation* (Canada, 2010) a senior girl-student obtrusively seduces her teacher (Schwartz, 2005). And in the movie *Devil in the Flesh* (USA, 1998) a girl student firstly kills several people, then aggressively and uncompromisingly attempts to conquer the teacher's heart and body. This stereotyped erotic thriller was ridiculed by American critics (Weinberg, 2004). A similar story of a beautiful 17-year-old student and her cruel sexual harassment of the teacher was shown in the film *The Perfect Teacher* (Canada, 2010). The authors of the movie *Gross Misconduct* (Australia, 1993) created a more intricate plot: a good-looking student seduces a married professor named Thorne, but afterwards, being an obedient daughter of her father, the university dean, she accuses the professor of a rape. One would think that the plot is far from being original. But it turns out in the end that it was the student's father… who had raped his daughter…

Needless to say, the screen also shows the reverse side of the medal, when teachers initiate sexual relations with students. For instance, in the film *Foxfire* (USA, 1996) a vulgar biology teacher bothers college girl-students who beat him savagely for that. The thriller *A Teacher* (USA, 2013) is based on the domination of a female teacher who had a sexual relation with a senior school student. The viewers' reaction on the movie in the USA was more than restrained (Linden, 2013; Rooney, 2013), and some media critics found it "troubling to watch such an episode unfold in an amoral vacuum, where the only reason to stop is the fear of getting caught" (Debruge, 2013). In the comedy *That's My Boy* (USA, 2012) this "moral vacuum" becomes grotesque: here a pretty-looking teacher openly seduces a school student who is about 13 or 14, afterwards she is sentenced to 30 year's imprisonment for the offence. The authors of the text do not disapprove of the situation, on the contrary, they rather sympathize with the eccentric love couple.

Other films on similar topics are: *School for Love* (USA) / *Sweet Sixteen* (UK) (*Futures vedettes,* France, 1955); *Don't Let the Mustard Go Up Your Nose* (*La moutarde me monte au nez,* France, 1974); *High School (Les diplômés du dernier rang,* France*, 1982)*; *My Tutor* (USA, 1983); *The Substitute* (USA, 1993); *My Teacher`s Wife* (USA, 1995); *Love Lessons* (*Lust och fägring stor,* Sweden, 1995); *Tina and the Professor* (USA, 1995); *Election* (USA, 1999); *Elegy* (USA, 2007); *Death of a Schoolgirl* (*Tod einer Schülerin,* Germany, 2010); *Pound of Flesh* (USA, 2010); *Love Is the Perfect Crime* (*L'amour est un crime parfait,* France, 2013).

Risks of different sexual orientations or gender identities
Lesbian Risks

The German melodrama *Girls in Uniform* (*Mädchen in Uniform,* Germany, 1931) is considered to be the first film in the world's cinematography that risked showing a mutual lesbian attraction between a boarding-school teacher and a senior girl-student. Though the authors made it clear that the characters' relations would not go far than exchanging gentle touches and a shy kiss, the film faced severe censorship criticism (Schwartz, 2003; Tatulescu, 2011). At the end of the 1950s, a color remake of the film was released (*Mädchen in Uniform,* Germany-France, 1958) with young R. Schneider starring in the movie. This version did not provoke any problems with the censorship.

In 1930, there was adopted *The Motion Picture Production Code of 1930 / Hays Code* (MPPC, 1930) that provided moral guidelines for motion pictures produced for a public audience in the United States. It was officially approved of by the Motion Picture Association of America. All American film studios and cinemas had to follow this unofficial moral code. Thus, The USA censorship in the 1930s was stricter than in the Weimar Republic. That is why W. Wyler trying to adapt a provocative play by L. Hellman about two female school teachers and friends to the screen preferred to replace lesbian love with heterosexual love in the film *These Three* (USA, 1936) (in the context of a traditional love triangle) (Wallace, 2009).

V.S. Kolodyazhnaya claimed that the film makers needed such a plot "to show disgusting morals of a tiny American town… Wyler skillfully portrayed the stuffy provincial life, gossip and malice disguised behind a mask of hypocrisy. The image of the girl-gossip spoilt by bourgeois education was also good (Kolodyazhnaya, 1975: 23). However, W. Wyler and L. Hellman managed to take revenge at the beginning of more liberal 1960s in the second screen version of the play

named *The Children's Hour* (1961) which showed lesbian love (though, one-sided) openly (Crowther, 1962; Goyette, 1996; Levy, 2011; Schwartz, 2014).

L. Wallace reasonably argues that the release of *The Children's Hour* practically coincided with the wave of non-official ignoring the Hays Code by the American film industry (MPPC, 1930). As early as in 1956, the prohibitions on showing prostitution, racial amalgamation and taking drugs in films were abolished in the USA. In 1961, under the pressure of Hollywood producers (including brothers Morrish, co-producers of *The Children's Hour*) it was officially recorded that in conformity with the culture and morality of the time homosexualism and other sexual deviations were allowed be shown (Wallace, 2009: 20-21). Thus, since the 1960s the Hays Code began to weaken, and in 1967 was finally lifted.

A French drama *Private Lessons* (*Cours prive'*, France, 1986) by P. Granier-Deferre shows lesbian relations between a pretty teacher of a private lyceum and a senior student-nymphet: a sex-appealing teacher did not only have a risky relation with her girl-student but also willingly joined an orgy arranged by senior students in one of rich villas. The authors remained impartial and told the story without moralizing or disapproving of their characters (Gauthier, 1996).

In the free atmosphere of the 21ˢᵗ century allowing for sexual minority rights the story of a love affair (naturally, far from being platonic) between a woman-teacher and her girl-student shown in a melodrama *Loving Annabelle* (USA, 2006) was accepted by the audience as a social norm.

Other films on similar topics are: *Olivia* (France, 1951), *When Night Is Falling* (Canada, 1995).

Gay Risks

For many years the Western cinematograph avoided the topic of teachers' homosexuality. A bitter and rather provoking sex-gay-comedy *Taxi to the Toilet* (*Taxi Zum Klo*, FRG, 1981) was one of the first movies (Anderson, 2017) where the main character could afford to utter such a phrase: "You see, I like men, I am 30 and I am a teacher by profession…But I radically separate my job from my personal life and enjoyment".

While in the film *Taxi to the Toilet* the teacher did not bother his students indeed, the homosexuality of the teacher in the movie *A Country Teacher* (*Venkovsky ucitel*, Czechia – Germany-France, 2008) is directed at a village teenager, whereas in a cruel retro-drama *Song for a Raggy Boy* (Ireland-UK-Denmark-Spain, 2003) a teenager from a reformatory boarding school falls victim to sexual violence by a teacher-priest. To the credit of the authors of the film, such violence (as well as violence in general) is categorically condemned here. But the tolerant authors of the drama *Private Lessons* (France-Belgium, 2008) went a step further: according to the plot, a home teacher beguiled his student into a bisexual party with his intellectual friends; but this was shown with permissiveness.

A Hollywood comedy *In and Out* (USA, 1997) became best known in the same context. It made school "gay issues innocuous and funny and more acceptable to a broader audience" (Guthmann, 1997). R. Ebert is of the same opinion: *In and Out* is a light-hearted, PG-13 rated comedy about homosexuality, so innocuous you can easily imagine it spinning off into a sitcom" (Ebert, 1997). As well as some other American media critics who approved of the school teacher's decision to publicly confess in their non-heterosexual orientation (Laforest, 2002; Howe, 1997; Schwarzbaum, 1997).

S.V. Kudryavtsev is also right saying that "this unpretentious comedy still has serious pretentions in the attempt to please political correctness not only to rehabilitate the sexual minorities (who in such a way may soon turn into majority!), who used to be condemned or humorously presented in the Hollywood cinema. The film by F. Oz contains an appeal to honest citizens from the screen (what if somebody in the cinema hall – there is no telling what could happen – has enough courage) to openly confess their homosexual orientation. No doubt, there is nothing wrong about it, since that perfectly complies with the current trend in the mainstream when the largest film companies began to shoot films about gays and their production started to meet great success" (Kudryavtsev, 2008).

The image of the teacher in the Western cinematograph in the context of choosing between the truth and lies as a priority

It goes without saying that the struggle between good and evil goes hand in hand with both the sexual-pedagogical film topics and the topic of screen violence in school, university classrooms and corridors. But in some films it is the topic of lies that comes to the forefront. A classic drama *The Prime of Miss Jean Brodie* (1969) shows a charismatic British teacher propagating in the ideas of B. Mussolini and F. Franco the classroom, blights the lives of her students by inculcating false romantic ideas in her students' minds (Kehr, 2012).

A caustic film *Election* (USA, 1999) tells about a teacher who struggles with a dishonest and cunning A-student aiming to become head of the school students' council. Having appreciated the vicious satire, American critics considered the film was a kind of parable about the American voting system in general (Ebert, 1999; Schwarzbaum, 1999).

The first part of a school drama *The Emperor's Club* (USA, 2002) is a typical example of a standard film story about outstanding teachers whose knowledge, honesty, selflessness and authority turn a difficult and ordinary class into a creative team of "pupils of science" (Ebert, 2002; LaSalle, 2002). But this drama about a history teacher turns out to be double-bottomed: the honest teacher, whose role was brilliantly played by Kevin Kline, appears to be capable of concealing the truth and a compromise lie, and that looks quite realistic, and at the same time he breaks the sustainable stereotypes of *Blackboard Jungle* and *To Sir, with Love...*

A drama *Monsieur Lazhar* (Canada, 2011) shows a more complicated and controversial situation with truth and falsehood. According to the plot, a well-bred refugee from an Arab country arrives in Canada, pretends to be a teacher, gets a job in a school and in as little as a couple of weeks demonstrates not only pedagogical skills but also a talent for a psychological approach to school students. On the whole, the film raises major issues of responsibility in the teaching profession and disputable codes of conduct that do not allow the teacher to even touch a pupil (Farber, 2012; Rea, 2012; Williams, 2012).

The topic of lies culminates in the movie *World's Greatest Dad* (USA, 2009): a school teacher (also an unlucky writer) after a sudden death of his son – a mediocre pupil with a primitive inner world – writes and publishes a phony suicide note and a "secret" diary on his son's behalf that soon becomes a bestseller.

Other films on similar topics are: *These Three* (USA, 1936); *The Children's Hour* (USA, 1961); *Risky Business* (*Les risques du métier*, France, 1967); *The Schoolteacher Dances ... with the Whole Class* (*L'insegnante balla... con tutta la classe,* Italy, 1979); *Gross Misconduct* (Australia, 1993); *Confessions of a Sorority Girl* (USA, 1994); *In and Out* (USA, 1997); *Apt Pupil* (USA-Canada-France, 1997); *Physics or Chemistry* (*Física o química*, Spain, 2008-2011); *Evilenko* (*Evilenko,* Italy, 2004); *In the House* (*Dans la maison,* France, 2012); *Dismissed* (USA, 2017); *The Student* (USA, 2017).

The image of the teacher in the Western cinematograph in the context of violence
The teacher as a fighter against violence and its victim
Media violence at school and university has long been attracting Western film makers, and there are some reasons for it – every year mass media report on dozens of such cases, especially in the USA where firearms are available for many people.

An American drama *The Blackboard Jungle* (USA, 1955) is one of the most noticeable films on this topic: an idealist teacher is assigned to a class of children from disadvantaged families. The atmosphere is tense: an impudent senior student attempts to rape a teacher in the library; a gang of pupils attack a new teacher in an alley...

It is possible to agree with a viewpoint of B. Crowther: the classroom in the film resembles a massacre or a battlefield, and the plot itself touches "a problem of great contemporary concern" (Crowther, 1955). Just remember the scene when a pupil with a knife attacks the teacher at the blackboard. "But the manner in which the teacher eventually gains the respect of his whole class is simply by disarming the toughest hoodlum. This seems a bitter and superficial solution for the problem at hand" (Crowther, 1955).

When making a retrospective analysis of *The Blackboard Jungle* American film experts of the 21st century conclude that the film was a hit in 1955 because it was the first mainstream film about the juvenile delinquency in schools, but nowadays it has become "a relic of Eisenhower dinosaurs" and a pious lecture, false and psychologically unconvincing, though created with good intentions to tell about the nobility of the teaching profession (Newman, 2006; Schwartz, 2005).

In 1967, there was released a sentimental variant of *The Blackboard Jungle* entitled *To Sir, with Love* (UK, 1967). A special piquancy was added to the situation by the fact that for the first time in the mainstream film the teacher's role was played by an Afro-American actor (it was the very S. Poitier who had played a talented pupil in *The Blackboard Jungle,* the teacher's ally). The class was neither very easy nor very difficult (wild scenes of violence are practically absent in the film): the teacher very soon conquers the minds and hearts of his unmanageable students (Crowther, 1967; Kuipers, 2011). Such a light pedagogical storyline was continued in the film *Conrack* (USA, 1974) where the "glaze of sentimentality sugared" much of the story about the selflessness of the teaching profession that overcomes all the obstacles in its way (Sayer, 1974).

Another remake of *The Blackboard Jungle* was a hard thriller called *Class of 1984* (Canada, 1982) where students went totally out of control and schools turned into combat zones and places for illicit drug trade. And the teacher had to take up arms. F. Vasquez calls *Class of 1984* prophetic, though, in our opinion, *The Blackboard Jungle* was even more prophetic…

The Principal (1987) showed a similar situation: the main character was assigned to be the principal of the worst crime-ridden high school. Supposedly, not every viewer will believe that "a strong personality (especially in a state of apathy, turning into depression) is quite capable of getting the upper hand when a passive majority cowardly throws up the game" (Nefedov, 2012). But on the other hand, one can agree that *The Principal* (1987) "presents a vivid description of "charms" hidden in the "school jungle" (drug selling business, fights, knifing – in other words, a super package!). Such an extreme case enables the authors to illustrate the key principle for the national school system: not only individuals but the whole educational institution – part of the town – was intentionally neglected, pushed to the margins of society where there are no laws and possibilities" (Nefedov, 2012).

Another story on a similar topic was told in the drama *Lean on Me* (USA, 1989) where an Afro-American principal skillfully cleans up a drug- and crime-ridden high school. American film critics did not appreciate the story and accused the authors of "rather glossy and simplistic treatment of a serious dilemma in the public school system" (Galbraith, 1989). R. Ebert was also harsh and wrote that the film propagandized a combination of Dirty Harry and Billy Jack in the image of the principle that enforces the law very often through violence (Ebert, 1989).

The movie *Stand and Deliver* (USA, 1988) is characterized by similar pathos: a tough and inspiring math teacher helps his students live up to their full potential and succeed despite the local hooligans. The film lacks the luxury of Hollywood and the greater part of dialogues in the film is in Spanish that is quite unusual (MacKay, 1999). The majority of Los Angeles high school students speak Spanish. The characters of the drama look realistic, in the critics' opinion (MacKay, 1999; Ebert, 1988).

A drama *Dangerous Minds* (USA, 1995) tells about a pretty-looking teacher (M. Pfeiffer) who is also trying to cope with an unmanageable and aggressive class. K. McManus writes ironically about the plot of the film: "the sweet story turns stickygooey, however, as writer Ronald Bass sprinkles the script with saccharine lines" (McManus, 1995) when one of her high schoolers whines addressing the teacher: "But you can't leave us"… American film experts accused the movie of "naïveté to the idea of knowledge" ("Open yourself to literature and the world will be yours!") (Gleiberman, 1995).

In our opinion, R. Ebert rightly notes that the film tells "another one of those uplifting parables in which the dedicated teacher takes on a schoolroom full of rebellious malcontents, and wins them over with an unorthodox approach" (Ebert, 1995). Can the students read and write? Are they able to compete successfully in the job market? R. Ebert answers all these rhetoric questions with sarcasm: "An educational system that has brought them to the point we observe in the first classroom scene has already failed them so miserably that all of Miss Johnson's karate lessons are not going to be much help " (Ebert, 1995). *Dangerous Minds* is optimistic, indeed: "But by semester's end they are explicating Bob Dylan's songs and Dylan Thomas's poems and generally behaving like aspiring collegians (Guthmann, 1995).

Another example of pedagogical selflessness is shown in the film *Freedom Writers* (USA-Germany, 2007). Though the movie is based on a real story, it is noticeable that the actors playing the students look much older than their characters are supposed to be, and due to the teacher's talent they "transform almost overnight from surly troublemakers to eager learners" (Macdonald, 2007; Mathews, 2007).

Another drama *One Eight Seven* (USA, 1997) is much harder: a disillusioned Afro-American teacher who has a very sad experience (one of his students stabbed him and wounded him severely) decides to kill a juvenile delinquent in order to restore discipline in the class. Though the film does not idealize the school life, it was regarded very skeptically by American film critics. They raise logical questions: should teachers be so dedicated to their profession and agree to risk their lives every day for educating the students whose only aim is the humiliation of teachers?

And one more thing: the teacher is shown as a noble personality, but his actions prove that he is just a little better than the local bandits (Rhodes, 1997; Cavagna, 1999; Ebert, 1997).

If in the film *One Eight Seven* the teacher perishes when playing "Russian roulette" with his students, the woman-teacher from the German movie *The Teacher* (*Die Lehrerin*, Germany, 2011) is more fortunate: though she gets a serious wound from the shot of her pupil she survives (Festenberg, 2011).

Another movie *Skirt Day* (*La journee de la jupe*, France-Belgium, 2008) reveals a conflict between a teacher and aggressive students in a most dramatic key. Traditionally, Western films about school used to follow strict ideological plotlines (on the one hand, there was a liberal approach – when wonderful teachers performed miracles with their aggressive classes; and on the other hand, there was a conservative-reactionary approach – when angry teachers did not hesitate to use violence in order to restore discipline in the classroom). But in *Skirt Day* (*La journee de la jupe*, France-Belgium, 2008) one can see a shocked teacher aiming a revolver at her rude students, some of them are bandits and drug dealers. And this is an example of political satire exposing, sometimes unconvincingly, major problems of contemporary France – social, sexual, racial, cultural and religious (Bitel, 2010; Buckle, 2010).

One may agree that it looks like "something between E. Ryazanov's *Dear Yelena Sergeevna*" and popular anti-teenagers farcical plays of the 1980s such as *Class of 1984* (but with an adjustment that the generation gap is aggravated by an ethnic conflict). ... There are better films concerning topical issues of contemporary education ..., but they do not say about the main problem – one can raise non-educated delinquents' awareness in European culture only at gunpoint (Volobuev, 2009).

Scientists from the University of California performed an experiment in April, 1967: high school history teacher R. Jones wanted to prove in the classroom that the fascism threat had not vanished but still exists in everybody. Instead of lessons he offered his students to play in a German school of the Nazi time. Very soon a lot of students got used to neo-Nazi ideas and rules of conduct (Martínez-Salanova, 2010: 58; Shiyanov, 2008).

The action of the film *The Wave* (*Die Welle,* Germany, 2008) takes place in a German school of the 21st century. The experiment convincingly showed that Nazism – from its symbols to ideas and strong-arm methods – can easily grip the weak minds of senior school students. But, certainly, the aim of the film is not only to warn the audience against the possible danger, but also to look into human nature and see how easily one can establish conditions (that are especially attractive for the weak, the powerless and the loveless) for people to feel invested with a special mission and authority of the "high caste" (Urban, 2009; Bradshaw, 2008; Solovyov, 2012).

Since the beginning of the 1980s a whole series of films about school and university (in many cases based on real facts) appeared on Western screens: *Slaughter High* (UK-USA, 1986), *Demolition High* (USA, 1996), *Duck! The Carbine High Massacre* (USA, 1999), *Murder 101: College Can Be Murder* (USA, 2007), *April Showers* (USA, 2009), *Polytechnic* (*Polytechnique*, Canada, 2009), *F.* (UK, 2010); *Hello Herman* (USA, 2012) and others. In these films schools and universities become scenes of massacre: a negative character (usually a senior school student or a university student) shoots students and teachers.

Other films on similar topics are: *Unman* (UK, 1971), *Class of Nuke 'Em High* (USA, 1986), *The Chocolate War* (USA, 1988), *Hell High* (USA, 1989), *Class of Nuke 'Em High Part II: Subhumanoid Meltdown* (USA, 1991), *The Substitute* (USA, 1993), *Class of Nuke 'Em High Part 3: The Good, the Bad and the Subhumanoid* (USA, 1995), *High School High* (USA, 1996), *Teaching Mrs. Tingle* (USA, 1999), *Terror at Baxter U* (USA, 2003), *Shackles* (USA, 2005), *The Ron Clark Story* (USA-Canada, 2006), *School of Horror* (USA, 2007), *Fist Fight* (USA, 2017), *Dismissed* (USA, 2017), *The Student* (USA, 2017) and others.

The teacher as a criminal and a killer

A teacher as a threat to people around – isn't it a good idea for a film story? Such a story was told in Tony Richardson's dark drama *Mademoiselle* (UK-France, 1966) with brilliant Jeanne Moreau playing a guileful and sophisticated furious teacher. R. Ebert called this film "murky, disjointed and unbearably tedious" (Ebert, 1967), whereas V. Baer called the movie – "an allegory of the nightmare of human existence" (Baer, 1967).

A charismatic character of Helen Mirren from the film *Teaching Mrs. Tingle* (USA, 1999) like the teacher in the film *Dear Yelena Sergeevna* is almost ready to kill her intrusive and impudent school students who come to her house quite unexpectedly. In this regard, M. LaSalle and D. Howe rightly remarked that H. Mirren is too good for such a "spiteful and shallow" script (LaSalle, 1999; Howe, 1999) in which senior school students attempt to blackmail their strict and cruel teacher.

Yet again, famous Woody Allen directed a criminal drama *Irrational Man* (USA, 2015) – an ironical fantasy on the topic "Crime and Punishment" by F.M. Dostoevsky. According to the plot a university professor who enters into a relationship with a student decides to kill one bad man with impunity. We see "a laboratory and simplified situation fulfilling all the criteria of trustworthy authenticity but as if put under a magnifying glass to convince the viewers that the experiment is pure" (Tsyrkun, 2015).

Here "W. Allen is a little more straightforward than usual: apart from the fact that the protagonist professionally quotes Sartre and Kierkegaard, he reads "Crime and Punishment" to tatters. The author also changes his traditional sources of inspiration – instead of his favourite Ingmar Bergman he cites from A. Hitchcock's "Strangers on a Train" in the final episode. Everything would be fine, but the fans of the film director will easily notice that the characters raise a distinct irritation (which is quite understandable) instead of the usual ironical sympathy" (Zabaluev, 2015).

A thriller *Love Is the Perfect Crime* (*L'amour est un crime parfait*, France, 2013) shows another kind of a criminal intellectual teacher. Here the authors mix love with blood, the university professor has a reputation of a womanizer but "it is not the occurrence but its consequences that are worth mentioning; the film focuses on an original protagonist – a man disillusioned in his own writing talent, carrying the load of thousands of childhood complexes, suffering from a bunch of weird deviations, rapidly rolling to the edge of his life" (Ukhov, 2014).

But the most terrible monster – a school teacher – is described in the drama *Evilenko* (Italy, 2004). Malcolm McDowell's experience in playing villains of different kinds enabled him to create a rather convincing image of a merciless teacher-killer. The film is based on a real story of the serial killer – A. Chikatilo. Alas, the movie is deprived of convincing dramatic composition though the press noted M. McDowell for his excellent acting (Weinberg, 2006).

Other films on similar topics are: *Night School* (USA, 1981), *Hell High* (USA, 1989), *Class of 1999* (USA, 1990), *Matilda* (USA, 1996), *Dead Students Society* (USA, 1998), *The Substitute* (*Vikaren,* Denmark, 2007); *Love Is the Perfect Crime* (*L'amour est un crime parfait*, France, 2013), *Killer Coach* (USA, 2016) and others.

4. Results

Cinematography stereotypes in Western films about school and university teachers

A comparative analysis of plots, characters and ideology of Western films about   school and university teachers leads to the conclusion that their media stereotypes have substantial similarity. A content analysis of the films enables to present their basic plot schemes as follows.

Some examples of film structures of Western dramas about school and university teachers

Title of the film: Risky Business / *Les risques du metier.* France, 1967. Director: André Cayatte.

Historical period, the place of action: in the mid-1990s, France, a provincial town school.

Furnishings, household items: an ordinary provincial school with plain furniture, modest houses and domestic implements of teachers.

Methods of reality representation: realistic description of teachers' and pupils' life.

Genre variant of event representation: a provincial school in a small French town – a typical education institution where children from different backgrounds study. A married couple – Jean and Suzanne work there as teachers.

Characters and their values, ideas, clothes, physique, vocabulary, facial expressions, gestures: the teacher is a positive character; he is a good specialist, wearing a formal suit. He is artistic, eloquent, has a pleasant voice. The negative characters (figuratively speaking) are three 14-year-old school students.

Significant change in the characters' life: for various reasons (unanswered love for the teacher, a desire to conceal a love affair with an 18-year-old youth, an ambition to vary their life) three girl students accuse their school teacher of sexual harassment.

Arising problem: the reputation and the position of the positive character are at threat.

Search for solution: Jean and his wife fight against false accusations.

Solution to the problem: exposing of the students' lies, back to normalcy.

Title of the film: Private Lessons / *Cours prive'*. France, 1986**.** Director: Pierre Granier-Deferre.

Historical period, the place of action: the 1980-s, France, urban area, a private lyceum.

Furnishings, household items: a private lyceum, modern classrooms, the principal's study, a photo laboratory, comfortable flats of teachers and students from affluent families.

Methods of reality representation: realistic description of teachers' and pupils' life.

Genre variant of event representation: a private lyceum – a modern, well-equipped education institution; a young attractive teacher teaches history, the principal's love for her is undivided.

Characters and their values, ideas, clothes, physique, vocabulary, facial expressions, gestures: unlike many other films about school there are no positive characters in the film in the traditional meaning. By all appearances, the main character is a bright personality who is good at her subject. But gradually it turns out that she is far from the classical ideal of a school teacher. And the principal only initially seems demanding and just… There is no strict division between the social and financial status of the characters. The teachers' clothes are quite formal, though it does not prevent the main character from highlighting her sexual attraction. Most teachers' speech is expressive, their voices are pleasant.

Significant change in the characters' life: one day all the teachers get envelopes with photos of an orgy of senior school students and some young woman involved. Though her face is cut off in the photo, the history teacher falls under suspicion, but she insists that she has nothing to do with the photo in a talk with the principal.

Arising problem: the reputation and the position of the main character are at threat. (She is unlikely to be prosecuted as the age of consent in France is 15).

Search for solution: the main character suspects one of the senior students of blackmail, with whom she had a short lesbian liaison, but soon it becomes clear that it was the principal of the lyceum who … sent the provocative photos.

Solution to the problem: the principal and the teacher have a highly emotional talk, the teacher tells him openly about her venturous sexual relations, but having abandoned all hope for genuine mutual love he commits suicide.

Title of the film: One Eight Seven. USA, 1997**.** Director: Kevin Reynolds.

Historical period, the place of action: the end of the 20th century, USA; urban area, a school full of children from risk-group families.

Furnishings, household items: a neglected detached school; the living conditions of the teachers are rather modest, most school students are very poor.

Methods of reality representation: realistic description of teachers' and pupils' life.

Genre variant of event representation: the school is a filthy gloomy building with intimidated and impudent, aggressive students who are armed with knives, guns, take drugs and use rude language (when talking to each other and to their teachers).

Characters and their values, ideas, clothes, physique, vocabulary, facial expressions, gestures: the main positive character is an Afro-American teacher; he is intellectual, professional and tries to teach his pupils humanist values. Negative characters (senior high school students) are evil people, criminals. The characters differ from each other in their social and financial status. The teachers' clothes are mainly official. The positive character – the teacher is artistic, his voice is

pleasant. The negative characters – senior high school students wear whatever they wish, as a rule, they are unattractive, vulgar, outrageous, often use swear words.

Significant change in the characters' life: the teacher faces professional risks: aggressive and rude senior school students' behavior, real physical violence (at the beginning of the movie an impudent student stabs him severely), sexual attack of one of senior girl-students, blackmail.

Arising problem: the reputation, the position, health and life of the main character are at threat.

Search for solution: the teacher's struggle with the negative characters.

Solution to the problem: extermination and "re-education" of some negative characters by the teacher, death of the teacher in the final episode when the gang of the most negative senior high school students offers him to play "Russian roulette"…

Some examples of film structures of Western melodramas about school and university teachers

Title of the film: Girls in Uniform / *Mädchen in Uniform*. France-Germany, 1958. Director: Géza von Radványi.

Historical period, the place of action: in the mid-21st century, Germany, all-girls boarding school.

Methods of reality representation: all-girls boarding school with plain functional furniture and strict regulations; modest bedrooms of school students.

Methods of reality representation: realistic description of teachers' and pupils' life.

Genre variant of event representation: the all-girls boarding school is strictly regulated; the rules regulate the girls' lessons and life conditions. But the film focuses on the love affair of the main characters instead of the educational process.

Characters and their values, ideas, clothes, physique, vocabulary, facial expressions, gestures: positive characters are a beautiful and talented teacher – Elisabeth von Bernburg and a pretty senior student – Manuela. The teachers' and students' outfits are very official. All the girls wear a uniform. The positive characters are attractive and artistic; they eloquent and have pleasant voices.

Significant change in the characters' life: teacher Elisabeth von Bernburg responds to a gentle love feeling of her student – Manuela.

Arising problem: the reputation and the position of the main character are at threat (the authors of the movie repeat in every possible way that the lesbian motives do not go far than kissing, and the whole storyline is presented very delicately).

Search for solution: the schoolmistress attempts to "restore order" in the school.

Solution to the problem: after Manuela's attempt to commit suicide the teacher has to leave the school.

It must be also noted that the color melodrama *Girls in Uniform* (1958) was preceded by a black-and-white film with the same name – *Girls in Uniform* (*Mädchen in Uniform*, Germany, 1931) directed by Leontine Sagan and based on the novel and play "Yesterday and Today" by Christa Winsloe.

The action in the 1931 version took place on the eve of World War I in a boarding school for officers' daughters. It is interesting that the actresses (Dorothea Wieck and Hertha Thiele) who played the teacher and her 14-year-old school student were the same age: they both were 23. *Girls in Uniform* (1931) is considered to be the first movie with lesbian motives in the world's cinematography (Nour, 2017). After Hitler took power in Germany this scandalous melodrama was banned.

Title of the film: The Children's Hour. USA, 1961. Director: William Wyler.

Historical period, the place of action: beginning of the 1960s, USA, province, a private all-girls boarding school.

Furnishings, household items: a private boarding school for girls; modest buildings and domestic implements of teachers; a rich house of one of the girls.

Methods of reality representation: realistic description of teachers' and pupils' life.

Genre variant of event representation: a private all-girls boarding school established by two young friends and talented teachers. It is light, clean and cozy here; the atmosphere in the school is

almost as comfortable as at home. But the film focuses on the love affair of the main characters instead of the educational process.

Characters and their values, ideas, clothes, physique, vocabulary, facial expressions, gestures: positive characters are pretty school teachers devoted to their profession; negative characters are an ill-natured student-scandalmonger and her rich grandmother. Slim teachers wear formal dresses; the girls' dresses are also very strict. The teachers are attractive and their speech is pleasant. The student-scandalmonger, on the contrary, is quite plain and her voice is unpleasant.

Significant change in the characters' life: The student spreads gossip about her teachers' lesbian liaison.

Arising problem: the reputation of the teachers' is at threat.

Search for solution: the positive characters fight against the rumors but the parents believe the gossip is true and take their girls from the school.

Solution to the problem: the cunning school student was found out in the lie, but it also turned out that one of the teachers was secretly in love with her colleague: feeling frustrated she commits suicide...

It is interesting to note that *The Children's Hour* (1961) is a remake of W. Wyler's melodrama *These Three* (1936) also based on L. Hellman's play. A comparative analysis of these two versions shows that the American censorship eased by the beginning of the 1960s thus allowing the authors to openly accentuate the theme of suicide in the context of lesbian love, whereas the film of 1936 used to have a happy end and the student's gossip turned to be absolutely false.

Title of the film: The First Night of Tranquility / *La Prima notte di quiete*. France-Italy, 1972. Director: Valerio Zurlini.

Historical period, the place of action: the beginning of the 1970s, Italy; urban area, lyceum corridors and classrooms, the principal's office, apartments.

Furnishings, household items: a lyceum with simple functional furniture; a poor flat and household of the lyceum teacher, a luxurious flat of the local businessman.

Methods of reality representation: realistic description of the characters' life.

Genre variant of event representation: the lyceum is an ancient seat of learning with long traditions. But the film focuses on the love affair instead of the educational process.

Characters and their values, ideas, clothes, physique, vocabulary, facial expressions, gestures: the positive character – a lyceum teacher, a miserable intellectual in a deep depression; the negative character is a local businessman, a criminal. There is a striking difference in the financial status of the characters. The teacher's clothes are exaggeratedly careless. The speech of the literature teacher is naturally exquisite and expressive. He is artistic and possesses a pleasant voice. The appearance and the speech of the negative character are rather unpleasant.

Significant change in the characters' life: the teacher begins a romantic relationship with a 19-year-old student (though he had a love affair with a woman of his age before).

Arising problem: the health and life of the teacher are at threat because of the jealous former lover of the student (the local businessman).

Search for solution: the teacher tries to defend his right on love and even fights with the businessman.

Solution to the problem: lovers decide to leave the city; the student leaves first, but the teacher delays and dies in a car crash.

Some examples of film structures of Western comedies about school and university teachers

Title of the film: School for Love (USA), Sweet Sixteen (UK) / *Futures vedettes*. France, 1955. Director: Marc Allegret. Lyric comedy.

Historical period, the place of action: in the mid-1950s, Vienna, a music conservatory.

Furnishings, household items: a music conservatory with functional furniture; comfortable dwelling places and household items of the characters.

Methods of reality representation: a grotesque depiction of teachers' and students' life.

Genre variant of event representation: the conservatory is an ancient learning institution with long traditions. But the film focuses on the love affair of the main characters instead of the educational process.

Characters and their values, ideas, clothes, physique, vocabulary, facial expressions, gestures: positive characters (students) are pretty-looking young girls from privileged families; the negative character (professor) is a handsome man and a womanizer who is always ready to flirt with any beautiful student. The teachers' clothes are smart but official. The students' clothes are also without any frivolity. Both the teacher and the students are eloquent, artistic, having pleasant voices. The negative character (professor) produces a favorable impression at first, but soon reveals his light-minded nature.

Significant change in the characters' life: a pretty-looking student fascinated by the handsome professor falls in love with him.

Arising problem: the student's worry free life is at threat.

Search for solution: the main female character learns from her friend, another student, that her lover is a frivolous woman-chaser and gets upset.

Solution to the problem: students return to ordinary life after getting this bitter love experience.

Title of the film: The School Marm on the Road to Adventure / *Opettajatar seikkailee*. Finland, 1960. Director: Aarne Tarkas. Lyric comedy.

Historical period, the place of action: 1960, Finland, urban area, an isle in the Baltic Sea, an all-girl gymnasium.

Furnishings, household items: a gymnasium for girls with spacious classrooms and the necessary functional equipment, middle-class houses and household furnishing of the characters.

Methods of reality representation: quasi-realistic depiction of teachers' and students' life.

Genre variant of event representation: the gymnasium is a modern well-equipped educational institution with strict teachers and neat girl students; according to the rules of the school they are not allowed to often contact with boys of the same age.

Characters and their values, ideas, clothes, physique, vocabulary, facial expressions, gestures: practically all the characters in the film are positive, though they have their own peculiarities. The main character is a beautiful young teacher who is very uptight and highly professional. She is slim, her clothes are official. Her speech is impressive and exquisite, her gestures are artistic, and her voice is pleasant. Another positive character – an artist is also slender, hansome and has a pretty voice. School girls are also pretty-looking young girls, though they seem to be too anxious to meet smart-looking young men.

Significant change in the characters' life: the positive character – the young teacher faces a professional challenge: during a hiking tour to a desert island in the Baltic Sea she falls behind her school girls who went home on a boat, and has to spend the night … in a tent with an artist; the fact, in her opinion, may ruin her spotless reputation.

Arising problem: the moral character of the teacher is at threat.

Search for solution: the teacher attempts to defend her "blue-stocking" reputation.

Solution to the problem: as a result of various comic misunderstandings the teacher falls in love with the artist, they are going to get married, and the teacher's reputation of a woman in love replaced her former "blue-stocking" reputation.

Title of the film: Teaching Mrs. Tingle. USA, 1999. Director: Kevin Williamson. Dark Comedy.

Historical period, the place of action: the end of the 20th century, USA, school, teacher's house.

Furnishings, household items: a modern school, corridors, classrooms; a solid two-story house of history teacher Mrs. Tingle.

Methods of reality representation: a conventionally grotesque depiction of teachers' and students' life.

Genre variant of event representation: the action begins in the school but soon is removed to Mrs. Tingle's comfortable middle-class house.

Characters and their values, ideas, clothes, physique, vocabulary, facial expressions, gestures: the only negative character is Mrs. Tingle, a cruel and perfidious woman making no concessions to her students (her values are authoritarianism, strict discipline and domination); the positive (though, only nominally) characters are seniors. Mrs. Tingle's style in clothes is very

official, but at home she wears casual and informal attires. The teacher speaks plain English and has a harsh voice. The senior students follow the fashion standards of the 1990s.

Significant change in the characters' life: Mrs. Tingle accuses the seniors of stealing the examination questions. The students break in her house to convince her not to give them low grades.

Here the plot of the film curiously coincides with the storyline of the Soviet movie *Dear Yelena Sergeevna* (1988): senior students call on their teacher with almost similar intentions but in the Soviet variant the teacher is a positive and a terribly naïve character.

Arising problem: health and lives of all the characters (both the teacher and the seniors) are in danger as they all fight fiercely.

Search for solution: seniors' struggle with the teacher (blackmail, fight, attempted suffocation, crossbow shooting, etc.).

Solution to the problem: the teacher is fired from the school, the other characters return to normal life.

Some examples of film structures of Western thrillers or detectives about school and university teachers

Title of the film: The Substitute. USA, 1993. Director: Martin Donovan.

Historical period, the place of action: the end of the 20th century, USA, schools in different cities.

Furnishings, household items: ordinary learning institutions with functional equipment; middle-class dwelling conditions of teachers and students.

Methods of reality representation: in general, realistic but slightly grotesque.

Genre variant of event representation: the schools are modern educational institutions, ordinary students from middle-class families. The teachers look quite normal at first sight too, but the situation with one of the teachers turned out to be rather tangled.

Characters and their values, ideas, clothes, physique, vocabulary, facial expressions, gestures: positive characters are school students and their parents; the negative character is a middle-aged attractive teacher who skillfully conceals her crimes. There is a difference between the social and financial status of the characters. The teachers' clothes are official. The negative character does not differ from her colleagues but then she reveals her aggressive nature.

Significant change in the characters' life: having killed her husband and his mistress out of jealousy she sets her house on fire, and then moves to a different city where she again begins to work as a school teacher and seduces her senior school student. Growing suspicious, the student learns about his teacher's terrible past crimes from archive press. Another senior student attempts to blackmail the teacher and she kills him...

Arising problem: health and life of the positive characters are in danger as the teacher is ready to kill again to conceal her secret.

Search for solution: the senior school student who got into a mess wants to stop the insidious teacher.

Solution to the problem: the negative character is unmasked and falls from the roof at the end of the film, the positive characters return to the normal state of life. But the teacher who fell from the roof vanishes without leaving a trace and soon begins to work as a school teacher in another American town...

Title of the film: Devil in the Flesh. USA, 1998. Director: Steve Cohen.

Historical period, the place of action: the end of the 20th century, USA, urban area, school.

Furnishings, household items: an ordinary school with functional equipment, middle-class houses and interiors.

Methods of reality representation: realistic description of teachers' and students' life.

Genre variant of event representation: the school is a modern learning institution with ordinary students from middle-class families and seemingly ordinary teachers. But the relations between one of the teachers and a pretty-looking senior girl student turn out rather dramatic.

Characters and their values, ideas, clothes, physique, vocabulary, facial expressions, gestures: the positive character (a teacher) is an intelligent high-caliber professional; the negative character (a senior girl student) – an evil creature who disguises her intentions up to a certain time,

the teacher becomes a victim of her sexual abuse. The characters belong to the same social and financial status. The teacher's clothes are official at work and casual at home. The teacher's speech is expressive and exquisite; he has artistic manners and a pleasant voice. The negative character – the girl student at first pretends to be good but later shows her aggressive nature: visually, lexically and physically.

Significant change in the characters' life: the positive character (the teacher) suffers from sexual harassment on the part of his aggressive senior high school student.

Arising problem: a) the teacher's (and his beloved woman's) reputation, position, health are at threat.

Search for solution: the teacher struggles with the aggressive senior student who as it turned out was a killer (she killed her relatives).

Solution to the problem: the negative character is defeated and the positive characters return to the usual state of life.

Title of the film: Evilenko. Italy, 2004. Director and scriptwriter: David Grieco.

Historical period, the place of action: USSR, in the 1980-s, urban area, school.

Furnishings, household items: an ordinary Soviet school with functional furniture, simple houses and interiors of teachers and students, town streets, offices.

Methods of reality representation: quasi-realistic.

Genre variant of event representation: the school is a typical building with ordinary school students where a middle-aged teacher called Evilenko; his prototype was serial maniac-killer and a pedophile A. Chikatilo (1936-1994).

Characters and their values, ideas, clothes, physique, vocabulary, facial expressions, gestures: positive characters – teachers and school students are presented only in outline; the greater part of the screen time is given to the main negative character – teacher Evilenko who victimizes minor school students. The film makers paid little attention to the appearance of the Soviet school students of the 1980s: there are almost no students in pioneer scarfs in the classroom, the household peculiarities of the Soviet life of that period are also presented carelessly and roughly. On the other hand, the appearance and clothes of the negative character generally conform to the school reality of that time though Evilenko's physical appearance and voice produce a rather unpleasant impression.

Significant change in the characters' life: negative character Evilenko starts with sexual harassment of his girl student and finally commits multiple cruel murdering.

Arising problem: lives of many characters manic Evilenko is interested in are in danger.

Search for solution: militia officers try to track down the maniac.

Solution to the problem: the main villain is arrested.

Some examples of film structures of Western science fiction and horror films about school and university teachers

Title of the film: Class of Nuke 'Em High. USA, 1986. Directors: Richard W. Haines and Lloyd Kaufman.

Historical period, the place of action: the end of the 20th century, USA, high school in a small town.

Furnishings, household items: a secondary school with functional equipment.

Methods of reality representation: conventional and grotesque.

Genre variant of event representation: the school is a dangerous place with frightened teachers and aggressive school students-mutants (affected by radiation) armed and using drugs.

Characters and their values, ideas, clothes, physique, vocabulary, facial expressions, gestures: the negative characters (senior school student-mutants) wear flashy clothes; they are strong-built aggressive evil creatures who victimize teachers and school students. They use rude language, their manners and gestures are expressive.

Significant change in the characters' life: negative characters are planning to realize their wicked inhuman designs.

Arising problem: health and lives of positive characters are in danger.

Search for solution: a high school rugby star struggles with invasive mutants.

Solution to the problem: the positive character defeats the evil forces and the school returns to ordinary life.

Title of the film: Class of 1999. USA, 1990. Director: Mark L. Lester.

Historical period, the place of action: 1999, USA, high school.

Furnishings, household items: a secondary school with functional equipment.

Methods of reality representation: conventional and grotesque.

Genre variant of event representation: the school is a place with frightened teachers and impudent aggressive school students.

Characters and their values, ideas, clothes, physique, vocabulary, facial expressions, gestures: at first glance, the positive characters are teachers-robots who can restore discipline within minutes in the classroom. Their clothes are official. The negative characters are senior high school students who are unwilling to study and behave properly; they use rude language and offensive gestures. Though, there are a small number of positive characters among the high school students.

Significant change in the characters' life: the teachers-robots face professional challenges: unmannerly and insolent conduct of senior students.

Arising problem: the coexistence of teachers-robots and high school students is at threat.

Search for solution: the teachers-robots mercilessly fight with rebellious students.

Solution to the problem: the teachers-robots kill "bad" senior students; "good" senior students kill the ruthless teachers-robots.

Title of the film: The Substitute / *Vikaren,* Denmark, 2007. Director: Ole Bornedal.

Historical period, the place of action: the 21st century, an ordinary secondary school.

Furnishings, household items: a secondary school with functional equipment, comfortable houses of school students and their families.

Methods of reality representation: conventional and grotesque.

Genre variant of event representation: the school is a modern well-equipped learning institution with highly-qualified teachers and neat students.

Characters and their values, ideas, clothes, physique, vocabulary, facial expressions, gestures: the positive characters are school students and their parents. They are good-looking, slim, polite, well-bred and have pleasant voices. The negative character is the new teacher who at first seems to be a very eccentric woman with incredible knowledge but later she reveals her aggressive nature (both visual and lexical).

Significant change in the characters' life: the negative character – the teacher-alien – is planning to fulfill her artful design.

Arising problem: health and lives of positive characters – school students are at threat.

Search for solution: positive characters struggle with the cruel teacher-alien.

Solution to the problem: the alien is killed and the school returns to ordinary life.

5. Conclusions

The theme of education is popular in the world's cinematography. The images of teachers and students hold a special place in it. Hoping to attract as many viewers as possible the cinematography naturally refers not to everyday routine education process but to "hot spots" of teaching associated mainly with sex, lies and violence (in this regard falsehood is successfully combined with narrative moves of violence and sex) in recent decades. Thus, the title of the French film *Risky Business /* Les risques du metier (1967) reflects the key aspect of presenting the teacher's image in the media whose profession is undoubtedly associated with serious risks and challenges.

The review and analysis of 1300 Western films about school and university, study of more than 7000 published materials (books, research articles and film reviews) on the declared topic have enabled us to reveal the following basic types of teachers' images in the Western cinematography:

– positive (super)hero (often a male, recently employed as a school teacher) who reeducates an aggressive and disobedient class (Ayers, 1994; Beyerbach, 2005; Beyerbach, 2005; Burbach, Figgins, 1993; Considine, 1985; Dalton, 2004; Edelman, 1983; Farber, Holm, 1994; Farhi, 1999;

Giroux, 1993; 1997; Joseph, Burnaford, 1994; Reyes, Rios, 2003; Ryan, 2008; Trier, 2000; 2001; Umphlett, 1984);

– a negative personage who hates students (in some cases, he/she can be even a robot-killer or an alien) (Joseph, Burnaford, 1994; Long, 1996; Ryan, 2008; Trier, 2000; 2001);

– a loser / clown, outsider bored with his job (Bulman, 2005; Farber, Holm, 1994; Hill, 1995; Hinton, 1994; Joseph, Burnaford, 1994; Lafferty, 1945; Long, 1996; McCullick et al., 2003; Reynolds, 2007; 2009; 2014; 2015; Ryan, 2008; Trier, 2000; 2001; Umphlett, 1984);

– a bureaucrat-administrator (Joseph, Burnaford, 1994; Long, 1996; Ryan, 2008; Trier, 2000; 2001; Wells, Serman, 1998).

The teacher's image on the Western screen has significantly transformed over time. The self-censorship that existed practically till the 1960s did not allow film makers to touch upon such radical aspects as violence, sex, obscene language, racial and religious problems in schools and universities. But after the lifting of the Hays Code and the advent of the so-called sexual revolution of the 1970s the Western screen began to successively exploit the topics forbidden before, thus creating new horrifying narrative moves every year. On the other hand, the tendency for reflection on the pedagogical mission and real professional challenges involved stills remains in the Western cinematography.

Such hermeneutic analysis of Western audiovisual media texts about school and university allowed the authors to integrate the structure of media stereotypes of school and university teachers in films as follows:

Stereotype structure of Western films about school and university teachers

Historical period, the place of action: any time period, for the most part – the 20th and 21st century: USA, UK, France, Italy, Germany and other countries; urban area, more rarely – the countryside; school, university, educational institution of a different kind.

Furnishings, household items: ordinary learning institutions with simple functional furniture; elite well-equipped education institutions; humble dwellings and household items of teachers and students, rich houses and domestic implements of the administrative and management personnel of educational institutions and wealthy students' families; dorms; boarding school buildings.

Genre: drama, melodrama, comedy, thriller, horror film, science fiction, synthesis of genres.

Methods of reality representation: realistic or conditional-grotesque (depending on the genre) depiction of teachers' and students' life.

Genre variant of event representation: the school is an up-to-date well-equipped learning institution with talented teachers and creative pupils, a cozy and comfortable democratic and dynamic melting pot of nationalities and cultures (typical genres: drama, melodrama, lyric comedy, more rarely, – thriller, and musical). The school is a filthy gloomy building with intimidated teachers and impudent aggressive pupils who are often armed and take drugs (typical genres: horror film, science fiction, thriller, more rarely, – drama and dark comedy).

Characters and their values, ideas, clothes, physique, vocabulary, facial expressions, gestures: positive characters (teachers) – humanists, intelligent high-caliber professionals, advocates of democratic ideals (sometimes such teachers fall victims to their guileful students' various intrigues); negative characters (teachers) – evil creatures, disguised (up to a certain time) maniacs: pedophiles, killers, criminals who victimize their students. The characters often belong to different social and financial status. The teachers commonly follow the formal office dress code, though sometimes they prefer casual clothes. The positive characters (teachers) are in many cases eloquent, artistic and have pleasant voices. The negative characters (teachers) initially do not differ from their positive colleagues but sooner or later they reveal their aggressive nature, both visually and lexically.

Significant change in the characters' life: a) positive characters (teachers) face professional challenges: the teaching staff and/or students' parent disapprove of their creative ideas; aggressive, rude and/or sexually oriented conduct of students; false accusations, blackmail on the part of students and/or colleagues, students' parent; students' and/or their friends' violence; b) negative characters (teachers) start to fulfill their insidious inhuman plans.

Arising problem: a) reputation, position, health and lives of positive characters – teachers are at threat; b) reputation, health and lives of students are at threat.

Search for solution: positive characters (teachers) struggle with negative characters (students, colleagues, etc.)

Solution to the problem: a) victory of positive characters – teachers; b) exposure, expulsion, arrest, elimination of negative characters (students, teacher, etc.), school and university return to ordinary life.

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Attachment

Films about the school and university (1912-2018): filmography

The creation of this type of filmography caused significant difficulties: it was necessary to cut off a lot of films, where students and students were shown on summer and winter and other holidays, on trips and hikes, at sports competitions, etc., that is, outside the walls of schools and universities. We not included in the filmography and numerous movies, where students was insignificant, background characters.

Silent period of cinematography

After School. USA, 1912.
Der Student von Prag. Germany, 1913.
The Little Teacher / A small town bully. USA, 1915.
A Day at School. USA, 1916.
Tom Brown's School Days. UK, 1916.
Daddy Long Legs. USA, 1919.
Los chicos de la escuela. Spain, 1925.
Der Student von Prag. Germany, 1926.
The Campus Flirt. USA, 1926.
The College Boob. USA, 1926.
College. USA, 1927.
High School Hero. USA, 1927.
The College Hero. USA, 1927.
The Fair Co-Ed. USA, 1927.
The Student Prince in Old Heidelberg. USA, 1927.
Don Juan in der Mädchenschule. Germany, 1928.
Campus Knights. USA, 1929.
So This Is College. USA, 1929.

1930s − 1950s

1930
Stud. chem. Helene Willfuer. Germany, 1930.
1931
Confessions of a Co-Ed. USA, 1931.
Daddy Long Legs. USA, 1931.
Mädchen in Uniform. Germany, 1931.
The Beggar Student. UK, 1931.
1933
College Humor. USA, 1933.
Murder on the Campus. USA, 1933.
Zero de conduit. France, 1933.
1934
College Rhythm. USA, 1934.
Finishing School. USA, 1934.
School for Girls. USA, 1934.
Student Tour. USA, 1934.
1935
College Scandal. USA, 1935.
Der Student von Prag. Germany, 1935.
Kleine Mutti. Austria-Hungary, 1935.
The Student's Romance. UK, 1935.
1936
The Little Red Schoolhouse. USA, 1936.
These Three. USA, 1936.
We Went to College. USA, 1936.
1937
Claudine 'a l'ecole. France, 1937.
Life Begins in College. USA, 1937.
1938
Campus Confessions. USA, 1938.
College Swing. USA, 1938.
Crime School. USA, 1938.
Dramatic School. USA, 1938.

Girls' School. USA, 1938.
Hold That Co-ed. USA, 1938.
Katia. France, 1938.
Mad About Music. USA, 1938.
Vadertje Langbeen. Germany, 1938.

1939

Dancing Co-Ed. USA, 1939.
Goodbye, Mr. Chips. USA, 1939.

1940

Maddalena... zero in condotta. Italy, 1940.
Strike Up the Band. USA, 1940.
Swing it, Magistern. Sweden, 1940.
Tom Brown's School Days. USA, 1940.

1941

All-American Co-Ed. USA, 1941.

1942

Blondie Goes to College. USA, 1942.
Secrets of a Co-Ed. USA, 1942.

1943

Campus Rhythm. USA, 1943.
The Falcon and the Co-eds. USA, 1943.
Young Ideas. USA, 1943.

1944

Die Feuerzangenbowle. Germany, 1944.
Hets / Torment. Sweden, 1944.
Il diavolo va in collegio. Italy, 1944.

1945

Here Come the Co-Eds. USA, 1945.
The Corn Is Green. USA, 1945.

1946

Betty Co-Ed. USA, 1946.
Margie. USA, 1946.

1947

Curley. USA, 1947.
Good News. USA, 1947.

1948

Apartment for Peggy. USA, 1948.
Campus Honeymoon. USA, 1948.
Campus Sleuth. USA, 1948.
Our Miss Brooks. USA, 1948-1952.

1949

L'ecole buissonniere. France, 1949.
Mr. Belvedere Goes to College. USA, 1949.

1950

Girls' School. USA, 1950.

1951

Olivia. France, 1951.
Tom Brown's School Days. UK, 1951.

1952

Klasskamrater. Sweden, 1952.
Navajo. USA, 1952.
She's Working Her Way Through College. USA, 1952.

1953

Bright Road. USA, 1953.

Dortoir des Grandes. France, 1953.
Jälkeen syntiinlankeemuksen. Finlad, 1953.
The Affairs of Dobie Gillis. USA, 1953.

1954

Das fliegende Klassenzimmer. Germany, 1954.
Her Twelve Men. USA, 1954.
Mam'zelle Nitouche. France, 1954.
Terza liceo. Italy, 1954.
The Student Prince. USA, 1954.

1955

Amici per la pelle. Italy – France - Spain, 1955.
Daddy Long Legs. USA, 1955.
Futures vedettes. France, 1955.
Good Morning, Miss Dove. USA, 1955.
Scuola elementare. Italy, 1955.
The Blackboard Jungle. USA, 1955.

1956

Rentree des classes. France, 1956.
Tea and Sympathy. USA, 1956.

1957

El maestro. Spain–Italy, 1957.
I Was a Teenage Werewolf. USA, 1957.
Les Collegiennes. France, 1957.
Our Miss Brooks. USA, 1957.

1958

High School Confidential! USA, 1958.
High School Hellcats. USA, 1958.
Mädchen in Uniform. France – Germany, 1958.
Merry Andrew. USA, 1958.
Monster On The Campus. USA, 1958.
Teacher's Pet. USA, 1958.
The Professor. USA, 1958.

1959

Katja, die ungekrönte Kaiserin. Germany-France, 1959.
Les Quatre cents coups. France, 1959.

1960s − 1970s

1960

A French Mistress. UK, 1960.
Opettajatar seikkailee. Finland, 1960.
Platinum High School. USA, 1960.
School for Scoundrels. UK, 1960.
Sex Kittens Go to College. USA, 1960.
Skandaali tyttokoulussa. Finland, 1960.

1961

Out of the Shadow. UK, 1961.
Splendor in the Grass. USA, 1961.
The Children's Hour. USA, 1961.

1962

The Miracle Worker. USA, 1962.

1963

Il maestro di Vigevano. Italy, 1963.
La foire aux cancres. France, 1963.

1964

Die höhere Schule. Germany, 1964.
Get Yourself a College Girl. USA, 1964.
Les Amities particulieres. France, 1964.

1965

Journal d'une femme en blanc. France, 1965.
La bonne occase. France, 1965.
La communal. France, 1965.

1966

Hot Nights on the Campus. USA, 1966.
La Ligne de demarcation. France, 1966.
Lord Love a Duck. USA, 1966.
Mademoiselle. UK - France, 1966.

1967

Le grand Meaulnes. France, 1967.
Les grandes vacances. France-Italy, 1967.
Les risques du metier. France, 1967.
Mouchette. France, 1967.
To Sir, with Love. UK, 1967.
Up the Down Staircase. USA, 1967.

1968

College Girls. USA, 1968.
If... UK, 1968.
La grande lessive. France, 1968.
Rachel, Rachel. USA, 1968.

1969

Goodbye, Mr. Chips. USA, 1969.
Hurra, die Schule brennt. Germany, 1969.
I daskala me ta xantha mallia. Greece, 1969.
School for Sex. UK, 1969.
The Prime of Miss Jean Brodie. UK, 1969.

1970

Bambule. Germany, 1970.
Getting Straight. USA, 1970.
Le Boucher. France-Italy, 1970.
Mourir d'aimer. France-Italy, 1970.
Schulmädchen-Report. Germany, 1970-1980. 2001.

1971

Aussi loin que l'amour. France, 1971.
On n'arrete pas le printemps. France, 1971.
Pretty Maids All in a Row. USA, 1971.
Tom Brown's School Days. UK, 1971.
Unman. UK, 1971.

1972

ABC Afterschool Specials. USA, 1972–1997.
Die Klosterschülerinnen. Germany-France, 1972.
La Prima notte di quiete. France – Italy, 1972.
Schule der Frauen. Germany, 1972.

1973

Amarcord. Italy, 1973.
Class of '44. USA, 1973.
Das fliegende Klassenzimmer. Germany, 1973.
L'ecole sauvage. France, 1973.
Les Zozos. France, 1973.
The Harrad Experiment. USA, 1973.

The Paper Chase, 1973.
The Student Teachers. USA, 1973.
Was Schulmädchen verschweigen. Germany, 1973.

1974

Appassionata. Italy, 1974.
Auch ich war nur ein mittelmäßiger Schüler. Germany, 1974.
Conrack. USA, 1974.
Horror High. USA, 1974.
La gifle. France-Italy, 1974.
La moutarde me monte au nez. France, 1974.
Mousey. USA – UK, 1974.
Professore venga accompagnato dai suoi genitori. Italy, 1974.
Summer School Teachers. USA, 1974.
To Sir, with Love. USA, 1974.
Un par de zapatos del '32. Spain-Italy, 1974.

1975

Cooley High. USA, 1975.
Delinquent School Girls. USA, 1975.
El colegio de la muerte. Spain, 1975.
La liceale. Italy, 1975.
L'educanda. Italy, 1975.
Lezioni private. Italy, 1975.
L'insegnante. Italy, 1975.
Paolo Barca, maestro elementare, praticamente nudista. Italy, 1975.
Picnic at Hanging Rock. Australia, 1975.
Sie sind frei, Doktor Korczak. Germany-Izrael, 1975.

1976

Carrie. USA, 1976.
Classe mista. Italy, 1976.
Jonas qui aura 25 ans en l'an 2000. France-Switzerland, 1976.
La premiere fois. France, 1976.
La professoressa di lingue. Italy, 1976.
La professoressa di scienze naturali. Italy, 1976.
La studentessa. Italy, 1976.
L'Argent de poche. France, 1976.
Le petit Marcel. France, 1976.
Les mal partis. France, 1976.
Massacre at Central High. USA, 1976.
The Devil's Playground. Australia, 1976.
The Student Body. USA, 1976.
Un enfant dans la foule. France, 1976.

1977

Diabolo menthe. France, 1977.
Looking for Mr. Goodbar. USA, 1977.
Qu'est-ce que tu veux Julie? France, 1977.
Suspiria. Italy, 1977.
Why Shoot the Teacher? Canada, 1977.

1978

Absolution. UK, 1978.
Alertez les bébés. France, 1978.
Animal House. USA, 1978.
Arriba Hazaña. Spain, 1978.
Ça va pas la tête. France, 1978.
Grease. USA, 1978.
Haro. France, 1978.

La cle' sur la porte. France, 1978.
La liceale nella classe dei ripetenti. Italy–France, 1978.
L'insegnante va in collegio. Italy-France, 1978.
Un professeur d'americain. France, 1978.

1979

French Postcards. France – Germany – USA, 1979.
Je parle d'amour. France, 1979.
La liceale seduce i professori. Italy, 1979.
La liceale, il diavolo e l'acquasanta. Italy, 1979.
Le temps des vacances. France, 1979.
L'ecole est finie. France, 1979.
L'insegnante balla... con tutta la classe. Italy, 1979.
Rock 'n' Roll High School. USA, 1979.
The Class of Miss MacMichael. UK, 1979.
Tutti a squola. Italy, 1979.
Un si joli village... France, 1979.

1980s

1980

Certaines nouvelles. France, 1980.
Foxes. USA, 1980.
La boum. France, 1980.
La ripetente fa l'occhietto al preside. Italy, 1980.
Les petites ecolieres. France, 1980.
Les sous-doués. France, 1980.
Les turlupins. France, 1980.
Passe ton bac d'abord. France, 1980.
Prom Night. Canada, 1980.
Une semaine de vacances. France, 1980.

1981

Allons z'enfants. France, 1981.
Christiane F. - Wir Kinder vom Bahnhof Zoo. Germany, 1981.
Clara et les Chics Types. France, 1981.
Et pourtant elle tourne... France, 1981.
Le bahut va craquer. France, 1981.
Le maitre d'ecole. France, 1981.
Mia moglie torna a scuola. Italy, 1981.
Night School. USA, 1981.
Pierino contro tutti. Italy, 1981.
Student Bodies. USA, 1981.
Taps. USA, 1981.
Taxi Zum Klo. Germany, 1981.
Votre enfant m'interesse. France, 1981.

1982

Class of 1984. Canada, 1982.
Fast Times at Ridgemont High. USA, 1982.
Grease 2. USA, 1982.
La boum 2. France, 1982.
Les diplômés du dernier rang. France, 1982.
Let's Do It! USA, 1982.
Naked Campus. USA, 1982.
Ralentir ecole. France, 1982.

1983

Class. USA, 1983.
Debout les crabes, la mer monte! France, 1983.

Educating Rita. UK, 1983.
High School U.S.A. USA, 1983.
La palombiere. France, 1983.
Liberty belle. France, 1983.
Lo student. Italy, 1983.
My Tutor. USA, 1983.
Private School. USA, 1983.
Rue cases negre. France, 1983.
Screwballs. Canada, 1983.

1984

Dortoir des grandes. France, 1984.
J'ai rencontré le Père Noël. France, 1984.
Jeans Tonic. France, 1984.
Lace. USA, 1984.
Making the Grade. USA, 1984.
Police Academy. USA, 1984.
Schulmädchen' 84. Germany, 1984.
Sixteen Candles. USA, 1984.
Splatter University. USA, 1984.
Teachers. USA, 1984.
The Best Legs in Eighth Grade. USA, 1984.
They're Playing with Fire. USA, 1984.

1985

Back to the Future. USA, 1985.
Les enfants. France, 1985.
Loose Screws. USA-Canada, 1985.
Mask. USA, 1985.
Ni avec toi ni sans toi. France, 1985.
P.R.O.F.S. France, 1985.
School Spirit. USA, 1985.
The Breakfast Club. USA, 1985.
Tom Brown's School Days. UK, 1985.

1986

Back to School. USA, 1986.
Children of a Lesser God. USA, 1986.
Class of Nuke 'Em High. USA, 1986.
Cours prive'. France, 1986.
Dangerously Close. USA, 1986.
Dangerously Close. USA, 1986.
Douce France. France-Germany, 1986.
États d'âme. France, 1986.
Ferris Bueller's Day Off. USA, 1986.
Girls School Screamers. USA, 1986.
Head of the Class. USA, 1986–1990.
L'araignée de satin. France, 1986.
Las colegialas. Argentina-Italy, 1986.
Peggy Sue Got Married. USA, 1986.
Pretty in Pink. USA, 1986.
Slaughter High. UK – USA, 1986.

1987

A Different World. USA, 1987–1993.
Au Revoir Le Enfants. France – Germany – Italy, 1987.
Campus Man. USA, 1987.
Good Morning, Miss Bliss. USA, 1987-1989.
Hello Mary Lou: Prom Night II. Canada, 1987.

Just One of the Guys. USA, 1987.
La petite allumeuse. France, 1987.
Not Quite Human. USA, 1987.
Rebel High. Canada, 1987.
Some Kind of Wonderful. USA, 1987.
Student Affairs. USA, 1987.
Student Confidential. USA, 1987.
Student Exchange. USA, 1987.
Summer School. USA, 1987.
The Principal. USA, 1987.
The Underachievers. USA, 1987.
Three O'Clock High. USA, 1987.
Under Cover. USA, 1987.
Zombie High. USA, 1987.

1988

14 going on 30. USA, 1988.
After School. USA, 1988.
De bruit et de fureur. France, 1988.
Heathers. USA, 1988.
La petite voleuse. France, 1988.
L'etudiante. France-Italy, 1988.
Stand and Deliver. USA, 1988.
The Chocolate War. USA, 1988.

1989

Bill and Ted's Excellent Adventure. USA, 1989.
College. Italy, 1989.
Cutting Class. USA, 1989.
Dead Poets Society. USA, 1989.
Hell High. USA, 1989.
How I Got Into College. USA, 1989.
Lean on Me. USA, 1989.
Noce blanch. France, 1989.
Say Anything. USA, 1989.
School Daze. USA, 1988.

1990s

1990

Class of 1999. USA, 1990.
Ghoul School. USA, 1990.
La fracture du myocarde. France, 1990.
Prom Night III: The Last Kiss. Canada, 1990.
Uranus. France, 1990.

1991

Class of Nuke 'Em High Part II: Subhumanoid Meltdown. USA, 1991.
Flirting. Australia, 1991.
Frankenstein: The College Years. USA, 1991.
Genial, mes parents divorcent! France, 1991.
Ghoulies III: Ghoulies Go to College. USA, 1991.
L'annee de l'eveil. Belgium-France, 1991.
Les cles du paradis. France, 1991.
Little Man Tate. USA, 1991.
Toy Soldiers. USA, 1991.

1992

Class Act. USA, 1992.
Degrassi High: School's Out. Canada, 1992.
Io speriamo che me la cavo. Italy, 1992.

Prom Night IV: Deliver Us from Evil. Canada, 1992.
School Ties. USA, 1992.
School's Out! Canada, 1992.
Unser Lehrer Doktor Specht. Germany, 1992–1999.
Waterland. UK, 1992.
Zebrahead. USA, 1992.

1993

Class of `61. USA, 1993.
Class of '96. USA, 1993.
Dazed and Confused. USA, 1993.
Ernest Goes to School. Canada-USA, 1993.
Gross Misconduct. Australia, 1993.
Le jeune Werther. France, 1993.
L'instit. France-Switzerland, 1993–2004.
L'ombre du doute. France, 1993.
Saved by the Bell: The College Years. USA, 1993–1994.
Saved by the Bell: The New Class. USA, 1993-2000.
The Substitute. USA, 1993.

1994

Basketball Diaries. USA, 1994.
Class of 1999 II: The Substitute. USA, 1994.
Confessions of a Sorority Girl. USA, 1994.
Foreign Student. Holland – USA – France – Italy – UK, 1994.
Heartbreak High. Australia, 1994 – 1999.
PCU. USA, 1994.
Reform School Girl. USA, 1994.
Renaissance Man. USA, 1994.
Sweet Valley High. France - USA, 1994–1998.
The Browning Version. UK, 1994.

1995

Angus. Germany – USA – France – UK, 1995.
Art for Teachers of Children. USA, 1995.
Billy Madison. USA, 1995.
Class of Nuke 'Em High Part 3: The Good, the Bad and the Subhumanoid. USA, 1995.
Clueless. USA, 1995.
Dangerous Minds. USA, 1995.
Higher Learning. USA, 1995.
Kids. USA, 1995.
La scuola. Italy-France, 1995.
Life. USA, 1995.
Lust och fägring stor. Sweden, 1995.
Major Payne. USA, 1995.
Mr. Holland's Opus. USA, 1995.
My Teacher`s Wife. USA, 1995.
Tina and the Professor. USA, 1995.
Welcome to the dollhouse. USA, 1995.
When Night Is Falling. Canada, 1995.

1996

Co-ed Call Girl. USA, 1996.
Demolition High. USA, 1996.
For My Daughter's Honor. USA, 1996.
Foxfire. USA, 1996.
Girls Town. USA, 1996.
High School High. USA, 1996.
Jack. USA, 1996.
Le Plus beau metier du monde. France, 1996.

Matilda. USA, 1996.
The Craft. USA, 1996.
The Mirror Has Two Faces. USA, 1996.
The Substitute. USA, 1996.
To Sir, with Love II. USA, 1996.

1997

Apt Pupil. USA-Canada-France, 1997.
Auguri professore. Italy, 1997
Demolition University. USA, 1997.
Good Will Hunting. USA, 1997.
In and Out. USA, 1997.
One Eight Seven / 187. USA, 1997.
'Til There Was You. USA, 1997.

1998

Class. USA-Canada, 1998.
Dead Man on Campus. USA, 1998.
Dead Students Society. USA, 1998.
Der Campus. Germany, 1998.
Devil in the Flesh. USA, 1998.
Disturbing Behavior. USA – Australia, 1998.
Física o química. Spain, 2008-2011.
I piccoli maestri. Italy, 1998.
Pleasantville. USA, 1998.
Principal Takes a Holiday. Canada-USA, 1998.
Rushmore. USA, 1998.
The Faculty USA, 1998.
This Is My Father. USA, 1998.
Whatever. France - USA, 1998.

1999

American Pie. USA, 1999.
Big Wolf on Campus. Csnada, 1999.
Duck! The Carbine High Massacre. USA, 1999.
Election. USA, 1999.
Freaks and Geeks. USA, 1999-2000.
In a Class of His Own. USA, 1999.
Inherit the Wind. USA, 1999.
Jawbreaker. USA, 1999.
La lengua de las mariposas. Spain, 1999.
Never Been Kissed. USA, 1999.
She's all that. USA, 1999.
Teaching Mrs. Tingle. USA, 1999.
Ten things I hate about you. USA, 1999.
The Rage: Carrie 2. USA, 1999.
Undressed. USA-Canada, 1999 – 2002.

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2000

100 Girls. USA, 2000.
All-American Girl: The Mary Kay Letourneau Story. USA, 2000.
Billy Elliot. USA, 2000.
Boston Public. USA, 2000–2004.
Inherit the Wind. USA, 1960.
Le prof. France, 2000.
L'institutrice. France-Canada, 2000.

Massholes. USA, 2000.
My Mother Frank. Australia, 2000.
Satan's School for Girls. USA, 2000.
Schule. Germany, 2000.
Teacher's Pet / Devil in the Flesh 2. USA-Canada, 2000.
Teacher's Pet. Canada – USA, 2000.
The Acting Class. USA, 2000.
The Skulls. USA-Canada, 2000.

2001

American Pie 2. USA, 2001.
Donnie Darko. USA, 2001.
Going Greek. USA, 2001.
Harry Potter... UK - USA, 2001-2011
Scandal: Sex@students.edu. USA, 2001.
Tart. USA, 2001.
Teachers. UK, 2001–2004.
The Dangerous Lives of Altar Boys. USA, 2001.
Weirdsister College. UK, 2001–2002.

2002

Bang Bang You're Dead. USA – Canada, 2002.
Blue Car. USA, 2002.
Cadet Kelly. USA-Canada, 2002.
Carrie. USA, 2002.
Dead Above Ground. USA, 2002.
Heart of America. Germany – Canada, 2002.
National Lampoon's Van Wilder. Germany-USA, 2002.
Porn 'n Chicken. USA, 2002.
Satan's School for Lust. USA, 2002.
Strange Days at Blake Holsey High. Canada, 2002–2006.
The Emperor's Club. USA, 2002.
The New Guy. USA, 2002.

2003

After School Special / National Lampoon's Barely Legal. Germany-USA, 2003.
Evil / Ondskan. Denmark-Sweden, 2003.
Grande Ecole. France, 2003.
Hatley High. Canada, 2003.
Madea's Class Reunion. USA, 2003.
Mona Lisa Smile. USA, 2003.
One Tree Hill. USA, 2003–2012.
School of Life. Canada-USA, 2003.
Song for a Raggy Boy. Irland-UK-Denmark-Spain, 2003.
Student Seduction. Canada-USA, 2003.
Terror at Baxter U. USA, 2003.
The School of Rock. USA-Germany, 2003.

2004

A Cinderella Story. USA, 2004.
A Separate Peace. Canada, 2004.
Casey the Co-Ed. USA, 2004.
Chasing Liberty. USA, 2004.
Evilenko. Italy, 2004.
Grande ecole. France, 2004.
Innocence. France, 2004.
Les Choristes. Germany – France – Switzerland, 2004.
Mean Girls. USA – Canada, 2004.
Napola - Elite für den Führer. Germany, 2004.
Napoleon dynamite. USA, 2004.

Ned's Declassified School Survival Guide. USA-Germany, 2004–2007.
P.S. USA, 2004.
School for Seduction. UK, 2004.
Schulmädchen. Germany, 2004.
The Perfect Score. USA, 2004.
University Heights. USA, 2004.
Veronica Mars. USA, 2004-2007.

2005

Ahead of the Class. UK, 2005.
Campus Confidential. USA, 2005.
Coach Carter. USA – Germany, 2005.
L'etudiante et Monsieur Henri. France, 2015.
Like Minds. Australia-UK, 2005.
Provaci ancora prof! Italy, 2005.
Shackles. USA, 2005.
Tamara. USA – Canada, 2005.
University Place. USA, 2005.

2006

5ive Girls. Canada, 2006.
Accepted. USA, 2006.
Art School Confidential. USA, 2006.
Bridge to Terabithia.USA, 2006.
Busty Co-Eds. USA, 2006.
Comrade Pedersen. Norway, 2006.
Half Nelson. USA, 2006.
High School Musical. USA, 2006.
John Tucker Must Die. USA, 2006.
Le Grand Meaulnes. France, 2006.
L'ecole pour tous. France, 2006.
Les amities malefiques. France, 2006.
Loving Annabelle. USA, 2006.
Mr. Gibb. USA, 2006.
Notes on a Scandal. UK, 2006.
Shameless Co-eds. USA, 2006.
Summer School. USA, 2006.
The Class. USA, 2006–2007.
The Haunting at Thompson High. Canada, 2006.
The History Boys. UK, 2006.
The Ron Clark Story. USA – Canada, 2006.

2007

American Pie Presents Beta House. USA – Canada, 2007.
Charlie Bartlett. USA, 2007.
City Teacher. USA, 2007.
Co-Ed Confidential. USA, 2007.
College. USA, 2007.
El Internado. Spain, 2007-2010.
Elegy. USA, 2007.
Freedom Writers. USA-Germany, 2007.
Gossip Girl. USA, 2007-2012.
Greek. USA, 2007-2011.
How I Married My High School Crush / The Wedding Wish. Canada, 2007.
Helphone. France, 2007.
High School Musical 2. USA, 2007.
Juno. USA, 2007.
Kickin' It Old Skool. USA-Canada, 2007.
Murder 101: College Can Be Murder. USA, 2007.

Normal. Canada, 2007.
Sanaton sopimus. Finland, 2007.
School of Horror. USA, 2007.
St. Trinian's 2. UK, 2007.
St. Trinian's. UK, 2007.
Summer Heights High. Australia, 2007.
Sydney White. USA, 2007.
Teufelsbraten. Germany, 2007.
The Great Debaters. USA, 2007.
The Education of Charlie Banks. USA, 2007.
The Oxford Murders. USA, 2007.
The Tracey Fragments. Canada, 2007.
Vikaren. Denmark, 2007.

2008

A Country Teacher / Venkovsky ucitel. Czech Republic – Germany – France, 2008.
After School. USA, 2008.
Afters School. USA, 2008.
Assassination of a High School President. USA, 2008.
Britannia High. UK, 2008.
College Road Trip. USA, 2008.
College Sex Project. USA, 2008.
Die Welle. Germany, 2008.
Drillbit Taylor. USA, 2008.
Élève libre. Belgium – France, 2008.
Entre les murs. France, 2008.
Front of the Class. USA, 2008.
Gym Teacher. The Movie. Canada – USA, 2008.
High School Musical 3: Senior Year. USA, 2008.
I liceali. Italy, 2008.
Keith. USA, 2008.
La journee de la jupe. France – Belgium, 2008.
Lesson 21. Italy – UK, 2008.
LOL. France, 2008.
Picture This. USA, 2008.
Private Lessons. France – Belgium, 2008.
Senior Skip Day. USA, 2008.
Spy School. USA, 2008.
Stella. France, 2008.
Summerhill. UK, 2008.
The Clique. USA, 2008.
The House Bunny. USA, 2008.
Ultimi della classe. Italy, 2008.
Wild Child. USA, 2008.

2009

17 Again. USA, 2009.
American High School. USA, 2009.
An Education. USA, 2009.
April Showers. USA, 2009.
Daddy Longlegs / Go Get Some Rosemary. USA-France, 2009.
Deviant Co-Eds. USA, 2009.
Der Lehrer. Germany, 2009.
Love at First Hiccup. USA – Denmark, 2009.
Mrs. Washington Goes to Smith. USA, 2009.
OffCampus. USA, 2009..
Polytechnique. Canada, 2009.
Private. USA, 2009.

Professor Quixote. USA, 2009.
Tenure. USA, 2009.
The Trotsky. Canada, 2009.
Tormented. UK, 2009.
Wild Cherry. USA-Canada, 2009.
World's Greatest Dad. USA, 2009.

2010

Alleged. USA, 2010.
A Very School Gyrls Holla-Day. USA, 2010.
Bloomington. USA, 2010.
Bouquet of Barbed Wire. UK, 2010.
Class. USA, 2010.
Class of '91. USA, 2010.
Daydream Nation. Canada, 2010.
Easy A. USA, 2010.
F. UK, 2010.
La scuola e finita. Italy–Switzerland, 2010.
Mes cheres etudes. France, 2010.
No Limit Kids: Much Ado About Middle School. USA, 2010.
Pound of Flesh. USA, 2010.
?Primaria! Spain, 2010.
Submarine. UK, 2010.
The Perfect Teacher. Canada, 2010.
The School in the Woods. USA, 2010.
The Seminarian. USA, 2010.
Tod einer Schülerin. Germany, 2010.
Unsolved Suburbia. USA, 2010.

2011

A.N.T. Farm. USA, 2011–2014.
Bad Teacher. USA, 2011.
Beyond the Blackboard. USA, 2011.
Deadtime Stories 2. USA, 2011.
Detachment. USA, 2011.
Die Lehrerin. Germany, 2011.
Faculty. USA, 2011.
Fairview Falls. USA, 2011.
High School. USA, 2011.
Horrid Henry. UK, 2011.
Killer School Girls from Outer Space. USA, 2011.
Larry Crowne. USA, 2011.
L'élève Ducobu. France, 2011.
Mean Girls 2. USA, 2011.
Monsieur Lazhar. Canada, 2011.
That's What I Am. USA, 2011.
The Perfect Student. USA, 2011.
Worst. Prom. Ever. USA, 2011.

2012

Dans la maison. France, 2012.
Fabulous High. USA, 2012.
General Education. USA, 2012.
Haunted High. USA, 2012.
Hello Herman. USA, 2012.
Here Comes the Boom. USA, 2012.
Il Professore. Italy, 2012.
Liberal Arts. USA, 2012.
Ma premiere fois. France, 2012.

Mac & Devin Go to High School. USA, 2012.
Murder University. USA, 2012.
Project X. USA, 2012.
Promocion fantasma. Spain, 2012.
Radio Rebel. USA, 2012.
Struck by Lighthing. USA, 2012.
Students Like Us. USA, 2012.
That's My Boy. USA, 2012.
The English Teacher. USA, 2012.
The Perks of Being a Wallflower. USA, 2012.

2013

A Teacher. USA, 2013.
Ashley. USA, 2013.
Big School. UK, 2013–2014.
Carrie. USA, 2013.
Fack ju Göhte. Germany, 2013.
Ja'mie: Private School Girl. Australia, 2013.
La vraie vie des profs. France, 2013.
L'amour est un crime parfait. France, 2013.
Les profs. France, 2013.
Les Zozos. France, 2013.
Paragon School for Girls. USA, 2013.
Professor. USA, 2013.
Return to Nuke 'Em High Volume 1. USA, 2013.
Spieltrieb. Germany, 2013.
Universitari - Molto piu che amici. Italy, 2013.
University Estate. USA, 2013.
Words and Pictures. USA, 2013.

2014

100 Things to Do Before High School. USA, 2014–2016.
A toute epreuve. France, 2014.
After School Massacre. USA, 2014.
Asian School Girls. USA, 2014.
Bad Teacher. USA, 2014.
Barely Lethal. USA, 2014.
Cabot College. USA, 2014.
College Musical. USA, 2014.
Cooties. USA, 2014.
Dead on Campus. Canada, 2014.
High School Possession. USA, 2014.
La scuola piu bella del mondo. Italy, 2014.
Sex Ed. USA, 2014.
Teacher of the Year. USA, 2014.
The Coed and the Zombie Stoner. USA, 2014.
The Falling. UK, 2014.
The Riot Club. UK, 2014.

2015

Bad Sister. USA, 2015.
Beginner's Guide to Sex. USA, 2015.
Campus Code. USA, 2015.
Carter High. USA, 2015.
Class. USA, 2015.
Die Klasse - Berlin 61. Germany, 2015.
Down Dog. USA, 2015.
Fack ju Göhte 2. Germany, 2015.
Helsing University. USA, 2015.

Irrational Man. USA, 2015.
Les profs 2. France, 2015.
Paper Towns. USA, 2015.
Some Kind of Hate. USA, 2015.
The Bad education movie. UK, 2015.
The Curse of Downers Grove. USA, 2015.
The Duff. USA, 2015.
The Film Student Movie. USA, 2015.
The High Schoolers Guide to College Parties. USA, 2015.
The Preppie Connection. Puerto Rico – USA, 2015.

2016

Class. UK, 2016.
Degrassi: Next Class. Canada, 2016.
Fish_Chicks. France, 2016.
Killer Coach. USA, 2016.
L'Allieva. Italy, 2016.
Last Day of School. USA, 2016.
Middle School: The Worst Years of My Life. USA-Cambodia, 2016.
Polina, danser sa vie. France, 2016.
Teachers. USA, 2016.
Tell Me How I Die. USA, 2016.
The Edge of Seventeen. USA-China, 2016.

2017

Campus Caller. USA, 2017.
Classe Z. Italy, 2017.
College Republicans. USA, 2017.
Deadly Sorority. USA, 2017.
Dismissed. USA, 2017.
Disorientated. Italy, 2017.
Fist Fight. USA, 2017.
Getting Schooled. USA, 2017.
Gifted. USA, 2017.
High School Lover. USA, 2017.
Ich gehre ihm. Germany, 2017.
Public Schooled. Csnada, 2017.
Return to Return to Nuke 'Em High Vol. 2. USA, 2017.
The School. USA, 2017.
The Student. USA, 2017.
The Teacher. USA, 2017.
Wonder. USA-Hong Kong, 2017.

2018

Night School. USA, 2018.

To this list, you can still add numerous Western screen versions of the novel ***Jane Eyre*** (1934, 1944, 1970, 1973, 1983, 1996, 1997, 2006, 2011).

Complier: Alexander Fedorov

Psychometric Properties of the Scale of Mato and Muñoz-Vázquez in Medical Undergraduate Students Sample

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[d] Volgograd State University, Volgograd, Russian Federation
[e] Medical Surgeon, Universidad Autónoma de Aguascalientes, México

Abstract

The aim of this paper is to measure the anxiety toward mathematics of undergraduate medical students in a public university. In order to get the data were surveyed 208 students enrolled when the test was applied. The questionnaire used was the scale of Mato and Muñoz-Vázquez (2007). The statistical procedure was exploratory factorial analysis (EFA) with extraction method: Principal Component Analysis (PCA), Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization (KMO, Bartlett test of Sphericity, MSA, X^2 with df, α = <0.05). The result suggests that the factor ANXTMSDL (0.933) is the largest factor load, which suggests that the profile of the medical student, generates greater anxiety when faced with operations in daily life and the factor (ANXTT 0.626) is the factor that has a lower factor load, which leads us to think that anxiety towards the temporality of assessments or exams is not present, perhaps because, in the curriculum of the majoring the topics of mathematics are not integrated.

Keywords: anxiety toward math, undergraduate medical student,

1. Introduction

According to Alvarado-Mateo (2007), mathematics is a universal language whose correct application makes them a practical tool to describe concrete and abstract realities; mathematics´ attributes that allow obtaining internationally accepted results. Because of its nature, it represents

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challenges and solutions, a reason for which it is useful in classrooms. In the same line of thought, Livio (2011) mentions that mathematics can be found both inside and outside of the world around us, in several professions, studies and occupations as well as in the daily life of people.

Therefore, the learning of mathematics encourages the integration of people to society (Tobías, 1993). Also, one of the issues that requires more attention from researchers is the relationship between the development of certain attitudes, emotions and beliefs towards mathematics regarding the educational and cultural context of reference, whose impact will have implications in the students´ performance of all the activities related to this subject (Núñez et al., 2005).

Besides the cognitive dimension present in the learning of Mathematics, the emotional dimension has acquired a higher importance, because as time passes there is an increase on the perception and conscience about the impact that emotional aspects have over education and its effect on school learning (Pérez-Tyteca et al., 2009).

From the several emotional factors to be considered, anxiety is one of the main issues and the topic of this research since this factor is present on students, mainly when there are situations to evaluate the knowledge on that subject. There have been several studies which have taken anxiety towards this area as a main focus, refered in literature as anxiety towards Mathematics (Tobías, 1976; Wigfield,& Meece, 1988; Hembree, 1990; Jackson, Leffingwell, 1999; Ma, 1999; Perry, 2004).

The concept of anxiety towards Mathematics can be defined as the feeling that cause in the person tension, fear and uncertainty when there are situations that involve the use of mathematical learning, causing emotional and somatic disorders that disturb reasoning processes (Lewis, 1970; May 1977; Hembree, 1990).

Wood (1988) states that anxiety towards Mathematics is characterized by a feeling of dislike when the students perform activities related to the use of mathematical knowledge.

Other concepts regarding anxiety towards Mathematics are present in the research work by Richardson & Suinn (1972), who define is as a feeling related to the subject of Mathematics that is present in school activities as well as in daily life and which prevents the correct application of knowledge when facing a problem due to the experienced stress.

For Tobías & Weissbrod (1980), anxiety towards Mathematics is the feeling arising in the face of a mathematical problem and which causes in the person a number of negative emotions that block his/her knowledge. Fennema and Sherman (1976) consider that anxiety towards Mathematics is associated to physical as well as emotional and cognitive symptoms that will have relevance and arise when solving activities about that topic.

This phenomenon presents both in children and youths and adults (Tobías, 1980; Quilter, Harper, 1988), a reason for which this construct has been studied in different educational levels and considering several factors such as the problem of anxiety towards exams (Valero, 1999), where anxiety is analyzed with regard to the behavior of college students. The study of anxiety towards Mathematics is not new, since more than five decades ago, the studies about it started to appear and nonetheless, it is still a current issue nowadays.

Conversely, in order to pose a research problem, this study considers the results of the 2013 National Evaluation of Academic Achievement in School Centers (ENLACE for its acronym in Spanish), where it is possible to observe that in Mexico less than 50 % of sixth graders reached a good or excellent level in Mathematics, which places the other half, specifically 52 %, in an insufficient or basic level (Secretary of Public Education, 2013)

Furthermore, the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) in 2012 made known that 50% of Mexican students do not achieve the minimum competence level in Mathematics, which points out to the existence of an approximate two-year delay in school level, compared to the average of countries marked by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), even though from 2003 to 2012 Mexico has managed to reach and important improvement (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2012).

The afore-mentioned results of both studies prompt an interest about which are the factors related to low performance, as well as the analysis of the behavior that causes it. It is relevant to mention that the result of PISA in 2003 proved that a large amount of 15 years-old students who were evaluated present feelings of insecurity and emotional stress when facing Mathematics.

According to this study, students who feel anxiety tend to be uninterested in their studies and lose the interest in learning this subject. This subject is a consistent link in all the countries where

this phenomenon manifests, since it is a universal relationship pattern (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2004).

Given the strong presence of anxiety towards mathematics among students, the need to keep researching this issue is justified and so, the following question arises: what factors determine the level of anxiety towards Mathematics in the student? Hence, the aim of this study focuses on: Determine the level of anxiety in the student of Medicine. Also, if we considering that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix, Ho: $R_p=1$ the variables are not inter-correlated, Hi: $R_p \neq 1$ the variables are inter-correlated. Therefore, the hypotheses to be proved are:

Null Hypothesis H_O: There are no factors that allow us to understand the students' anxiety towards mathematics.

Alternative Hypothesis H_1: There are no factors that allow us to understand the students' anxiety towards mathematics.

A particular way, the hypotheses are:

H1: The evaluation is the factor that most explain the students' anxiety towards Math.

H2: The temporality is the factor that most explain the students' anxiety towards Math.

H3: The understanding of mathematical problems is the factor that most explain the students' anxiety towards Math.

H4: The numbers and mathematical operations is the factor that most explain the students' anxiety towards Math.

H5: The mathematical situations in daily-life, is the factor that most explain the students' anxiety towards Math.

2. Review of literature

The concept of anxiety towards Mathematics has been explained in the seminal work by Fenema & Sherman (1976), Roberts & Bilderbak (1980), Tobías (1976), Wigfield & Meece (1988), McCall, Belli & Madjidi (1990), Schau, Stevens, Dauphine & Del Vecchio (1995), concluding that, among other factors, the following prevail: nerves, stress and even awkwardness in the student who presents anxiety towards Mathematics.

An example of this is specifically found in the work of Wigfield & Meece (1988), whom, in their study about anxiety towards Mathematics in elementary school students, concluded that females present more physical symptoms (nerves, stress, awkwardness) that men when performing mathematical tasks. This fact is in agreement with the seminal work by Fennema & Sherman (1976) and Tobías (1980), where the results matches in the difference of anxiety intensity in men and women, being the former the ones who experience this phenomenon with greater force.

McLeod (1993) claims that, the school level where anxiety towards Mathematics appears, is elementary school and it is a feeling that can stay with the students in their following studies afterwards. Karp (1991) considers it a critical stage to secure mathematical knowledge in a way that middle-school will be when the negative feelings toward this subject are consolidated. Therefore, it will be in teenage years when the intensity of the feeling can be easily observed in female students (Halpern, 1986).

In a study with talented students of elementary and middle school, LaLonde, Leedy & Runk (2003) found out that boys present lower anxiety towards Mathematics than girls. In accordance with these results, Valero studied college undergraduates of Psychology in the University of Málaga and the higher scores on anxiety levels were obtained by women.

Although other research such as the one by Hunt (1985) determine that there are significant differences between men and women, since the later show more anxiety towards Mathematics, there are other studies like the one made by Hyde, Fennema, Ryan, Frost & Hopp (1990), who state that these differences are not always present, but in the cases where they do exist, it is undeniable that it is in detriment of the female gender.

On the other hand, Perina (2002) questions such a claim since his research points out that the results are influenced by the fact that women usually are more prone to admit they suffer or have suffered feelings of anxiety towards Mathematics and share this experiences with others; a trait that is not as present in men.

The former is also ratified by the studies of Reyes (1984), where the conclusions show that women are more likely to share their feeling of anxiety in general. Furthermore, Frank & Rickard

(1988) and Auzmendi (1992) talk about the lack of previous Mathematics baggage in the student as the cause of the experienced anxiety, which prevents their performance in Mathematics.

On the other hand, research as the one by Hackett (1985) determined that anxiety towards Mathematics is a factor that can help to predict the behavior of students. So, qualified students in Mathematics can make the decision to avoid them, causing an important reduction on their choices of college major. Once again, this situation is more pronounced in the female gender (Hembree, 1990), gicen the effects of a higher intensity in the feelings of anxiety towards Mathematics.

The afore mentioned effect in the students´ population has promoted a special interest in the study of anxiety towards Mathematics, which has raised a special interest in the study of anxiety towards Mathematics and therefore, it has been chosen as an object of study in current research, despite being a phenomenon with a long historical significance.

Studies made by Jackson & Leffingwell (1999) observed that even though a significant amount of the analyzed subjects have developed their anxiety towards Mathematics in a time preceding college, 27% of them have experienced their first stressing situation towards Mathematics in the course of their first year of study in college.

Perry (2004) proceeded to define different kinds of anxiety towards Mathematics in college students, the first is related to normal anxiety (moderate) experienced during the process of mathematic activity; the second refers to the anxiety created by the influence of some teacher in the past and causes insecurities until the present day; and finally, the anxiety originated by a mechanic learning of Mathematics that eliminates inherent reasoning in the performance of activities.

Since this context, the objective of this research is focused to identify the level of anxiety towards mathematics in medical students in a public university.

3. Methodology

In order develop the empirical study and to answer the research question, contrast the hypothesis test and achieve the goal of this study, the method that we follow is described next. The research it is non-experimental because we don't manipulate the independent variables that modify the effect (Y) and it is transversal considering that the field research was made in the month of October 2017. This is an explanatory study because it seeks to measure the levels of anxiety towards mathematics on medical student in a public university.

3.1. Population, sample and instrument

For the empirical study, the populations were medical students, reaching a total of 208 students enrolled. The used instrument was the scale designed by Muñoz and Mato-Vazquez (2007). This questionnaire has 24 questions grouped in five factors: Anxiety towards evaluation (ANXTE), anxiety towards temporality (ANXTT), Anxiety towards the understanding of mathematical problems (ANXTUMP), Anxiety towards numbers and mathematical operations (ANXTNMO) and Anxiety towards mathematical situations in daily-life (ANXTMSDL), as shown on Table 1. The scale used is Likert type, with values that range from: nothing=1, few times=2, neutral=3, most of the times=4 and always a lot=5

Table 1. Anxiety towards mathematics scale

Code	Dimensions	Items
ANXTE	Anxiety towards evaluation	1,2,8,10,11,14,15, 18,20, 22,23
ANXTT	Anxiety towards temporality	4,6,7,12
ANXTUMP	Anxiety towards the understanding of mathematical problems	5,17,19
ANXTNMO	Anxiety towards numbers and mathematical operations	3,13,16
ANXTMSDL	Anxiety towards mathematical situations in daily-life	9,21,24

Source: Taken from the Muñoz and Mato-Vázquez (2007) scale

3.2. Statistical procedure

For evaluation of the data, we use the statistical procedure of exploratory factor analysis (EFA), with extraction method: Principal Component Analysis (PCA), Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. For this, we established the following criterion: Statistical hypothesis: Ho: $\rho = 0$ there is no correlation, Hi: $\rho \neq 0$ there is a correlation. The statistical test is χ^2 and the Bartlett's test of Sphericity KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin), and additionally the value of MSA (Measure sample adequacy) for each variable of model. This statistical is asymptotically distributed with $p(p-1)/2$ freedom degrees, a significance level: $\alpha = 0.01$, $p<0.01$ or <0.05 load factorial of 0.70 ; and loads increased to 0.55

Decision rule: Reject Ho if χ^2 calculated $> \chi^2$ tables. Therefore, to place this research question in its theoretical and empiric reality, now the analysis and discussion of relevant literature on the subject of study is presented.

4. Data analysis
4.1. Test validation

Firstly the test used in the field research to collect data, was validated, obtaining Cronbach''s alpha coefficient (table 2).

Table 2. Case Processing Summary and Reliability Statistics

	N	%	α
Valid cases	208	100.0	0.966
Excluded[a]	0	.0	24 items
Total	208	100.0	

a.   List wise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.
Source: own

We may observe the reliability of the instrument is more than 0.9 and based on Cronbach's Alpha criterion (> 0.8), then we can say that the applied instruments have all the characteristics of consistency and reliability required (Hair, 1999). Now it shows in table 3 its means and its standard deviation in order to determine the coefficient of variation to identify the variables with the most variability with respect to others.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics

	Means	Standard deviation	Analysis N	Variation coefficient VC= sd/means
ANXTE	25.6346	10.63315	208	41.48%
ANXTT	9.1635	4.19825	208	45.81%
ANXTUMP	6.3029	2.94385	208	46.71%
ANXTNMO	6.1635	3.07903	208	49.96%
ANXTMSDL	4.8221	2.25481	208	46.76%

Source: own

The results described in chart 3, show the variable ANXTNMO (49.96%) is the largest compared to the rest of the variables that show similar behavior. Afterwards, to validate the statistical technique, we first conducted a contrast from Bartlett's test of Sphericity with Kaiser (KMO) and Measure Sample Adequacy (MSA) to determine whether there is a correlation between the variables studied and whether the factor analysis technique may explain the phenomenon studied (see table 4 and 5).

4.2. First result with grouped variables.

Table 4. KMO and Barttlet test of Sphericity

		KMO.	0.884	df	Sig.
Bartlett test of Sphericity	Chi-squared approximated		1035.152	10	0.00

Source: own

Table 5. Correlations matrix [a]

Correlations	ANXTE	ANXTT	ANXTUMP	ANXTNMO	ANXTMSDL
ANXTE	1.000				
ANXTT	.897	1.000			
ANXTUMP	.838	.839	1.000		
ANXTNMO	.834	.853	.829	1.000	
ANXTMSDL	.541	.571	.586	.651	1.000

[a] Determinant = .006
Source: own

Table 4 shows the results of Bartlett's test of Sphericity, KMO, MSA, $\chi2$, with p < 0.01 significance. The $\chi2$ valued is 1035.152 with 10 degree of freedom, which is acceptable. The KMO adequacy measurement is 0.884 and since it is higher than 0.5, therefore, shows that there are correlation among variables. Table 5 shows the correlation matrix, in which can be observed that the values reflect correlation among variables and thus factorial analysis may be carried out. Also, we must remember that, with low determinant criteria the correlation is higher, while with a higher determinant, the correlation is low.

Therefore we can predict the degree of inter-correlation between the variables studied. Thus, the determinant value of .006 it is close to 0, which indicated high correlation among variables.

Now in table 6 shows the anti-image matrix in which we may see that the all values in the diagonal are greater than 0.5, which means that there is a strong relationship among variables, therefore it is appropriate to carry out factorial analysis. The values of the diagonal correspond to values Measure of Sampling Adequacy (MSA) for each variable grouped. Those values are ranged 0.855[a] and 0.922[a] which confirm that exploratory factorial analysis may explain the phenomenon studied.

Table 6. Anti-image matrix

	ANXTE	ANXTT	ANXTUMP	ANXTNMO	ANXTMSDL
ANXTE	.857[a]				
ANXTT	-.547	.855[a]			
ANXTUMP	-.275	-.213	.922[a]		
ANXTNMO	-.194	-.299	-.269	.891[a]	
ANXTMSDL	.070	-.028	-.117	-.330	.915[a]

a. Measure sampling adequacy
Source: own

Table 7. Component and communalities matrix [a]

	Component 1	Communalities
ANXTE	.929	.863
ANXTT	.939	.883
ANXTUMP	.922	.850

ANXTNMO	.937	.878
ANXTMSDL	.729	.531
Eigenvalue		4.005
Total variance		∑Ψ/no. Ítems = 4.005/5 =.801= 80.10%

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis
a. 1 extracted component
Source: own

Table 8. Total variance explained

Component	Initial eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.005	80.091	80.091	4.005	80.091	80.091
2	.559	11.185	91.276			
3	.178	3.560	94.836			
4	.157	3.140	97.976			
5	.101	2.024	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis
Source: own

As we can see in tables 7 and 8 the component and communalities matrix, as well the total variance explained by the extracted component (respectively). In table 7 we may note that the extracted component comprises five variables grouped, being anxiety toward temporality (ANXTT 0.939) being the factor with the highest factor load, followed by the factor anxiety towards numbers and mathematical operations (ANXTNMO 0.937), anxiety towards evaluation (ANXTE 0.929), anxiety towards the understanding of mathematical problems (ANXTUMP 0.922) and finally, with less load factor we have the factor, anxiety towards mathematical situations in daily-life (ANXTMSDL 0.729)

All these factors with their corresponding commonalities represent the proportion of the variance per factor. Is the result of the square of each factorial weight which, in sum, is the total of the variance obtained of 80.10 % that explains the phenomenon under study (table 8).

4.3. Second result with rotated component matrix

Now we can see in the table 9 that, the component matrix is made up by two components: one that integrates the five grouped variables (ANXTE, ANXTT, ANXTUMP, ANXTNMO, and ANXTMSDL) and another in which only identifies the variable ANXTMS (0.680). However with the extraction method (Principal component analysis) and with the rotation method (Varimax Normalization with Kaiser), we may observed in table 10 that the rotated component matrix presents five factors, being ANXTMSDL (0.933) the largest factor load and (ANXTT 0.626) the factor that has a lower factor load.

Table 9. Component matrix(a)

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
ANXTT	.939				
ANXTNMO	.937				
ANXTE	.929				
ANXTUMP	.922				
ANXTMSDL	.729	.680			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis (a5 extracted component, only two with factorial weigh >.5)
Source: own

Table 10. Rotated component matrix [a]

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
ANXTE	.794				
ANXTMSDL		.933			
ANXTUMP			.779		
ANXTNMO				.718	
ANXTT	.522				.626

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
[a] Rotation converges in 5 interactions.
Source: own

Finally, in table 11 we can observe the percentage of variance obtained after rotation of components. The three columns of Total Variance Explained show the most important information about this chart that we may interpret as follows:

The first and second columns: show one factor (components) according to eigenvalue criterion. That is, the analysis assumes that the 24 original variables of Muñoz and Mato-Vázquez (2007) instrument can be reduced to 1 underlying factor. That is, the number of components selected has been determined by the Kaiser criterion. The initial eigenvalues and extraction sums of squared loadings show one component that explains 80.10 % of the variance in the data. The third column denominated Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings of rotation show the five factors, but only three are greater than 1, thus, under eigenvalue criterion (>1) these factors explains 70.37 % of the total variance.

Table 11. Total Variance explained

Compo-nent	Initial eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings of rotation		
	Total	Total	% of Variance	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.005	80.091	80.091	4.005	80.091	80.091	1.250	25.007	25.007
2	.559	11.185	91.276	.559	11.185	91.276	1.201	24.014	49.021
3	.178	3.560	94.836	.178	3.560	94.836	1.068	21.351	70.372
4	.157	3.140	97.976	.157	3.140	97.976	.872	17.444	87.816
5	.101	2.024	100.000	.101	2.024	100.000	.609	12.184	100.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis
Source: own

5. Discussion and conclusion

As we can see, in table 7 we show the extracted component of the five variables grouped, being Anxiety toward temporality (ANXTT 0.939) the factor with the highest factor load, followed by the factor Anxiety towards numbers and mathematical operations (ANXTNMO 0.937), Anxiety towards evaluation (ANXTE 0.929), Anxiety towards the understanding of mathematical problems (ANXTUMP 0.922) and finally, with less load factor, Anxiety towards mathematical situations in daily-life (ANXTMSDL 0.729). These factors with their corresponding commonalities represent the proportion of the variance per factor. Is the result of the square of each factorial weight which, in

sum, is the total of the variance obtained of 80.10 % that explains the phenomenon under study (table 8).

However, with the extraction method (PCA) and with the rotation method (Varimax Normalization with Kaiser), it can be observed in table 10 that the rotated component matrix presents five factors, being ANXTMSDL (0.933) the largest factor load, which suggests that the profile of the medical student, generates greater anxiety when faced with operations in daily life and (ANXTT 0.626) the factor that has a lower factor load, which leads us to think that anxiety towards the temporality of assessments or exams is not present, perhaps because in the curriculum of the career are not integrated into the curriculum grid.

Furthermore, in the rotated component matrix (table 10) one component show two measures (ANXTE 0.794 and ANXTT 0.522) which represent in sum, the largest factor load, which suggest that the medical student generates greater anxiety when faced with evaluation and temporality.

After analysis carry out, we may say that the factors: Anxiety towards evaluation, Anxiety towards temporality, Anxiety towards the understanding of mathematical problems, Anxiety towards numbers and mathematical operations, Anxiety towards mathematical situations in daily-life help us to understand the student's anxiety toward mathematics. The findings are consistent with Muñoz and Mato-Vázquez (2007), whose are seminal authors of the scale used in this work. In support of the formerly, the empirical studies carried out by García-Santillán, Mato-Vázquez, Escalera-Chávez and Moreno-García (2016), García-Santillán, Mato-Vázquez, Muñoz-Cantero and Ortega (2016), demonstrated that the five factors of the scale, make up a set of latent variables that allow explaining the level of student anxiety.

In their study, they mention that the subject of mathematics could be analyzed from several perspectives: in its contents, in the perception and attitudes of the student, from the teacher's opinion, from the educational system, from the teaching model and the curricula of study, among others. Furthermore, they also point out that in the case of students it is important to consider their needs, their expectations about the usefulness of mathematics in their daily-life and, in their future (García-Santillán et al., 2016).

Nowadays, with globalization a very important need for specialization of the different profiles that companies demand at work, is derived. Therefore, it is necessary to find new forms of teaching and learning process that allow, from the basic levels of education, to stimulate students' interest in developing greater skills and competences in mathematics. As a result, students would be expected to appreciate the broad application of the field of mathematics. Living the learning process with a positive attitude, that generates enjoyment and satisfaction and not frustration or anxiety towards mathematics.

Limitations of study

Since this work focused on measuring the medical student's emotions with respect to mathematics, based on the ideas of seminal authors as Richardson y Suinn (1972), Fenema & Sherman (1976), Tobías (1976), Roberts & Bilderbak (1980), Wigfield & Meece (1988), Alexander y Martray (1989), McCall, Belli & Madjidi (1990), McLeod (1993), Schau, Stevens, Dauphine & Del Vecchio (1995), who concluded that, among other factors, prevail: nerves, stress and even awkwardness in the student who presents anxiety towards Mathematics. Also, they emphasize the need to incorporate the affective side in the analysis in order to have a broader view to understand the complexity of the subject.

It is also a great limitation, since, in the application of the instrument, the student could be a certain state of mind. For example, if the exams date is near, the students react in a different way, this, from some opinions expressed by the students when the survey, was applied.

However, these scales have shown very significant psychometric properties from their design and later, in their application in several studies that have replicated them.

Final remarks

Finally, we may say that the research question is answered and the objective is achieved, since, there is a set of latent variables that explain the phenomenon studied, based on the five dimensions of the scale designed by Muñoz and Mato-Vázquez (2007). The five dimensions show significant factor loading under the latent root criterion > 1. This contributes to the total variance explained (80.09 %) of the phenomenon studied.

Likewise, with the hypothesis test carried out, each one of the factors showed significant factor loads, which makes it possible identify the factor that most contributes to the total explained variance of the phenomenon under study, being, "Anxiety towards mathematical situations in daily-life ANXTMSDL (0.933)" the largest. This allows demonstrating hypothesis H5, consequently H1 to H4 are not the ones that more explain the variance, although, contribute of very significant way.

Relevance of finding

Probably the most significant finding that we report in this study is the polarity of the factors that showed the highest and lowest load factor, respectively. ANXTMSDL (0.933) the largest factor load, which suggests that the profile of the medical student, generates greater anxiety when faced with operations in daily life and (ANXTT 0.626) the factor that has a lower factor load, which leads us to think that anxiety towards the temporality of assessments or exams is not present, perhaps because, in the curriculum of the career, the topics of mathematics are not integrated into the curriculum.

Acknowledges

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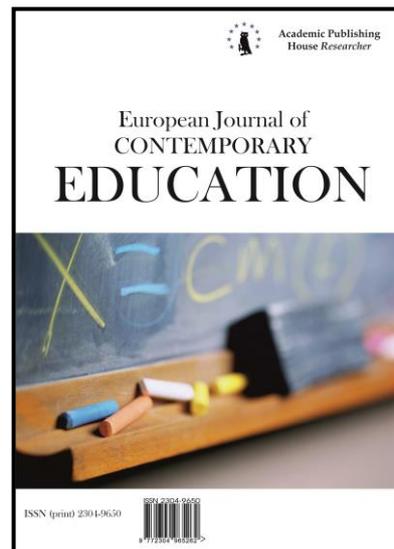
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Suggestions for Problems Faced in Basic Language Skills by University Students Learning Turkish in Kazakhstan

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Abstract

This study reveals suggestions of Kazakh students for solving the problems in learning Turkish as a foreign language in the Turkish language skills in universities in Kazakhstan. The research has been prepared in order to assist in the search for solutions to the problems by way of these suggestions. The study group of this work consists of 25 males and 15 females who studied Turkish in 2016–2017 at Suleyman Demirel University in Kazakhstan. The research consists of four chapters on the Turkish language skills, including seven suggestion sentences list in each chapter. A total of 28 Likert-type questionnaires were used, as well as semi-open questions, in which students can express their suggestions for solving problems in language skills in written form. To carry quantitative data analysis obtained from Likert-type questionnaires both descriptive and inferential statistical methods were used. In particular, frequency analysis and t-test were used. Qualitative data analysis techniques were used to study the semi-open questions. As a result of the research, when the ratios of the proposals for the solution of the problems that the participants faced in basic Turkish language skills are examined, the following results arise. In reading-comprehension, 75 % of the students said, "Interesting materials should be used in lessons", "Teachers should help students when they are difficult" was chosen with a rate of 77.5 % in speaking skills, "Listening activities should be selected from interesting topics" was chosen by 67.5 % of students about listening skills, with 67.5 % of the writing skills, "The students should be corrected and shown to themselves", and "Books of different types should be read frequently" are suggested with the highest values. Except for few items t-test shows the signifiacnt (p<0.05) results.

Keywords: teaching Turkish to Turkish natives, Kazakhstan, Problems in Teaching Turkish, Turkish Language Skills, Suggestions for Solutions.

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1. Introduction

Today, teaching Turkish as a foreign language has an important place in Turkish education. The foreign languages that people already have are making them more valuable. For this reason, states and individuals are very sensitive about foreign language teaching and learning. States and people who have realized that the greatest investment is human and human development have always been a few steps ahead and will continue to do so.

In the century we are in, the area where the Turkic people are spoken is getting bigger. With this expansion, there has also been an increase in the demand for people to learn Turkish (Ünlü, 2011). Turkish, which is a language that nations desire to learn, still maintains the language to be learned by foreigners (Biçer et al., 2014: 126). It is known that the Northern Ice Sea, the north of India, the inner parts of China, an area of about 12 million km² to cover the extreme points of Europe, 220 million people there speak Turkish (Akalın, 2009).

In order to meet the increasing demands for learning Turkish, a great deal of effort is being made by various institutions and organizations both at home and abroad. Previously, teaching Turkish to foreigners was done for the foreign students coming to Turkey but as the years go by these activities have started to shift abroad and Turkish, which is the carrier of Turkish history and Turkish culture, has now begun to be taught, especially in the Turkic Republics in the 1990s. According to Gücüyeter and Veyis (2013), teachimg Turkish to our compatriots' community, It constitutes a branch of teaching Turkish and this issue became even more important as it came to the present day. Especially, with the collapse of the USSR, Turkey began to contact with a lot of Turkish communities. It has a strategic importance for Turkey to show the necessary sensitivity in teaching Turkish people of these countries which have a lot in common in terms of values we have.

A large part of the activities carried out in the Turkic Republics in order to teach Turkish as a foreign language constitute educational activities carried out in Kazakhstan. Because Turkey and Kazakhstan are two tribal states with the same religious values, language, customs and traditions, with the same continental place (Nogayeva, 2007). Turkish teaching activities carried out in Kazakhstan today have reached very large groups of people. Through these activities, many compatriots have learned Turkish and continue to learn.

Among foreign and domestic institutions teaching Turkish to foreigners, there are cultural centers, Turkology centers, academies, associations, institutes, foundations, private schools and public schools, colleges, private courses, embassies and language teaching centers located in universities. While some of them are official, some operate as private enterprises (Dolunay, 2005). With the start of teaching a broad mass of Turkish language in the world, the issue of how to teach Turkish language more actively has become important. As a result, there has been a significant increase in applied studies in teaching Turkish as a foreign language (Yoğurtçu, 2009).

According to Demirel (1999: 31), the teaching of Turkish to Turkish compatriots; language teaching is carried out on the basis of the functional integrity of the four basic skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing). On the other hand, it would be appropriate to talk about the attitudes of understanding and speaking about the use of four basic language skills in language teaching. Comprehension is related to reading and listening skills and speaking and writing skills. Reading and writing activities are carried out through written language and listening and speaking activities are carried out through oral language. In the process of language teaching, while speaking skills are developed first after listening, the other side should endeavor to develop writing skills after reading skills (Chairman, 2006: 55-56).

For a long time, both domestic and abroad studies on teaching Turkish have brought up some problems. Various researches have been put forward on the subject and on the solution of these problems (Açık, 2008; Ahmetbeyoğlu, 2007; Alyılmaz, 2010; Arslan, Adem, 2010; Aydın, 1994a; Aydın, 1994b; Barın, 2004; Biçer et al., 2014; Büyükaslan, 2007; Canan, Karababa, 2009; Çotuksöken, 1983; Demir, Açık, 2011; Derman, 2010; Doğan, 1989; Dolunay, 2005; Emiroğlu, 2014; Er et al., 2012; Erdoğan, 2015; Göçer, 2009; İsmail, 2000; İşcan, 2011; Kara, 2011; Köse, 2004; Mavaşoğlu, Tüm, 2010; Öksüz, 2011; Özbal, 2012; Özyürek, 2009; Tosun, 2005; Turumbetova, 2013, Ünlü, 2011; Yağmur, 2006; Yılmaz, 2015; Yüce, 2005). The researches have helped to identify many different problems in teaching Turkish to foreigners. Determining these problems and revealing their solutions is a great way to teach Turkish. The fact that the steps taken in the name of solution of the problems encountered in teaching Turkish to the compatriots are faster and depend on the fact that the solutions are consistent and realistic. Students who are

facing problems in teaching Turkish with foreigners are students. In this respect, it is worth checking out the opinions and recommendations of the students for the solution of the problems. This study is important in terms of putting forward the opinions and suggestions of the students in the solution of the problems that arise in the Turkish language skills during the teaching Turkish in Kazakhstan.

1.1. Purpose and Scope of the Study

Kazakhstan is one of the countries where foreign language teaching is made with dedication. The determination of the steps to be taken in the name of solving the problems arising in the teaching of Turkish in Kazakhstan is very important for the teaching of Turkish in this region. The good intentions of the students and teachers are not enough to overcome problems. Some concrete steps should be taken in this regard. A plan, schedule and synthesis should be made for these steps to be dispatched. Foreigners need to investigate the reasons for the problems in teaching Turkish after the problems are identified. Reasons brought about in a healthy way bring with it certain responsibilities. In this respect, the problems are hardly detected by finding the sources of the problems. An important step is to identify the proposals that can be reached as a result of correct and consistent steps taken in the name of eliminating these factors that are the source of the problems. The purpose of the work is based on these suggestions. In the study, proposals were taken from the people who learned Turkish and the suggestions taken from them about the solution of the troubles they lived in Turkic language skills. The ratios of the proposals in terms of the obtained data were evaluated and the ideas put forward in the name of solution of the problems were presented.

In line with the aim of the study, the following questions were sought to be answered.

a. What are the proposals for the solution of the problems that Turkish learners have experienced in Turkish language skills?

b. In addition to the solutions suggested in the questionnaire, which suggestions can solve the problems?

2. Method

This section contains the method of study, the study group, the collection of data and analysis of data.

2.1. Research Method

Qualitative and quantitative methods have been utilized in order to determine and present the participants' thoughts in the research. These two research methods are being used together in social sciences and humanities, and this method is getting widespread day by day. This method which connects quantitative and qualitative researches is called mixed method (Tunalı et al., 2016: 107). In mixed-method research, researchers are expected to bring together both qualitative and quantitative methods, approaches, and concepts within one or more studies (Creswell, 2003, Tashakkori, Teddlie, 1998).

Student questionnaire was used to collect data in the study. According to Yıldırım (1999), quantitative research methods that are used most commonly in traditional sense in both science and social sciences; are shown in different patterns like experimental and comparative research, survey researches. The data obtained through the student questionnaire used for the formation of the research and for the collection of the data were analyzed using qualitative research techniques and content analysis techniques and quantitative research techniques using frequency analysis techniques. The survey also provided semi-structured questionnaires to make additions to the proposal.

As mentioned before, Likert scale type questionnare was used to conduct quantitative analysis. We used the follwing ranges: -2=strongly disagree, -1=disagree, 0=neutral, 1=agree, 2=strongly agree. To analyse the findings both descriptive and inferential statistical methods were used. In the interpretation, the statistical t-test is utilized.

2.2. Study group

The research was conducted with 40 students with A2 language level who studied Turkish at the Faculty of Engineering at Suleyman Demirel University in Kazakhstan in 2016–2017 academic years. The sample was made available for easy reachability in the study. Yıldırım and Şimşek

(2008) stated that the researcher chooses cases where this is the case of the situation and where the researcher can easily access. This method influences the speed of research in a positive way and increases its practicality. This method is more cost-effective than other methods. However, the results obtained in this sampling method are less generalized.

25 of the respondents are male and 15 are female students. In addition, 95 % of the participants are Kazakh students. The reason why students with level A2 as main in the research are preferred is because of the thought that the experience of two years of learning Turkish as a foreign language at university level in Kazakhstan and the suggestions they will express against the problems will reflect the reality more.

2.3. Collection of Data

A Likert-type questionnaire was prepared in order to obtain data in the research and to determine their own suggestions for solving the problems that Kazakh students encountered while learning Turkish. The questionnaires used in the research were prepared by examining the studies conducted in the field of teaching Turkish as a foreign language, taking the judgments reported and the suggestions in these studies and taking the opinions of teachers working in teaching Turkish. Kazakh translations have also been written beside the expressions in order to fully understand the Turkish expressions and suggestions. The questionnaire comes in four parts. While the data were collected, 7 suggestions were put under each skill to solve the problems experienced in Turkish language skills. In the 5-point Likert-type questionnaire in which a total of 28 suggestion statements were included, the options of *Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree, Strongly agree* were used. However, at the end of each chapter, there are also semi-open-ended questions that will enable the participants to write the proposals they want to add to the solution of the problems in the language skills. The solution proposed in the questionnaire led to the inclusion of semi-open-ended questions in the research that could not exactly reflect students' thoughts. It was stated that the identities of the students who want to participate in the research in the survey conducted on the basis of voluntarism are kept secret and it is stated that it is not obligatory to specify the name at the stage of completing the questionnaire. The questionnaire prepared in this way was electronically prepared and opened to the participation of the students.

2.4. Analysis of Data

In the analysis of the data obtained because of the research having a mixed method, the content analysis technique from the qualitative research data analysis techniques and the frequency analysis technique from the quantitative research techniques were used. Content analysis aims to provide the basically obtained data to explainable and related concepts. The process carried out on the basis of this analysis is to arrange and interpret similar data around certain concepts and themes and to interpret them in such a way that readers can understand them (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2008: 227). Content analysis technique is a systematic and repeaFigure technique in which some words of a text are summarized with smaller content categories with the help of codes with certain rules (Büyüköztürk et al., 2012: 240).

The obtained data are given in tabular form. The frequency analyzes of the proposals were made while the Figures were being created. Frequency analysis is, in the simplest case, to reveal how often the quantities of the registers appear quantitatively. The units to be counted are expressed in the frequency type if the data to be analyzed is aimed at counting how often the message elements are seen. These operations help to understand the intensities and significance of certain items. In terms of frequency analysis, the obtained elements, concepts can be sorted according to importance and classified according to their frequency (Bilgin, 2006, Köhler, Stemmler, 1997, Lienert, Oeveste, 1985, Martinmäki, Rusko, 2008). The frequency and percentage distributions calculated by the Excel program are interpreted. Some encodings were made in the presentation of the data obtained by questionnaire in the form of Figures. These codes and their use are as follows:

K1, K2, K3, …: The coding used in the Figure refers to the students participating in the survey (the expressions for coding in Figures are from different students, but this is the order in which they are arranged).

A., B., C., D.: Used to indicate the order of the chapter headings that appear above the suggestion statements in the Figures.

The recommendations of the students for the problems encountered in the teaching of foreign language to foreigners were interpreted taking into consideration the frequency distributions and percentage ratios. Percentages were used for the purpose of understanding the importance of the proposals. At the bottom of each Figure in the study, students are presented with expressions expressing their thoughts on behalf of the solution of the problems experienced in Turkish language skills. In the process of submitting these statements, the spelling mistakes in students' statements have been corrected.

3. Results
The findings obtained in this part of the study were presented in the form of the individual suggestions of the participants and the ratios of participants' responses to the questionnaire.

3.1. Descriptive statistics and qualitative analysis
This section contains the percentage distributions of the answers that the Turkish learners give to the proposal on behalf of the solution of the problems. However, the data in the Figures have been made understandable by interpretation.

The frequency distributions of the answers given by the university students in Kazakhstan to the proposal for the solution of the problems they have experienced in reading comprehension skill in the basic language skills and their proposals for the solution of the problems are also presented in Figure 1.
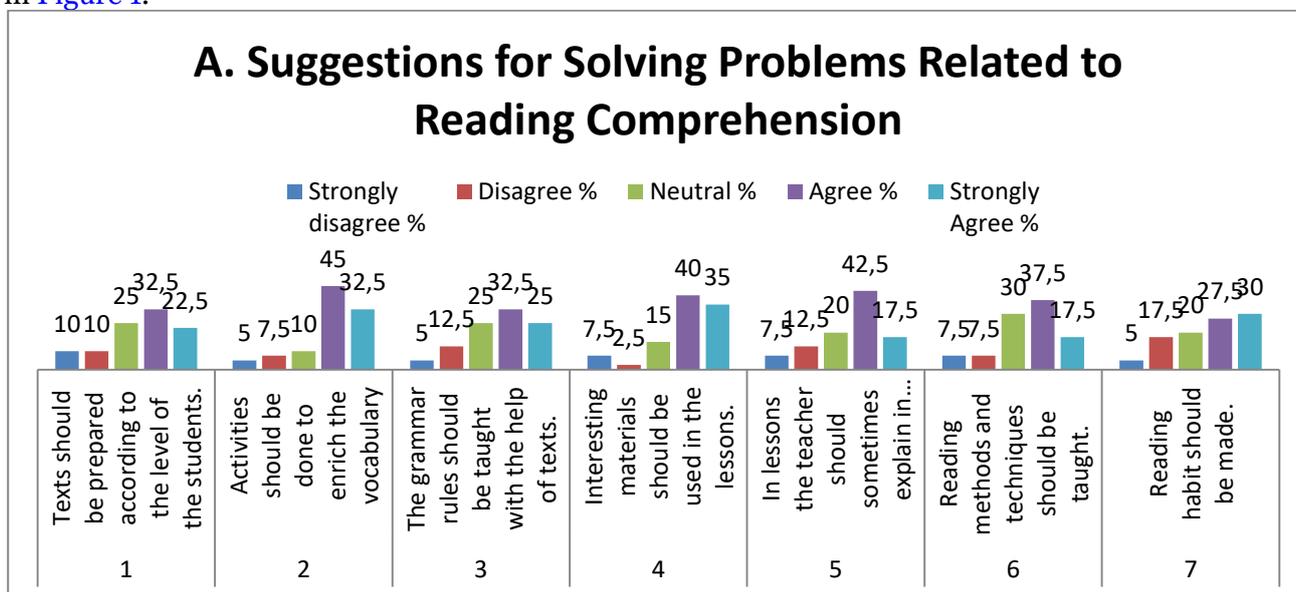
Fig. 1. Percentage Distributions of Proposals and Proposals for Resolving the Problems of the Learners Related to the Reading-Comprehension Ability of the Students

What are your other ideas for solving the problems you encounter in reading comprehension skills?

K1: In lessons, the teacher should sometimes describe in Russian or English. K2: More study is needed. K3: There is no suggestion in this regard.

When we look at Figure 1, which shows the data about the proposals of the students participating in the questionnaire for the solution of the problems they have experienced in reading and understanding the Turkish language, students have pointed out the phrase "Interesting materials should be used in the lessons" at the rate of 75 % for solving problems. Then they think that the applications included in the expressions "Teachers sometimes have to explain in Kazakh in the lessons" at a rate of 60 % "Activities to enrich the vocabulary should be done" can solve the problems of reading-comprehension with the responses of 72.5 % of the participants. The 55 % recommendation of "Reading methods and techniques should be taught" is the least accepted solution. In the last part of this section, it is possible to see further assessments of students in the solution of the problems of reading-comprehension.

The frequency distributions of the answers given to the proposal for the solution of the problems related to speaking skills included in the basic language skills of the participants of the survey and their proposals for the solution of the problems are also presented in Figure 2.
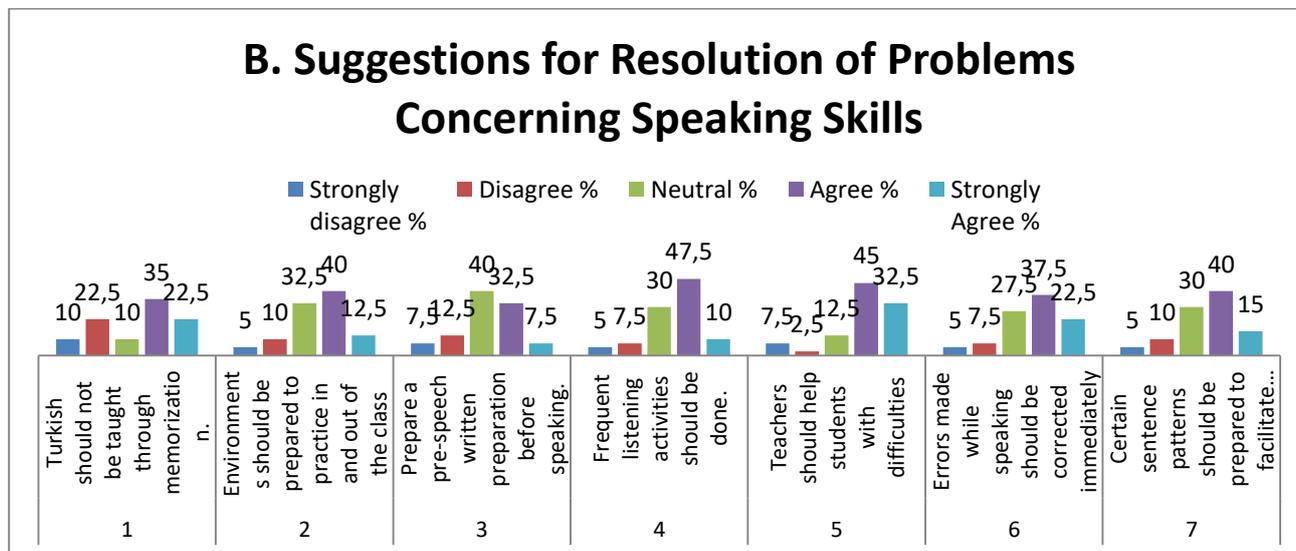
Fig. 2. Percentage Distributions of Proposals and Suggestions for Resolving the Problems Encountered Related to Speaking Ability of Students

What are your other ideas for solving the problems you face in speaking skills?

K1: We need to practice more in this regard. K2: The teacher should speak slowly and ask questions slowly. K3: I need to watch more Turkish serials/soap operas. K4: There are no suggestions. K5: Students should not behave as if they know how to speak Turkish. K6: There is no idea in this regard.

The above tablature, in which the participants' suggestions for solutions to the problems they have experienced in speaking Turkish, was presented with the statement "Teachers should help students with difficulties" with a maximum of 77.5 % in the name of solving problems. Then they think that the applications included in the expressions "Errors made while talking should be corrected immediately" with the ratio of 60 % and "Listening activities should be done frequently" and "Turkish should not be taught through memorization" with the ratio of 57.5 % should solve the problems in speaking skills. The suggestion of "Prepare a pre-speech written preparation before speaking", which is about 40 % in this section, has been the least accepted solution. In the last part of Figure 2, there are additional assessments that students have made in solving problems experienced in speaking skills. When compared to other segments, this was the section where students offered the most additional suggestions. It is thought that students are having difficulty in speaking the most in basic Turkish language skills.

The frequency distributions of the answers given by the participants to the proposal for the solution of the problems they have with the listening skills in the basic language skills and their own suggestions for solving the problems are presented in Figure 3.
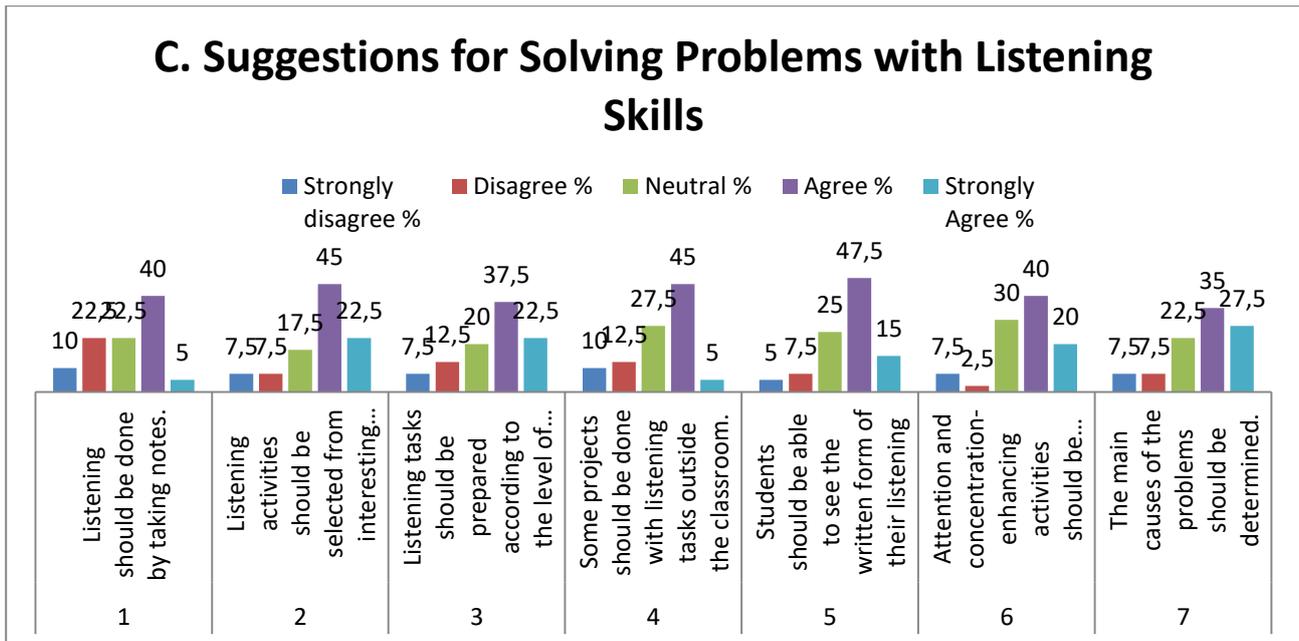
Fig. 3. Percentage Distributions of Proposals and Suggestions for Resolving the Problems of the Learners Related to Listening Skills

What are your other ideas for solving the problems you encounter in your listening ability?

K1: You need to listen a lot. K2: Those who want to learn more should be taught. K3: No idea.

When we look at Figure 3 which shows the data about the proposals for solution of the problems of university students who are learning Turkish as a foreign language, the students have pointed out the phrase "Listening activities should be selected from interesting topics" at the rate of 67.5% for the solution of the problems. Later on, participants stated that "Students should be able to see the written form of what they listen to" and "The main causes of the problems should be determined" with 62.5%, 60% of the respondents think that the applications " Listening tasks should be prepared according to the level of the students " and "Attention and concentration-enhancing activities should be undertaken" should solve the problems of listening ability. The recommendation of "Listening should be done by taking notes", which is about 45 % of this section, is the least accepted solution. At the end of Figure 3, the participants also include recommendations for this section.

The frequency distributions of the answers given by the students to the proposal to solve the problems related to the writing skills in the basic language skills and their suggestions for the solution of the problems are presented in Figure 4.
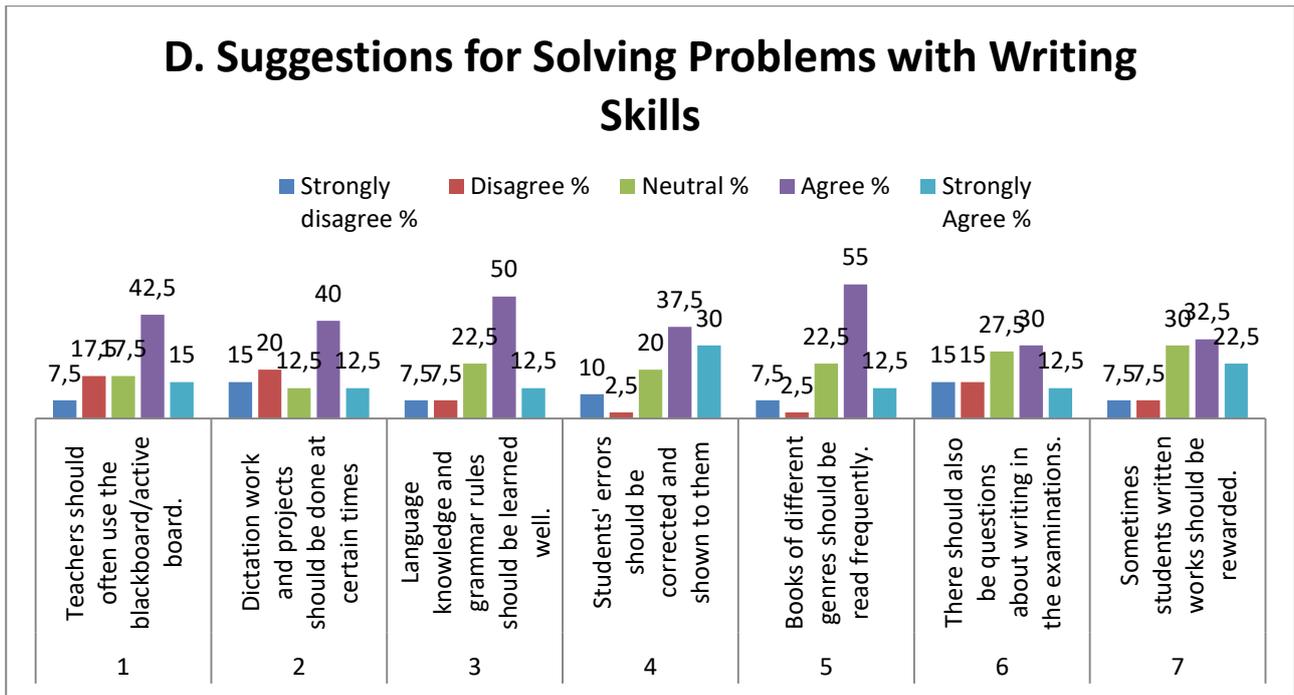
Figure 4. Percentage Distributions of Proposals and Suggestions for Resolving the Problems Faced Related to the Writing Skills of the Students

What are your other ideas for solving your problems in writing skills?

K1: I need to do dictation work. K2: I do not know. K3: Teachers need to communicate with students according to their language level and keep it simple.

When we look at Figure 4, which shows the data about the proposals for solving the problems of the students who participated in the questionnaire on the Turkish writing ability, the students pointed out the statements of "Students' errors should be corrected and shown to them" and "The books of the different genres should be read frequently" with the rate of 67.5 % for the solution of the problems. Later on, the participants thought that the "Language knowledge and grammar rules should be learned well" with the ratio of 62.5 % and the applications which expresses "Teachers should use the board often" with 57.5 % would solve the problem of writing ability. In the 42.5 % of this section, the question "There should be questions about writing in the examinations" is the least accepted solution. In the last part of the above Figure, it is also possible to see the sentences containing their own ideas for solving the problems experienced in the participants' listening ability.

3.2. Inferential statistics

In this subsection we interpret the findings using one-tailed, one-sample statistical t-test. All calculations are found using Ms Excel. Recall that in Likert scale we used the follwing ranges: -2=strongly disagree, -1=disagree, 0=neutral, 1=agree, 2=strongly agree. We study statistical hypotheis test. In all of the analysis, our standing null hypothesis H_0 will be that population (test statistic) **mean** of 40 realizations (40 student answers) is 0 (neutral). On the other hand, since all of the means are nonnegative, we set our alternative hypothesis H_1 to be that the population mean for each item is positive (affirmative). To test an alternative hypothesis againist the null hypothesis we use one-tailed one-sample t-test. In the following Tables 1-4, we provide statistical hypothesis test results, namely, sample mean, sample standard deviation, t-values, and p-values. The values on the tables are self-explanatory and as such we only brief few points.

Table 1. Percentage Distributions of Proposals and Proposals for Resolving the Problems of the Learners Related to the Reading-Comprehension Ability of the Students

Item No.	Item	Mean	St. Dev.	t-values	p-values
1	Texts should be prepared according to the level of the students.	0.475	1.24009	2.42254	0.01008
2	Activities should be done to enrich the vocabulary	0.925	1.09515	5.34192	2.1E-06
3	The grammar rules should be taught with the help of texts.	0.6	1.15025	3.29905	0.00104
4	Interesting materials should be used in the lessons.	0.925	1.14102	5.12719	4.2E-06
5	In lessons the teacher should sometimes explain in Kazakh.	0.5	1.1547	2.73861	0.00463
6	Reading methods and techniques should be taught.	0.5	1.1094	2.85044	0.00347
7	Reading habit should be made.	0.6	1.23621	3.06966	0.00195

From Table 1, we see that students seem to agree with all of the assertions and results are significant. In fact, except for the first item, all of the above results are very significant ($p < 0.01$).

Table 2. Percentage Distributions of Proposals and Suggestions for Resolving the Problems Encountered Related to Speaking Ability of Students

Item No.	Item	Mean	St. Dev.	t-values	p-values
1	Turkish should not be taught through memorization.	0.375	1.33373	1.77825	0.04158
2	Environments should be prepared to practice in and out of the class	0.45	1.01147	2.81377	0.00382
3	Prepare a pre-speech written preparation before speaking.	0.2	1.01779	1.2428	0.11068
4	Frequent listening activities should be done.	0.5	0.96077	3.2914	0.00106
5	Teachers should help students with difficulties	0.925	1.11832	5.23125	3E-06
6	Errors made while speaking should be corrected immediately	0.65	1.07537	3.82285	0.00023
7	Certain sentence patterns should be prepared to facilitate the conversation.	0.5	1.03775	3.04725	0.00207

In the Table 2, we note that null hypothesis is rejected except for the item "Prepare a pre-speech written preparation before speaking". The rest are very significant ($p < 0.01$) except the first one which is only significant ($0.01 < p < 0.5$).

Table 3. Percentage Distributions of Proposals and Suggestions for Resolving the Problems of the Learners Related to Listening Skills

Item No.	Item	Mean	St. Dev.	t-values	p-values
1	Listening should be done by taking notes.	0.075	1.11832	0.42416	0.33689
2	Listening activities should be selected from interesting topics.	0.675	1.14102	3.74146	0.00029
3	Listening tasks should be prepared according to the level of the students	0.55	1.19722	2.90549	0.00301
4	Some projects should be done with listening tasks outside the classroom.	0.225	1.07387	1.32513	0.09642
5	Students should be able to see the written form of their listening	0.6	1.00766	3.76588	0.00027
6	Attention and concentration-enhancing activities should be undertaken.	0.625	1.07864	3.66466	0.00037
7	The main causes of the problems should be determined.	0.675	1.18511	3.60226	0.00044

In Table 3, we cannot reject the null hypothesis for the assertions "Listening should be done by taking notes" and "Some projects should be done with listening tasks outside the classroom", that is we cannot conclude that students agree to take notes while listening and that some listening tasks should be done outside the classroom. The other items provide very significant cocnlusions ($p < 0.01$).

Table 4. Percentage Distributions of Proposals and Suggestions for Resolving the Problems Faced Related to the Writing Skills of the Students

Item No.	Item	Mean	St. Dev.	t-values	p-values
1	Teachers should often use the blackboard/active board.	0.4	1.17233	2.15794	0.01857
2	Dictation work and projects should be done at certain times	0.15	1.31168	0.72326	0.23692
3	Language knowledge and grammar rules should be learned well.	0.525	1.06187	3.12693	0.00167
4	Students' errors should be corrected and shown to them	0.75	1.21423	3.90652	0.00018
5	Books of different genres should be read frequently.	0.625	1.0048	3.93398	0.00017
6	There should also be questions about writing in the examinations.	0	1.26085	0	0.5
7	Sometimes students written works should be rewarded.	0.55	1.15359	3.01537	0.00225

As for the last Table 4, the items 2 and 6 are inconclusive and the rest are very significant ($p < 0.01$) except for the first which is only significant ($0.01 < p < 0.05$). As notes from the four

tables above, all of the sample means are nonnegative. However, non of them are greater than 1. So, at the best most of the items are agreed by the students, but there is no item which is strongly agreed.

4. Conclusion, Discussion and Suggestions
The authors tried to find out students' suggestions for solving the challenges encountered in imrpoving language skills at Suleyman Demirel University in Kazakhstan while they were learning Turkish. The students' questionnaire was prepared for this purpose and the data about the students' suggestions were obtained. The obtained data were collected under different headings according to the 4 basic language skills of Turkish. Proposals for language skills were presented on Figures along with their percentiles and were given within a system of findings of students' opinions with the help of codes.

As a result of the study, it is possible to mention some conclusions when the answers given by the participants to the proposal are subjected to a general evaluation. To summarize the findings we highlight the items from Likert scale questionnare that are agreed by students with high significant level (p < 0.01).

a. In Reading and Comprehension Skills:
Activities to enrich the vocabulary must be done.
The grammar rules should be taught with the help of texts.
Interesting materials should be used in the lessons.
In lessons the teacher should sometimes explain in Kazakh.
Reading methods and techniques should be taught.
Reading habit should be made.

b. Speaking Skills:
Environments should be prepared to practice in and out of the class
Frequent listening activities should be done.
Teachers should help students with difficulties
Errors made while speaking should be corrected immediately
Certain sentence patterns should be prepared to facilitate the conversation.

c. In Listening Skills:
Listening activities should be selected from interesting topics
Listening tasks should be prepared according to the level of the students
Students should be able to see the written form of their listening
Attention and concentration-enhancing activities should be undertaken.
The main causes of the problems should be determined.

d. In Writing Skills:
Language knowledge and grammar rules should be learned well.
Students' errors should be corrected and shown to them
Books of different genres should be read frequently.
Sometimes students written works should be rewarded.

It is also necessary to consider the following proposals, which include their own personal considerations, in addition to the suggestions that students have marked in the questionnaire applied.
• In lessons the teacher should sometimes also speak in Russian or English.
• More study is needed.
• It is necessary to practice more in the field of speaking skills.
• The teacher needs to speak slowly and ask questions slowly.
• Turkish serials/soap operas need to be watched more.
• Students should not behave as if they know how to speak Turkish.
• You need to listen a lot.
Those who want to learn more should be taught.

• Dictation work needs to be done.

• Teachers need to communicate with students according to their language level and keep it simple.

The ability of people to learn language and the desire they have are different. The situation is also the same for Turkish. The differences in the situation among the countries is related to the popularity of the country where the Turkish is taught stems from the distance-closeness situation of the language structures of the people in that country. The position of countries, culture, religion and so on are directly or indirectly influencing the learning of the foreign language of the people of that country (Arslan, Adem, 2010). For example; it can not be expected that the desires, problems and abilities of a Bosnian in order to learn the Turkish language of a Kazakhstan are the same. These differences need to identify some needs and meet those needs. Meeting the needs is also in close relation with knowing the feelings and thoughts of the interlocutors.

The method of cognitive learning is based on the principle that learners are consciously learning together with the rules, and instead of habits and conditioning, language learning is considered as a creative process, with the aim of developing four basic skills equally (Demirel, 1999: 47-48). As stated in this method of Demirel's definition, language skills need to be developed together. Because the skills complement each other. It should not be forgotten that suggestions for all skills are important when assessing students' recommendations.

The greatest challenge for Kazakh students in learning Turkish is thr expression of the same voices in Cyrillic and Latin alphabets in different letters (İsmail, 2000: 47). In this respect, teachers need to be more careful when teaching letters written differently but pronounced in the same way with letters written in the same way but pronounced differently.

Suggestions for students about reading skills include using interesting materials, expressions as need to make activities that enrich the vocabulary. For this, learners can take advantage of activities such as transforming words into groups of words or turning them into sentences from the point of view of learning what the language possesses (Songün, 1999: 21). Moreover, in the language teaching, it is necessary to teach the subjects from simple to complex, concrete to abstract (Demirel, 1999: 31). In order to solve the problems in the reading skills, the readers need to memorize the thoughts to be given in the texts they read, the concept of the ties in their texts, make a comparison with them and take the necessary parts in memory, just like the listeners do. The texts used for the development of reading skills will be considered to have reached this purpose (Adalı, 1982: 33).

According to the students, it is necessary to include listening activities frequently in the solution of problems in speaking skills. It is necessary to increase their emphasis on the words that come into play especially from the voices close to each other at the time of the oral expression activities (Songün, 1999: 26-27). Turkish should not be taught by memorization as it is highly marked in the proposals. The voices and structures that cause the problem between the target language and the students' mother tongue should be emphasized sensitively (Demirel, 1999: 34). With the help of interlocutor and dictation studies, the songs should be taught in this way and the words should be taught and written in such a way that the songs should be taught and understood by the students well (Demirel, 1999: 124). During the teaching of Turkic, voice and voice groups should be taught to students in all aspects by using the technique of simulation in the development of speaking skill and reading skills (Coşkun, 2006: 67).

In the name of solving the problems arising in speaking ability; the best foreign language teacher, the teacher who speaks the students the most (Demirel, 1999: 32). At the same time, in order to make classroom learning more permanent (Demirel, 1999: 83), as well as in the proposals from students, that students should not behave as if they know the Turkish language, that the selected examples should be from everyday life and that they can use the information they learn.

Of course, the problem of listening skill, which is one of the other language skills of Turkish, is undoubtedly due to the abundant amount of listening activity. For this reason, the use of language laboratories for students' use frequently provides great benefits in the teaching of Turkish language in terms of the ease of listening and exercising (Chairman, 2006: 87). When it is considered that the Listening activities should be selected from interesting topics, it is very important that the listening texts to be selected in this context are interesting and that the students are selected according to their levels. In general, listening is a passive situation. But in order for communication to be more healthy,

listeners need to be as responsible as they speak (Adalı, 1982: 31). For this reason, listeners should also include live information in order to keep the audience alive.

It is a fact that the writing of the Turkish is quite consistent, even though there are some differences between the pronunciation and writing of the Turkish (Demircan, 2005: 172). In this respect, students' errors should be corrected immediately, as is the most marked suggestion for solving the problems of students in writing skills. It is necessary for the students to correct mistakes, in particular to correct the mistakes made during the examinations and to correct these mistakes (Demircan, 2005: 104). Another recommendation for students' writing skills is that teachers frequently use the Figure. Demirel (1999: 140-141) used the following expressions in support of this suggestion: In the course of writing instruction, the teacher must make the following statements in order, specifying the words and patterns related to the subject, and making some statements about the subject. At the same time, the first paragraph should be written on the board with the contributions of the students, and with some questions the students should be able to think about the topic.

Teachers should also frequently apply the recommendation which is dictation studies, which are among student recommendations, should also be made in writing skills. Guided writing (dictation, dictated composition, etc.), controlled writing and free writing activities should be done taking into account the characteristics of the student group (Demirel, 1999: 143-144). Hengirmen (1990) describes the abstract voices learned through speech about dictation as bringing them into concrete form by writing; Öz (2011) described dictation as a way to check how well written words were spelled correctly. By having reading and writing skills, especially in contemporary societies; it is possible to meet basic learning needs, to keep learning, to adapt to contemporary social order, to be a functional member of the living community and to regulate living conditions (Belet, 2008).

It is necessary to prepare the plans, programs and materials to be prepared in order to provide quality in Turkish teaching activities to foreigners and to take into consideration the special situations of the countries and the individuals in the countries where the solutions will be implemented. Since the students are the people who know the troubles experienced while learning Turkish, they should be highly valued in their behaviors in order to solve the problems in Turkish language skills. The important thing is to know the point of view of students and their thoughts. Because Turkish teachers and other teachers should act on their level of comprehension rather than on their level of knowledge. In this respect, the thinking of the other party is a very important guide that will guide the level teachers. In Kazakhstan, the teachers who are teaching and teaching Turkish to foreigners need to do the activities of teaching Turkish without ignoring the suggestion put forward in the research. On the other hand, the situation of different groups of students should be analyzed and concrete steps should be taken in order to solve the problems. Proposals that are not applied remain only in the knowledge and do not make much sense.

5. Acknowledgement

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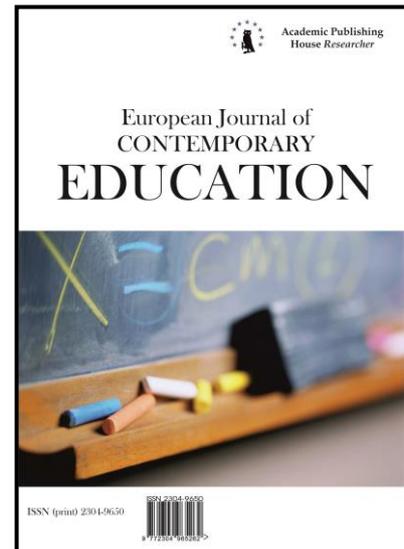Yoğurtçu, 2009 – *Yoğurtçu, K.* (2009). Türkçenin Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğretiminde "Mikro Öğretim Tekniği": Kırgızistan - Türkiye Manas Üniversitesi Hazırlık Sınıflarında Karşılaştırmalı Bir Çalışma. *Dil Dergisi*, 146 p. (Ekim-Kasım-Aralık 2009).

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Specific Features of Vocational Education and Training of Engineering Personnel for High-Tech Businesses

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Abstract

The article outlines the main approaches (person-centered, systemic, competency-based and integrative) in vocational education and training of engineering personnel for high-tech industries based on the analysis of academic research and practical experience. Vocational training of engineering personnel for high-tech businesses should be conducted in accordance with the professional requirements, while keeping professional standards, competencies, skills and qualifications in sharp focus to ensure successful and efficient job performance.

The conducted research showed that the level of professional competence of engineering students is insufficient. The important personal attributes of an engineer are as follows: ability to work in a team, work initiative, competence, ability to learn fast, responsibility, good communication skills, stress resistance, leadership qualities, commitment to professional development. The vocational training of engineers in the academic setting should be a system of organizational and teaching activities that should enable the graduates to be professionally ready for their future job.

Keywords: vocational education, engineering education, engineering personnel, educational standards, professional development, students, training, personal and professional approach, system, competence, integration.

1. Introduction

Nowadays, the countries that are able to make breakthrough advances and expand them into the modern technological base have become the leaders of the global development process. The training of engineering personnel is one of the underlying factors of the country's global competitiveness and serves as a basis for its social and economic development. Russia's ongoing transition to an innovation-based economy, the development of modern information technology,

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the creation of human-machine systems have been determining current engineering in a new way. There has been a growing need in our country for new engineering personnel ready to actively participate in innovative processes and solve professional engineering tasks (Strategiya...).

It is impossible to implement an innovative society-oriented model in Russia without developing an adequate system of vocational education for engineering personnel. The system of vocational education should be based on the Federal State Educational Standards for Higher Education in the relevant fields of study and requirements from the employers, meaning the vocational standards that came into effect on January 1, 2017. They are based on the requirements for the engineer's qualifications and include job functions, job activities, special skills and level of knowledge (Professional standards).

In recent years, the Ministry of Education and Science of Russia has increased funding the admission to higher education institutions for applicants to the technical degree programs at the expense of state budget. Technical degrees are once again becoming more popular among the applicants. However, despite the measures taken, the demand for engineering personnel is not fully met, both in numbers and quality. Every day the development of all industrial sectors and communication sector places new demands on the level of engineers' vocational education. Nowadays, the emerging innovation-based economy in Russia requires highly skilled professionals with creative and innovative potential.

In our opinion, a system of vocational engineering education that would teach future engineers in high-tech industries to anticipate the potential issues and adapt accordingly is the key to solving this problem.

Amurskaya Oblast has an important geopolitical significance and a remarkable potential in terms of natural resources. The support of the federal center has attracted here large-scale projects, with many of them being actively implemented at the moment. To name a few key investment projects – the commissioning of the ground-based space infrastructure facilities of the Vostochny spaceport (Svobodnensky district), the construction of the "Power of Siberia" gas trunkline with technical support services, the construction of the largest gas processing complex in Russia (Gazprom, city of Svobodny) and the gas chemical plant (SIBUR, city of Svobodny), the construction of a production plant for the cement clinker (Berezovka village), the construction of a motorway bridge between the Russian Federation and the People's Republic of China in the city of Blagoveshchensk, commissioning Nizhne-Bureyskaya Hydro Power Plant etc. (Plutenko, 2017).

High-tech industries include aerospace industry, tool engineering, microbiology, nanotechnology, power industry, IT, etc. Vocational training of engineering personnel for those industries requires the systematization of modern approaches to the academic training at the university.

The high-tech companies located in Amurskaya Oblast include the Vostochny spaceport – the first civilian spaceport in Russia, the Bureyskaya and Nizhne-Bureyskaya HPPs, gas processing plants, etc.

In order to operate properly, those companies require highly qualified specialists – next generation of engineers who are able to introduce and execute new ideas, develop projects with cutting edge technology and new types of equipment, those who demonstrate modern knowledge and practical engineering skills and capable of continually improving their professional level.

At the Amur State University we provide vocational education and training for the engineering personnel for our strategic partner – the Center for Ground-Based Space Infrastructure Operation (FSUE "TsENKI") – in order to complete the Vostochny spaceport project in Amurskaya Oblast. TsENKI is one of the key enterprises in the aerospace industry. The company specializes in creating a ground-based space infrastructure and manages the spaceports of Russia.

Close cooperation between the university and the spaceport on the personnel training should be considered as one of the main ways to improve the quality of education, provide practice-oriented training for the specialists, and create an environment for innovation at the university and at the spaceport itself.

In 2016, the AmSU together with the TsENKI established the academic department at the Faculty of Engineering and Physical Sciences – "Ground-Space Infrastructure Facilities Operation".

At present, the Amur State University provides education and training of engineering personnel for the Vostochny spaceport in the following fields of study within the academic majors:

1) "Maintenance and operation of technological equipment and power supply systems for the rocket launch site" within the academic major 13.03.02 "Electric Power Engineering and Electrical Engineering";

2) "Software and hardware for the data acquisition/processing system at the infrastructure facilities of the Vostochny spaceport" within the academic major 09.03.01"Informatics and Computer Technology";

3) "Workplace safety during the operation of the launch and technical complexes of the spaceport" within the academic major 20.03.01 "Technosphere Security".

However, there seems to be a lack of updated concept of engineering education, focusing on the management and training of engineering personnel for high-tech businesses.

2. Materials and methods

In our study into the ways of creating an academic system aimed at training the engineering personnel for high-tech business at the university setting, we used the following methods: systematization and generalization, concepts and facts, education models, analysis of the federal state educational standards for higher education in engineering majors and of the professional standards.

The purpose of the study was to determine the specific features of the vocational education and training of engineering personnel for high-tech businesses.

For the purpose of the study, a sociological study was conducted on the premises of the Amur State University. The experimental sample of 50 people was composed of engineering students from the Faculty of Power Engineering, the Faculty of Engineering and Physical Sciences and the Faculty of Mathematics and Computer Science.

We developed a questionnaire that included four parts:
1) general questions;
2) evaluation of the level of professional competencies;
3) evaluation of the quality of educational services;
4) final questions.

The list of professional engineering competencies used in the questionnaire is specified for each academic major in accordance with their educational standard, meaning that a separate questionnaire was developed for each major. The questionnaire was evaluated and approved by the experts: employers and leading professors. It was conducted among students, immediately after they passed on-site (pre-diploma) practical training at the Vostochny spaceport.

The received data were mathematically processed. The following measures of variation statistics were used for data analysis: simple average (M), quadratic (standard) deviation (σ), standard error of the mean (m), variation coefficient (υ), 95% confidence interval for the mean (M±m).

Student t-test was defined by the table with limit values, statistically significant probability level of 95, 99, 99,9%, and degrees of freedom f = n − 1.

3. Results

The analysis of the academic research showed that a number of studies are devoted to the problems of academic education and training of an engineer: A.A. Aleksandrov, I.B. Fedorov, V.E. Medvedev, L.M. Mitin, E.F. Crawley etc. considered the professional development of the engineer's career; E.B. Tkachenko, N.K. Chapaev etc. focused on theoretical aspects of education and teaching methodology; B.S. Gershunsky, D.A. Voloshin, A.A. Kirsanova, V.G. and Y.G. Tatur etc. were concerned with the content of vocational education programs; N.S. Glukhanyuk, E.V. Dyachenko, E.A. Klimov, A.K. Markova and others examined patterns and specifics of becoming an engineer.

Based on the theoretical analysis of the academic research, we have outlined the following approaches to the vocational education and training of engineering personnel for high-tech businesses.

1. The person-centered approach

In the vocational training of engineering personnel, the person-centered approach is applied to direct students towards self-study (their own discoveries, project work, etc.). It is important to stimulate students' work taking into account their abilities and personal inclinations (the choice

of report topics, choice of the practice site, etc.); to provide a choice between team work and independent work; to allow students to evaluate their own answers by themselves, and then by the instructor; to practice use of individually-tailored assignments (Obshchaya...). For example, during the on-site practical training power engineers have to calculate the short-circuit currents in networks up to 1000 V, or to estimate reliability and maintainability of technical elements and systems based on the results of tests and observations, to analyze the reliability of local engineering (manufacturing) systems, to construct local engineering systems with specified reliability parameters.

Vocational training programs for engineering students should give particular attention to the development of those unique personal qualities that will be required in the professional setting – mindfulness, discipline, result orientation, responsibility, self-organization, independence, technical thinking, ability to concentrate, even-temperedness, perseverance, and tenacity.

Thus, a person-centered approach, relying on the fact that the personality is the combination of characteristics that form an individual's distinctive character, embodies an important psychological-educational principle of the individual approach, according to which in the process of vocational engineering training takes into account the individual characteristics of each student.

2. Systemic approach

Drawing on the general systems theory, we can pinpoint some essential features:

a) system is a combination of interrelated and interdependent parts;

b) system is a part (subsystem) of objective reality, one of its objects; any system does not exist by itself, it always functions and develops in a certain environment;

c) system has integrity, while its components are diverse;

d) each system has the ingrained mechanism for self-protection, self-dynamics and self-development;

e) system is always internally organized;

f) in terms of the level of development, the systems can be subdivided into highly complex, medium- and underdeveloped, elementary (Bertalanfi, 1969).

Engineering is a living system, so it can be considered within the framework of a systemic approach. An effective solution to the engineering task can be reached only on the basis of a comprehensive, holistic review of the system being developed and its enhancement in interaction with the environment. Only such systemic approach can result in truly creative and innovative solutions, including complex scientific inventions and discoveries.

A systemic approach to creativity enables the engineer to apply scientific methods when imagination and experience are not enough. This approach is a prerequisite for inventive activity and effective design and construction, and also allows engineers to withdraw from outdated traditions and patterns.

Progressively crucial role of the human factor in various spheres of life and social activities accounts for the increased requirements for the engineers' professionalism level. There has been a high widespread demand for highly qualified engineers capable of creatively solving complex problems, predicting and achieving the results in their own work, searching for ways and means of self-actualization and self-assertion while working independently. Many researchers note that the engineering students demonstrate the low level of aptitude for the creative approach to their professional functions or for the non-standard solution of manufacturing issues (Pedagogika...).

The solution to this problem seems to lie in the application of a systemic approach to students' academic and project work. Underestimation of the scientific approach to the vocational education and training as well as shortcomings in the engineering students' aptitude for professional activities lead to the conclusion that the potential of scientific research is still not fully utilized in the vocational training of engineers.

Students' participation in project work involves different tasks: design, planning, management, coordination of human and material resources throughout the project cycle. For instance, students majoring in "Aerospace Engineering and Astronautics" (24.03.01) are involved in the project on creating a nanosatellite since their first academic year. As a part of the project work, students determine the scope of work, task types, project costs and expenses, time parameters, including the terms, duration and slack time, the project stages, the coupling, resources required for the implementation of the project.

The implementation of the systemic approach happens in stages. Academic work with students within the framework of vocational training attaches great importance to motivational, diagnostic, projective, practical, reflexive and corrective stages.

The implementation of the systemic approach in the vocational training of engineering personnel requires a step-by-step solution of the following tasks:

1) developing the project concept, creating a resource, academic and methodological base;

2) setting timetable of academic work in accordance with the specifics of the faculty and the framework of the educational process;

3) providing the students with a competent academic advisor;

4) involving students into academic and research work, taking into account their aptitude level and research work experience;

5) involving leading employers and practitioners into the educational process;

6) organizing and conducting on-site practical training in high-tech businesses.

Thus, all components of the students' academic and research work comprise a complex and interrelated process, which effectiveness is determined by the systemic approach to its organization.

3. Competency-based approach

There are two approaches to understanding key competencies. Personal qualities are referred to as key competencies, which are important for a career in a number of diverse professions (emphasis is placed on personality). According to V.I. Bidenko, the term "competence" is used to indicate integral characteristics of the quality of graduate's training, the category of education outcome. Thus, competence is a new type of goal setting. This should signify the shift from predominantly academic assessment standards to an external evaluation of the professional and social efficiency of graduates (with a focus on graduates' market value). Other researchers describe them as "cross-cutting" knowledge and skills required in any professional activity, in different types of work (emphasis is placed on broad knowledge and skills) (Novikov, 2010).

In Russian science, the research within the framework of the competency-based approach mainly revolves around the connection between the competence and content of education. Therefore, the competent engineers differ from the qualified engineers in that they possess not only knowledge and certain level skills, but they are also capable and prepared to utilize them in engineering. It is important to mention that competence suggests that engineers are intrinsically motivated to perform their professional tasks at a high quality level, as well as to demonstrate their professional beliefs and principles and value their profession.

4. Integrative approach

In this study we consider the integrative approach from the point of mutual integration between vocational engineering training theory and its practice.

The use of an integrative approach in the engineering training and education curriculum is currently becoming a paramount objective aimed at improving the quality of vocational education.

By integration in the engineering training curriculum, we understand the connection, the concurrence between academic and professional tasks within the specific disciplines, the expansion of interdisciplinary ties, the controlled deepening of the content of general, industry-specific and vocational disciplines. Integration processes are seen not in terms of generalization and accumulation, but in terms of dynamics and integrity.

Integration is based on the following principles: comprehensive planning of the most important training tasks, personality development, enhancement of educational and cognitive activity, development of students' basic competencies, including research skills. This integration can be seen as a two-way process - external and internal. External integration is necessary to eliminate duplication in the disciplines' content, and to provide consistency and synchronization in the instruction tasks, as well as justified deepening of the content at the level of industry-specific education. Internal integration is a process of learning, based on the optimal choice of general education principles, methods, rules and means of teaching.

The purpose of the interdisciplinary integrative approach to vocational training curriculum is to ensure the systematic character of theoretical knowledge and the comprehension of complex phenomena and processes of social and professional reality, the development of a holistic view of a particular discipline, phenomenon, and activity. The approach is implemented by organizing the information (scientific concepts, laws, data, etc.) from different academic disciplines around the

common discipline (integration core). The number of those disciplines' topical issues is considered from the point of view of the object, subject and the aims of an integration core discipline, meaning the discipline which either initially or essentially provides the definition of the integrative approach subject (Novikov, 2010). For example, when developing engineers' professional competencies within the academic major "Aerospace Engineering and Astronautics" (24.03.01), the "Design and construction of aircraft" can become the integration core discipline, etc.

It should be noted that an integrative approach to the engineering training involves the modernization of curriculum based on external integration, which leads to an interdisciplinary connection (the development of integrative systems), to the planning of course curriculum on the basis of topic blocks and to a certain choice of methods, techniques, means of training with a combination of frontal, group and individual forms of training (internal integration). This contributes to training synchronization, removes unnecessary workload of students, and eliminates the fragmentation of knowledge, allowing us to achieve greater concentration of students' attention and immersion in the material.

One of the aims of this research was to study the professional competencies development in engineering students who were taking their on-site practical training at the Vostochny spaceport.

During the on-site practical training at the Vostochny spaceport, 47 % of the respondents indicated that most of the skills obtained in the training course at the university (general and vocational) were useful for professional development. However, there was a lack of certain professional skills, which is why students needed serious additional training. 41 % of respondents required minimal additional training, and all their skills (general and professional) were very useful for professional development. Only 6 % noted a significant lack of professional skills during their practical training at the Vostochny spaceport. Another 6 % of respondents were undecided.

The respondents were asked to identify the most important professional competencies and on a 10-point scale indicate the degree of their development (Table 1).

The list of professional competencies in the academic major 09.03.01 "Information Science and Information Technology" includes eight competencies. 60 % of respondents identified the two most important: "Developing hardware and software components of systems and databases with the use of modern technological solutions and software tools" and "Connecting and configuring computer modules and peripheral equipment." The mean value for all competencies is 6.4.

Table 1. Assessment of the professional competencies development (academic major 09.03.01 "Information Science and Information Technology")

No.	Professional competences	Mean value	Standard error of the mean
1	Connecting and configuring computer modules and peripheral equipment (PC-6).	7,8	0,4
2	Providing interface between hardware and software in the information processing system and automated systems (PC-5).	7	0,5
3	Justifying the choice of design solutions, designing and conducting experiments to assess their performance and efficiency (PC-3).	6,6	0,6
4	Preparing materials and organizing training necessary for technicians and workers so the organization has the capacity to effectively operate and maintain engineered systems and works (PC-4).	6,6	0,9
5	Developing models of information systems components, including database models and human-computer interface (PC-1).	6,2	0,8
6	Monitoring the equipment's technical condition and performing the preventive maintenance (PC-7).	6	1,26
7	Developing hardware and software components of systems and databases with the use of modern technological solutions and software tools (PC-2).	5,6	0,2

No.	Professional competences	Mean value	Standard error of the mean
8	Creating operating manuals (PC-8).	5,6	1,53

Thus, according to the respondents' opinion, their level of the competencies development is satisfactory. However, respondents also pointed out that one of the most important competencies (PC-2) showed a low level of development.

Also, the low level of competence development in terms of PC-7 and PC-8 can be attributed to their absence in the curriculum for this major.

The list of professional competencies for the academic major 20.03.01 "Technosphere Security Policies" comprises twenty-two items. 60 % of the respondents noted the importance of such a professional competence as "Applying existing relevant local and federal laws and regulations to ensure the security of assets to be protected" in order to efficiently accomplish their work. 50 % of the respondents identified the competence "Applying regulatory requirements pertinent to workplace safety, environmental safety, and safety in emergency situations" as a particularly important one.

Table 2 shows the level of professional competencies development.

Table 2. Assessment of the professional competencies development (academic major 20.03.01 "Technosphere Security")

No.	Professional competences	Mean value	Standard error of the mean
1	Determining the regulatory levels of permissible negative impacts on individuals and the environment (PC-14).	8,5	0,5
2	Knowing the basic methods and systems of providing technosphere security, and justifying the choice of known devices, systems and methods for protecting individuals and environment from hazards (PC-5).	7,8	0,3
3	Applying the skills of conducting and interpreting research and experiments (PC-23).	7,8	0,6
4	Measuring hazard levels in the environment, processing the obtained data, predicting the possible development of the situation (PC-15).	7,6	0,4
5	Analyzing the effect mechanisms of hazards on individuals, identifying the nature of the interaction between the individuals and the environmental hazards, taking into account the specific mechanism of toxic effects of harmful substances, energy impact and combined impact of hazardous factors (PK-16).	7,6	0,5
6	Staying well-informed about the main issues of technosphere security (PC-19).	7,5	0,6
7	Organizing, planning and performing the work tasks aimed at ensuring safety for both individuals and the environment (PC-11).	7,3	0,5
8	Applying existing relevant local and federal laws and regulations to ensure the security of assets to be protected (PC-12).	7,3	0,6
9	Performing safety checks on objects of various purposes, participating in the safety evaluation of those objects, regulated by the current legislation of the Russian Federation (PC-18).	7,2	0,4
10	Solving engineering issues as a part of the research team (PC-21).	7,2	0,2
11	Applying the laws and methods of mathematics, natural science, humanities and economics to solve engineering issues (PC-22).	7,2	0,5

No.	Professional competences	Mean value	Standard error of the mean
12	Developing and using graphic documentation (PC-2).	7	0,5
13	Assessing the risk and determining security measures for the technology being developed (PC-3).	6,7	0,8
14	Applying regulatory requirements pertinent to workplace safety, environmental safety, and safety in emergency situations (PC-9).	6,7	0,8
15	Participating in research and development in the relevant fields: systematizing information on the research topic, participating in experiments, processing the obtained data (PK-20).	6,7	0,8
16	Being able to substitute certain workers or employees and perform their work (PC-8).	6,5	0,6
17	Participating in engineering projects on the average level of complexity as a part of the team (PC-1).	6,3	0,7
18	Applying the safety regulations of various production processes in response to emergency situations (PC-10).	6,3	0,8
19	Identifying dangerous areas, extremely hazardous areas, and areas of acceptable risk (PC-17).	6,3	0,6
20	Applying the calculation methods for technological equipment components in accordance with the efficiency and reliability criteria (PC-4).	6	0,5
21	Performing installation and erection of the equipment, operating protective equipment (PC-6).	4,5	1,23
22	Organizing and performing maintenance, repair, conservation and storage of protective equipment, monitoring the condition of the protective equipment, make decisions on the replacement (recondition) of the protective equipment (PC-7).	4,3	1,25

The obtained data reveals that the degree of professional competence development in engineering students is satisfactory. The mean value for all competencies is 6.8. There is a very significant dispersion in mean values for various competences: from 4.3 (PC-7) and up to 8.5 (PC-14). According to the respondents, the most important professional competences (PC-12 and PC-9) are developed at a level higher than average.

The respondents who are studying in an academic major 13.03.02 "Electric Power Engineering and Electrical Engineering" identified several professional competencies from twenty-one listed below, which were most useful to them during their on-site practical training at the Vostochny spaceport, and also pointed out their importance for the engineer:

- justifying the project solutions (66 %);
- applying standards and regulations for workplace safety, industrial health, industrial fire protection and occupational safety (66 %);
- performing the installation of professional equipment elements (60 %) (Table 3).

Table 3. Assessment of the professional competencies development (academic major 13.03.02 "Electric Power Engineering and Electrical Engineering")

No.	Professional competences	Mean value	Standard error of the mean
1	Testing the commissioned electric power equipment and electrical equipment (PC-12).	8,8	0,4
2	Applying standards and regulations for workplace safety, industrial health, industrial fire protection and occupational safety (PC-10).	8,3	0,2
3	Compiling and categorizing standard technical documentation (PC-9).	8,1	0,8
4	Designing engineering objects in accordance with the functional specification and technical and regulatory documentation, in compliance with various technical, energy-efficient and environmental requirements (PC-3).	8,1	0,7
5	Processing the results of experiments (PC-2).	8,1	0,3
6	Using technical means to measure and control the main parameters of the technological process (PC-8).	8	0,4
7	Participating in pre-commissioning procedures (PK-13).	8	0,9
8	Organizing the work of small teams (PC-19).	8	0,7
9	Designing, preparing and conducting typical experimental studies in accordance with the specified methodology (PC-1).	7,8	0,5
10	Justifying the project solutions (PC-4).	7,8	0,9
11	Preparing purchase orders for equipment and spare parts and preparing technical documentation for repairs (PC-17).	7,8	0,9
12	Resolving issues connected with work organization and work standardization (PK-20).	7,8	0,6
13	Repairing equipment according to the specified methodology (PC-16).	7,6	0,4
14	Providing the required modes and specified parameters of the technological process according to a specified procedure (PK-7).	7,5	0,5
15	Evaluating the main production assets (PC-21).	7,5	0,9
16	Estimating the parameters of engineering equipment (PC-5).	7,3	0,8
17	Determining the working modes of engineering equipment (PC-6).	7,3	0,3
18	Coordinating the activities of team members (PC-18).	7,3	0,7
19	Performing the installation of professional equipment elements (PC-11).	7,2	0,3
20	Applying methods and technical means of operational testing and diagnostics of electric power equipment and electrical equipment (PC-14).	7,2	0,5
21	Assessing technical condition and residual life of equipment (PC-15).	7,2	0,6

Comparative analysis of professional maturity level showed that there is no significant difference between the levels of professional competence of students majoring in "Informatics and Computer Technology" and "Technosphere Security". Level of professional competence on "Electrical Power Engineering and Electrical Engineering" considerably exceeded the levels of students majoring first two qualifications, i.e. students of "Electrical Power Engineering and Electrical Engineering" are more competent and professionally mature (Table 4).

Table 4. Comparative analysis of the level of professional competences for engineering majors

Average	Academic major			Significance value of t-test for independent samples		
	Informatics and Computer Technology (1)	Technosphere Security (2)	Electrical Power Engineering and Electrical Engineering(3)	p_{1-2}	p_{1-3}	P_{2-3}
M±m	6,4±0,26	6,8±0,21	7,7±0,09	p>0,05	p<0,05	p<0,05

Notation: Student t-test values – P1-2 (0,245), P1-2 (0,01), P1-2(0,00)

As can be seen from the obtained data, engineering students in the field of study "Maintenance and operation of technological equipment and power supply systems for the rocket launch site" within the academic major 13.03.02 "Electric Power Engineering and Electrical Engineering" estimated their level of professional competences development as quite high. The mean value for all competencies is 7.7.

Engineering, like any other professional activity, has its own specific features and requires a certain set of personality qualities. In order to study the personal attributes necessary for an engineer to perform professional activities, respondents were asked to list the personal qualities necessary for the young specialist (open question of the questionnaire). They identified the following qualities: ability to work in a team, work initiative, competence, ability to learn quickly, responsibility, communication skills, stress resistance, leadership qualities, and commitment to professional development.

In conclusion, the respondents were asked to formulate the existing limitations in the vocational training of engineering personnel at the university, which they had to deal with during the on-site (pre-diploma) practical training at the Vostochny spaceport.

The following limitations were identified: insufficient time for practical training (the amount of on-site practical training stipulated by the intramural education programs is clearly insufficient); inadequate facilities and recourses; lack of knowledge and specialized and vocational disciplines; weak interdisciplinary connection between vocational disciplines, between theory and practice.

4. Discussion
In this study we used the following resources:
- notions of engineer's professional development from A.A. Aleksandrov, I.B. Fedorov, V.E. Medvedev, L.M. Mitina, E.F. Crawley and others;
- principles and specific features of the engineers development from N.S. Glukhanyuk, E.V. Dyachenko, E.A. Klimov, A.K. Markova and others;
- theories on constructing the content of vocational education programs by B.S. Gershunsky, D.A. Voloshin, A.A. Kirsanova, V.G. and Y.G. Tatur and others.

However, as the study shows, there is a shortage of contemporary research studies on building a system of vocational education and training of engineering personnel for high-tech businesses, and they do not allow us to examine the complete system of vocational engineering training.

5. Conclusions
The study proves the necessity of constructing a system of vocational education and training of engineering personnel for high-tech businesses on the basis of the Federal State Educational Standards which is aimed at developing students in such a way that they fully comply with professional engineering standards.

The vocational engineering education and training in the academic setting should be a system of organizational and teaching activities that should enable the graduates to be professionally ready for their future job.

As a result of this study, we can identify the main approaches to constructing of the engineering education content in the university: person-centered, systemic, competency-based and integrative.

Important requirements for the basic engineering education are:

1) enhancing the students' intellectual abilities, increasing their willpower and improving their organizational skills;

2) increasing the requirements for the integrity, flexibility and breadth of engineer training;

3) vocational training should include preparation for acting simultaneously as a researcher, technical expert and the head of the enterprise, which would expand the area of engineer's responsibility.

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Development of Communicative Tolerance among Teachers of Primary and Senior Level of the General Education School

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Abstract

The article is devoted to the study of the influence of the level of development of communicative tolerance on the effectiveness of the teaching and educational activity of primaryand senior schoolteachers. In the article the concepts of psychophysiological and communicative tolerance are separated. The psychological content of communicative tolerance is revealed. It is established that teachers of primary and senior schools do not differ from each other onthe level of development of communicative tolerance. When the experience of teachers grows, the level of development of communicative tolerance among teachers of both groups firstly increases, and then decreases. The peak of development of communicative tolerance among primary and senior school teachers falls on different periods of work. The level of development of communicative tolerance affects the effectiveness of educational activities of teachers of the first and second levels of training and does not affect the effectiveness of studying ones.

Keywords: communicative and psychophysiological tolerance, pedagogical, studying and educational activities, professionally important qualities of the teacher.

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1. Introduction

In this article, we will talk about the social or communicative tolerance of a teacher. Even the most general analysis of pedagogical activity shows that social tolerance belongs to the category of the leading professionally important qualities of a teacher. Indeed, during the pedagogical process, the teacher has to communicate with various categories of people, including pupils, parents, school administration, representatives of educational authorities, members of the board of trustees.

Very often, the main participants in the educational process have different views on the issues of education and upbringing. Nevertheless, the teacher must take into account all the positions, understand different points of view and, one way or another, take them into account in the course of pedagogical activity. But this is possible only if the teacher has a well-developed social tolerance.

The need for social tolerance is also due to the fact that at present the social differences between pupils and, accordingly, parents have increased significantly. The individual psychological differentiation of schoolchildren continues to increase. In each class, you can meet children from very rich and very poor families, with very low and very high abilities.

The interethnic differences are added to the social and individual features. Practically in any class we meet children of different nationalities, which until recently was not typical for schools in central Russia. In addition, among the Russian population a large percentage of migrants from the former union republics appeared, which also carry a different ethnic mentality. All this puts high demands on the social tolerance of the teacher.

Taking into account the high practical and theoretical relevance of the problem of communicative tolerance (CT), we repeatedly turned to the study of its various aspects (Povarenkov, 2003; Povarenkov, 2005; Povarenkov, 2014).

In particular, it was proved that communicative tolerance is a professionally important quality of the teacher, i.e. the level of its development positively affects the effectiveness of pedagogical activity. Taking this fact into account, within the framework of this article we will try to solve the following problems:

- to reveal the specificity of development of CT for teachers of the junior and senior level of the school;
- to confirm the fact that CT is a professionally important quality for teachers of the general education school;
- to clarify the influence of the level of development of CT on the effectiveness of the educational and upbringing activities of the teacher.

2. Materials and Methods

The study was attended by teachers of secondary general schools in Kotlas town, the Kotlas district of the Arkhangelsk region in the number of 273 people. The choice of respondents for the study consisted of teachers of secondary schools with a professional experience of 1 to 41 years, with higher and secondary special education. The age of teachers was from 18 to 67 years. The study involved primary school teachers, middle and senior managers. Teachers of middle and senior level were united in a common group, which we later referred to the "senior teachers".

To diagnose the communicative tolerance of teachers, the author's method "Communicative Pedagogical Tolerance (CPT)" was used, which passed the standard check for validity and reliability, as well as the well-known methods of V.V. Boyko (Almanac..., 1995) and D.B. Zinoviev (Zinoviev, 2000).

The effectiveness of teachers' activity was evaluated during the expert survey. As the experts were the heads of the corresponding link for educational and upbringing work, as well as experienced teachers-methodologists. In the course of the expert survey, the methodology "The coefficient of efficiency of educational activity" of N.B. Avaluev was used, which made it possible to evaluate the effectiveness of both teaching and educational activities of teachers in accordance with modern standards of teacher training (Avaluev, 2003).

3. Results

1.   The general level of development of communicative tolerance among teachers of primary and senior level of the general education school.

In planning this study, we assumed that due to the specificity of the CT contingent, teachers of different levels of training will differ qualitatively and quantitatively. In other words, we assumed that for effective interaction with schoolchildren of different ages, a different level of development of CT is needed. The data we are interested in is presented in Table 1.

From the table it is clear that according to all methods the teachers of the senior level demonstrate a slightly higher level of CT development, but these differences are not statistically significant. Therefore, it can be argued that our first hypothesis was not confirmed, since teachers working with junior and senior schoolchildren do not differ in the level of the CT development.

Table 1. Level of development of communicative tolerance

Methods for diagnosing communicative tolerance	Teachers of primary level			Senior teachers		
	X	δ	Cv	X	δ	Cv
Methods V. V. Boyko	75,7	15,0	19,0	75,9	15.1	19,0
Methods D.V. Zanoviev	7,31	3,06	42,0	7,70	3,14	41,0
Author's Methods	12,5	4,32	34,0	12,8	4,24	33,0

Note: X is the arithmetic mean; δ is the standard deviation; Cv - coefficient of variation. Student t-test value: 0.01. Differences are statistically insignificant (p = 0.99) (Methods of V.V. Boyko); Student's t-test value: 0.09. Differences are not statistically significant (p = 0.93). (Methods of D.V. Zanoviev); Student's t-test value: 0.05; The differences are not statistically significant (p = 0.96) (Author's Methods).

2. Dynamics of the development of communicative tolerance among teachers of different levels of training.

At the next stage of the study, the patterns of changes in CT of teachers were studied, depending on the length of teaching experience.

Correlation analysis showed that the relationship between the level of development of CT and the pedagogical experience of teachers in primary and senior schools is negative. The correlation coefficient is respectively equal to -0.23 and -0.27 for p = 0.01. This means that the more the teacher's experience is the lower is his/ her CT and this is noted in both studied groups of teachers. The subsequent analysis showed that the relationship between CT and pedagogical experience is not so unambiguous.

Using the percentile method, we divided the pedagogical experience into five stages and tracked how the level of CT development varies in different periods of work experience (see Table 2).

Table 2. Dynamics of communicative tolerance of primary and senior teachers at different stages of professional development

Pedestage in years	Teachers of primary level			Senior teachers			Student's t-test value:
	X	δ	Cv	X	δ	Cv	
1 – 4	58,2	16,9	29,0	66,4	21,8	33,1	0.30 p=0.77
5-7	75,8	16,1	21,2	67,7	16,6	25,0	0.35 p=0.73
8-11	68,0	16,1	24,0	69,5	17,3	25,2	0.06 p=0.95
12-20	63,5	19,3	31,0	63,5	17,5	28,2	0 p=1

21-41	55,1	15,7	29,4	58,1	17,0	29,1	0.13 p=0.9

Note: X is the arithmetic mean; δ is the standard deviation; Cv is the coefficient of variation. Differences are not statistically significant.

In the course of the analysis of the obtained data, the following data was established:

- in both groups of teachers there is a cyclic change in CT: initially it increases, reaches a peak and then begins to decrease; the minimum its reaches at the experience of teachers 21–41 year

- for teachers of the junior level, the peak of development of CT is 5–7 years, and for senior teachers – 8 to 11 years of experience, i.e. it comes a few years later;

- this dynamic completely coincides with the change in the effectiveness of pedagogical activity, depending on the length of service. It means that the CT increases as long as the effectiveness increases and begins to decline when the latter decreases.

The change in the direction of the dynamics of the indicators to the opposite indicates that qualitative changes in the mechanisms of professional development of CT are taking place. Since these changes coincide with a decrease in the effectiveness of professional activity, it can be assumed that destructive mechanisms of development from this moment begin to prevail over constructive ones. At the same time, the activation of destructive mechanisms of development of CT in primary school teachers begins a few years earlier than that of senior teachers.

4. Discussion
1. The link of CPT with the effectiveness of pedagogical activity
At this stage of the study, we will try:

1) to confirm (or disprove) the previously obtained data that CT is a professionally important quality (PIQ) for teachers;

2) make sure that this is true for teachers of different levels of training. In doing so, we will adhere to the understanding of PIQ, which is fixed in the works of A.V. Karpov (Work Psychology, 2003). He defines PIQ as follows: "these are individual properties of the subject of activity that are necessary and sufficient for its implementation at a normatively set level and which significantly and positively correlate with at least one (or several) of its performance parameters – quality, productivity, reliability (Work Psychology, 2003: 190). From this definition follows that the main criterion for classifying an individual quality to PIQ is its significant relationship (correlation) with the parameters of the effectiveness of the activity.

Let us turn to tables 3 and 4, in which the data of interest are presented, they indicate the following:

- the level of development of CT is significantly related to the effectiveness of educational and studying activities of primary and senior training teachers, as well as the effectiveness of pedagogical activities in general;

- the magnitude of the connection between CT and the effectiveness of teachers' upbringing activities is approximately two times higher (statistically significant) than with the effectiveness of their teaching activities; and this is typical for both elementary teachers and senior teachers.

Table 3. Relationship between the level of development of communicative tolerance and the effectiveness of the educational and upbringing activities of the teacher (junior level)

CommunicativeTolerance	EDI	EVD	EPD	Medium
Methods of V.V. Boyko	0,23*	0,58***	0,46**	0,42
Methods of D.V. Zanoviev	0,18*	0,55***	0,36*	0,36
Author's Methods	0,25**	0,63***	0,49**	0,46
Medium	0,22	0,59	0,44	

Note: the level of significance of the Pearson correlation coefficient:
* -0.05; ** - 0,01; *** - 0.001

The obtained data indicate that CT is more closely related to the educational work of the teacher, which, unlike the training activity, is regulated in a much lesser degree and requires a

more subtle account of the individual characteristics of the student's personality. The higher the level of development of CT in a teacher, the more successfully he copes with the tasks of educational work. With respect to teaching activity, this trend is much weaker.

Table 4. Relationship between the level of development of communicative tolerance and the effectiveness of the educational and upbringing activities of the teacher (senior link)

Communicative Tolerance	EDI	EVD	EPD	Medium
Methods of V. V. Boyko	0,26**	0,48***	0,26**	0,33
Methods of D.V.Zanoviev	0,26**	0,49**	0,32*	0,36
Author's Methods	0,30**	0,58***	0,44**	0,44
Medium	0,27	0,52	0,34	

Note: the level of significance of the Pearson correlation coefficient:
* -0.05; ** - 0,01; *** - 0.001

2. *The impact of CT on the effectiveness of teaching and educational activities of teachers.*

At this stage of the research, we are faced with the task of confirming that CT is a professionally important quality teacher, but somewhat from a different perspective. The fact is that V.D. Shadrikov gives a more specific definition of PIQ than we discussed above.

"By professionally important qualities," he writes, "we will understand the individual qualities of the subject of activity that affect the effectiveness of the activity and the success of its development" (Shadrikov, 2007: 86). It follows from the definition that the author applies only those qualities of the individual to the PIQ, which, above all, affect the efficiency of performing activities, including not only professional, but also educational and professional activities. Therefore, the main criterion for the detection of PIQ in this approach is not the strength of the correlation of the CT with the effectiveness of the teacher's activity, but the degree of influence of CT on the effectiveness of its performance.

Therefore, to test this hypothesis, we used not the correlation coefficient, but the multiple regression coefficient, which shows the degree of influence of one factor on another. In this case, we are interested in the influence of the level of development of CT on the effectiveness of the teaching and educational activities of the teacher. The data we are interested in are presented in Tables 5 and 6.

Table 5. Influence of the level of development of communicative tolerance on the effectiveness of the educational and upbringing activities of the teacher (junior level)

Communicative Tolerance	EDI	EVD	EPD	Medium
Methods of V. V. Boyko	-	0,33**	0,21*	0,27
Methods of D.V. Zanoviev	-	0,31**	0,13*	0,24
Author's Methods	-	0,40**	0,27*	0,34
Medium	-	0,35	0,20	

Note: the level of significance of the multiple regression coefficient:
* -0,05; ** - 0,01; *** - 0.001

The materials presented in the tables indicate the following:
- the level of development of CT does not affect the effectiveness of training activities of teachers on junior and senior level (significant coefficients of multiple regression are absent);
- the level of development of CT significantly affects the effectiveness of educational activities of teachers of junior and senior level (significant coefficients of multiple regression were revealed);
- as for primary school teachers, the influence of the level of development of CT on the effectiveness of the educational activity is significantly higher than that of senior teachers

Table 6. Influence of the level of development of communicative tolerance on the effectiveness of the educational and upbringing activities of the teacher (junior level)

Communicative Tolerance	EDI	EVD	EPD	Medium
Methods of V. V. Boyko	-	0,18*	0,20*	0,19
Methods of D.V. Zanoviev	-	0,24*	0,18*	0,22
Author's Methods	-	0,33*	0,20*	0,27
Medium	-	0,25	0,19	

Note: the level of significance of the multiple regression coefficient:
* -0,05; ** - 0,01; *** - 0.001.

The obtained data indicate that CT is professionally important in relation to the educational activity of the teacher. And the positive impact of CT on the effectiveness of pedagogical activity in general, which was recorded in previous studies and this work, is due to this fact.

5. Conclusions
The analysis allows us to draw the following conclusions:

1. The obtained data confirm the previously recorded fact that CT is a professionally important quality for primary and senior school teachers. However, it is established that the level of development of CT is two times less associated with the effectiveness of training activities (compared to educational activities) and affects only the effectiveness of educational activities, what is evident from significant coefficients of multiple regression.

2. In general, as the teaching experience of teachers of both groups increases, the level of CT scans decreases. However, this change in CT is not monotonous, but it has a cyclic nature. Initially there is an increase in CT, and after reaching a certain peak, its decrease is observed. This trend of change in CT is noted in both primary teachers and senior school teachers. However, the peak of development of CT is accounted for different periods of time: as for primary school teachers, it comes much earlier (experience of 5-7 years), and teachers of high school later (experience 8–11 years).

3. Data obtained with the help of three diagnostic techniques indicate that there are no significant and specific differences between the level of CT development in the two groups of teachers. There are differences in the dynamics of CT development, depending on the length of service, noted above, and some differences in the strength of the relationship between CT and the effectiveness of pedagogical activity and the degree of influence of CT on the effectiveness of educational activities. But they are not statistically significant.

4. In the methodological plan, the following points should be noted. First, the author's diagnostic technique proved to be more sensitive to CT assessment and its results significantly correlate with the effectiveness of pedagogical activity. Taking into account the specificity of this technique, there is every reason to assume that teachers develop a special professional type of CT, which can be called pedagogical communicative tolerance. Secondly, it can be assumed that a more accurate criterion for the allocation of PCT is the assessment of the degree of the influence of quality on the effectiveness of professional activity, and not its correlation. Therefore, only those qualities of an individual that affect the effectiveness of professional activity should be attributed to PIQ. To diagnose this effect, and therefore, to isolate PVK, one should use not a correlation analysis, but another mathematical apparatus (correlation relation, multiple regression, etc.).

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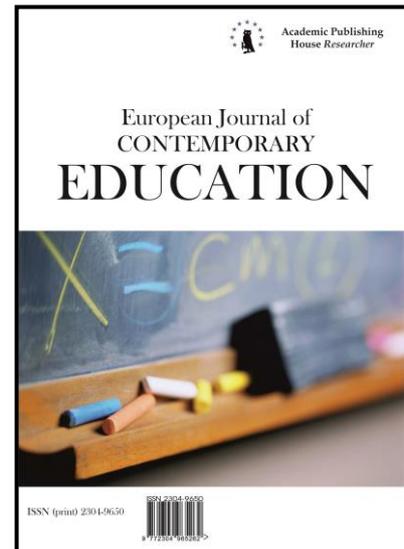Super, 1957 – *Super D.E.* (1957). Vocation development. New York.

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Key Milestones in the Development of Reputation Management in Russian Universities

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Abstract

The development of the modern higher school is characterized by a number of trends that cannot always be called positive. The recent reforms in the sphere of higher education in Russia increase uncertainty of the conditions, in which institutions of higher education currently function. The topicality of the problem makes it necessary to study the problem of reputation management of the higher school, to consider various approaches to creation of reputational responsibility and positive reputation of a university as important tools to improve the university's operating efficiency, and to achieve competitive advantages in the higher education market.

The purpose of the article is to consider approaches to the problems of reputation management of a higher education institution based on studying the processes of creating a positive reputation of a university by increasing its reputational responsibility, identifying reputational risks and other factors. In particular, the authors examine theoretical aspects of the reputation management in a university, analyze the results of studying characteristic features of creating the university's reputation and its reputational responsibility.

Keywords: university, higher education institution, reputation, reputation management, reputational capital, reputational responsibility, reputational risks.

1. Introduction

The trends in the development of the higher education system in Russia are related to the new operational conditions of higher education institutions, which are influenced by a number of factors:
 – State policy in the field of higher education;
 – Unfavorable demographic situation in the country;
 – High level of competition in the market of educational services and its increase, caused by a number of reasons, which largely influenced regional universities;

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– Instability of the external environment of higher education institutions;

– Reduced budgetary funding of education institutions, which particularly affected economic and managerial educational spheres;

– Increase in independence of education institutions as a result of the above factors;

– Increase in responsibility of the university's administration for the effectiveness of their activities, etc.

Taking into account the high level of competition in the market of educational services, improvement of the university's reputation is one of the most important tasks of its administration and the entire staff. When implementing the university's development strategy, the administration of the education institution shall identify, forecast and evaluate possible reputational risks of the university, and manage them in a timely and competent manner.

2. Relevance

The professional community of Russia started to pay special attention to reputation issues upon introduction by the Ministry of Education and Science of the Russian Federation of the practice of monitoring the effectiveness of Russian higher education institutions in 2012. Based on its results, "effective" institutions and institutions "showing signs of ineffectiveness" are identified and named, which yield to serious reputational losses for the latter ones. As a result, the reputation of many Russian universities (including a number of the oldest education institutions) and about a half of branches suffered.

Despite a debatable nature of the above processes (Shkolnikov, 2014), compulsory monitoring of state and private universities in the country makes it possible to monitor the results of their activities, which, in its turn, is intended to improve the quality of the domestic higher education, and to allow Russian universities to enter international ratings. Heads of higher education institutions are forced to think more seriously about the positions their universities occupy in the market of educational services, what measures must be taken to avoid falling into the list of "ineffective" institutions, to preserve and enhance the reputation of their education institution.

3. Materials and methods

The methodological bases of the study are the works of Russian and foreign scientists in the field of reputation management in organization and universities. The paper used methods of system, comparative analysis, as well as the statistical analysis method, methods of questionnaire and expert survey.

4. Discussion

The reputation management is a fairly new direction in management. At least in Russia it has been actively developed only in recent years.

Foreign and domestic scientists, such as G. Dowling, R.J. Alsop, K. Petzoldt, V.G. Aliev, K.S. Buksha, I.V. Vorobyova, S.V. Gorin, S.V. Dokholyan, E.V. Zmanovskaya, A.B. Lapshov, I.V. Oleynik, V.E. Reva, I.I. Reshetnikova, L.S. Salnikova, V.L. Semikov, L.V. Smolina, V.A. Spivak, V.M. Shepel, etc. have been engaged in studying the problems of creating and managing a company's reputation (including higher education institutions).

The reputation management is most often seen as taking measures aimed at building and maintaining a positive attitude of the society towards the organization. According to A. Lapshov and G. Oleynik (Oleynik, Lapshov, 2003), important properties of the reputation management include its "strategic nature, which ensures a transition from local solutions (relating to the attitude of the society to the organization) having a short-term effect to the multi-step logic of a consistent and sustainable progress towards the goal".

The larger the university, the more important it is to ensure good reputation. The size of the institution, the degree of its diversification and internationalization significantly affect the needs in its reputation management. However, even small universities shall take care of increasing their reputation, on the basis of which they can more actively solve current and strategic problems. This will allow the education institution to improve its competitiveness, to occupy a more stable position in the market of educational services.

In addition, a university, which occupies a leading position in a region or city, cannot but maintain its reputation, since it is always in the center of attention and any negative information can significantly harm it, which, in its turn, will negatively affect the reputation of the region as a whole.

Authors propose various approaches to the definition of the concept "reputation". In general, reputation is seen as opinion of the society about the quality, advantages or disadvantages of someone, something, person, organization or product.

Speaking specifically about an institution of higher education, its reputation is seen as a public evaluation, an opinion about the university, which is created under the influence of various factors of its external and internal environment.

The reputation of a higher education institution can be divided into external and internal:

– External reputation – evaluation of the university's activities by representatives of its external environment;

– Internal reputation – opinion of the teaching staff, personnel, graduate students, applicants, doctoral candidates and students of the university about such a university.

This classification is based on the division of the university's environment into external and internal one.

The university is an open system, since it performs its activities through interaction of internal opportunities with the needs of the external environment, including the labour market. To achieve the main goal of the university – to meet the needs of the society and its individual citizens in high-quality educational services - effective work of the university's employees and departments as a whole is needed, which yields to creation of positive reputation. To achieve this, the mechanisms of reputation management must be used.

In spite of the fact that the notion of the university's reputation is rather subjective to a certain extent, it becomes more and more important, helping to attract the best talents among students and professors to education institutions with good reputation, attracting investments and ensuring high positions in Russian and even world ratings of leading universities.

Many scientists and practitioners have recently talked much about the increasing role of reputational responsibility for modern Russian universities.

Speaking about the degree of development of the said problem, it is necessary to single out contribution of the following scientists to the study of certain issues of the reputational responsibility of commercial organizations and education institutions: A.N. Chaplina, E.A. Gerasimova (Chaplina, Gerasimova, 2014), A.P. Shatrova (Shatrova, Chaplina, 2014), V.M. Filippova (Filippov, 2013), E.A. Neretina (Neretina, 2014), S.D. Reznik and O.A. Sazykina (Reznik, Sazykina, 2016), N.I. Arister (Arister, Reznik, 2011), etc.

In our opinion the reputational responsibility of a university must mean its responsibility to the target consumer audience for the results of its activities and development, the responsibility of the university's administration and staff for the decisions made, the results of managerial and teaching activities, the way of life, their reputation.

The structure of the university's reputational responsibility presupposes presence of the following components (Figure 1):
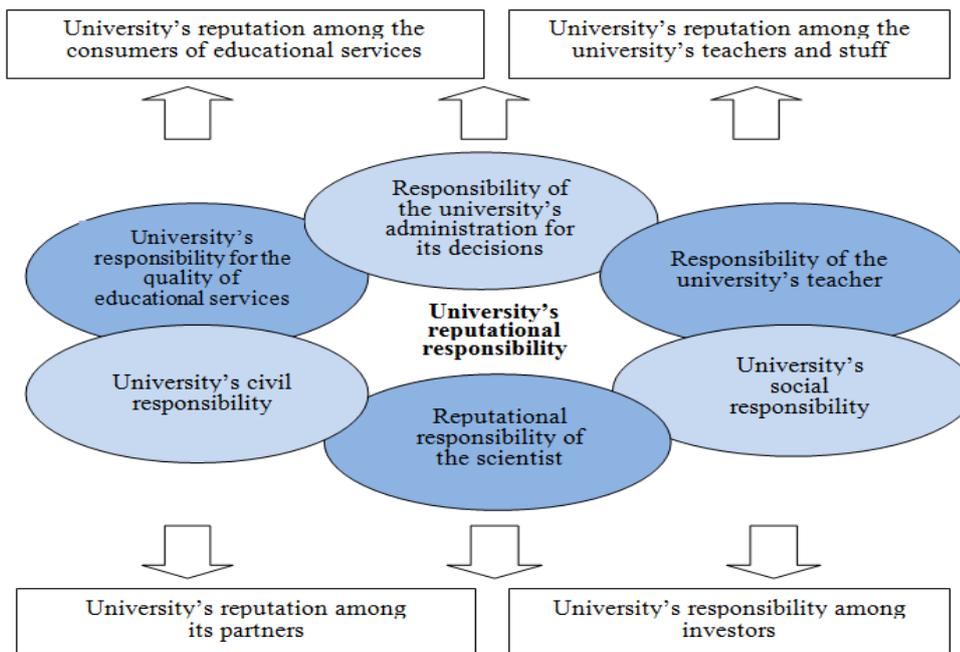
Fig. 1. Structure of the university's reputational responsibility (Reznik, Yudina, *2015*)

The responsibility of the university's administration for the decisions made means its responsibility to all target audiences, to the representatives of all levels of management of the higher education system in the country, to the university's teachers and staff.

The teacher's responsibility is conditioned by the fact that the high qualification of the teaching staff is a guarantee of high-quality education, which should be realized both at the level of the university's top management and at the level of each teacher.

The university's social responsibility is embodied in implementation of socio-cultural and educational work among students.

Reputational Responsibility of a scientist. Scandalous events taking place in the scientific community and their vigorous discussion in the media challenge the public's confidence in scientists, and influence the reputation of the Russian science as a whole.

University's responsibility for the quality of educational services. Universities need to take care not only of how to attract entrants, but also how to ensure a worthy quality of educational services and high rates of employment of their graduates.

The university's civil liability means its responsibility as a legal entity to the state, since it has a number of duties, and in case of its failure to fulfill such duties it shall be responsible in accordance with the legislation of the Russian Federation.

In the process of managing the university's reputation, it is necessary to take into account the likelihood and consequences of various risks that may arise in the course of its activities.

Unfortunately, characteristic features of managing the organization's reputational risks, regardless of the scope of its activities, have been studied insufficiently. There are only a few works relating to higher education institutions, whose authors draw attention to this problem and attempt to identify and classify reputational risks of a university, and to give some recommendations for their management. Let us consider approaches that allow us to fully understand the nature of a reputational risk.

E. Griffin defines the organization's reputational risk as a real or potential threat to its business reputation - a threat that "if not properly controlled, can lead to a disastrous crisis to the reputation" (Griffin, 2009). The key point of this approach is the need to monitor reputational risks.

An interesting approach is suggested by A. Zaman, who defines the reputational risk as "a result of a comparison made by interested parties between how the company and its employees should behave according to expectations and how they behave in reality" (Zaman, 2008).

I.S. Vazhenina, S.A. Pestrikov, and T.R. Sharipov define the organization's reputational risks as a probability to lose its business reputation (fully or partially) due to the influence of various external and internal factors that entail a reduction or complete loss of its reputational assets' value, as well as financial damage (in the form of losses or lost profits) and/or a drop in the organization's liquidity (Vazhenina et al., 2011).

Based on the approaches discussed, the reputational risks of a higher education institution will be interpreted as a threat for the university to lose its reputation or a drop in its reputation, which can result in a decrease in the number of applicants wishing to enroll in this institution, its competitiveness, attractiveness for various target groups, the overall performance of the university as a whole, the personnel's loyalty and, as a result, the financial stability of the education institution.

The main feature of the reputational risk is, in our opinion, that it cannot be reduced to zero. One can only reduce the likelihood of its emergence by means of timely evaluation and competent control, including, by means of effective reputation management.

We have studied the problems of reputation management in relation to higher education since 2011. The results of our studies are reflected in scientific works supported by the Russian Humanitarian Scientific Fund, as well as in our publications. Thus, in 2012–2013 we implemented a project of the Russian Humanitarian Scientific Fund called "System of reputation management in a regional higher education institution" (state registration number 01201261564), in 2014–2015 we implemented a project called "Methods of forming the reputational responsibility system in a higher education institution (on an example of Penza universities)" (state registration number 01201465109), and currently we are working on a project that was supported in one of the competitions of the Russian Foundation of Fundamental Research, called "Improving the Efficiency of Reputation Management in the Russian University" (2018–2019).

Analysis of statistical data on the higher education school's performance indicators

As is known, the main goal of the higher education institution is to organize the educational process and provide consumers with high-quality educational services. When studying the problems of reputation management in a university, special attention is paid to identification and monitoring of consumers of its services.

The main categories of consumers of the education institution's services are as follows: undergraduate, graduate and postgraduate students. Analysis of statistical data on distribution of the Russian population by age allows us to trace some negative trends in the development of the demographic situation in our country. At the same time, the age category we are interested in is represented by three groups according to official statistics: 15–19 years old, 20–24 years old and 25–29 years old (Table 1).

Table 1. Distribution of the Russian population by age groups (as of January 1, thousand people) (Russia in Figures…)

	2002	2010	2014	2015	2016	2017
The entire population	145167	142857	143667	146267	146545	146804
Including of the following age: 15-19	12801	8389	6956	6829	6731	6689,9
20-24	11466	12169	9971	9293	8445	7827,7
25-29	10613	11982	12522	12620	12412	11878

In accordance with the data given in Table 1, we can conclude that the Russian population in the above age groups continues to decline annually. Thus, for example, the population aged 15 to 19 (that is, first of all, potential applicants, future students) in 2016 was 6731 thousand people, and decreased by 98 thousand people in comparison with 2015 (the change rate is 98.6 %), by 1658 thousand people in comparison with 2010 (80.2 %), and by 6070 thousand people in comparison with 2002 (52.6 %, i.e. almost twice).

The number of people in the age group from 20 to 24 varies similarly (potential undergraduates or graduate students of the university). The dynamics of the population at the age

of 25–29 remained positive until 2015, but it had reduced by 742 thousand people by 1.01.2017 (the change rate is 94.1 %).

Note that the age group of 15–19 is the smallest among the analyzed ones. The share of this group in the total population of Russia was only 4.56 % in 2017, and a similar situation has been observed over the past years since 2010, based on the data shown in Table 1. The largest proportion of the three age groups in the total number of the country's population belongs to the group of 25–29 years old (8.09 % in 2017), given that in 2002 the situation was the opposite.

As the statistical data show (Table 2), the competitive struggle of universities for potential students is increasing, and it is developing, first of all, between regional education institutions. Leading universities do not actually feel any negative influence of the "demographic hole" in which our country has found itself in recent years, and which has become the main reason for increased competition between universities.

Table 2. Number of students taking educational programs of primary, basic and secondary general education (as of the beginning of the academic year) (Russia in Figures…)

	2005/06	2010/11	2015/16	2016/17
Number of students taking educational programs of primary, basic and secondary general education, thousand people	15630.9	13569.0	14770.4	15219.0
Number of students who received a certificate of secondary general education, thousand people	1466.0	789.3	647.8	635.2

Based on the data given in Table 2, it should be noted that despite the positive dynamics of the total number of students studying in general education institutions that has been observed since 2011, the number of students who have received the certificate of secondary general education continues to decline steadily. Namely, this indicator has decreased from 1466 thousand people in 2005 to 635.2 thousand people in 2016 over the last ten years, i.e. more than twice. In 2016 this indicator was only 43.3 % of its level in 2005.

Thus, the above described trends make it possible to characterize the demographic situation in Russia as very difficult for higher education institutions of our country. Moreover, according to experts' forecasts, this situation will continue until 2020.

On the basis of statistical data about organizations of higher education in Russia (Table 3), the number of higher education institutions in our country is being decreased. Thus, in the 2016–2017 academic year the total number of universities in Russia amounted to 818; their number decreased by 78 in comparison with the 2015-2016 academic year. A similar negative trend is observed every year.

Table 3. Higher education institutions (as of the beginning of the academic year) (Russia in Figures…)

	1990/91	2000/01	2010/11	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17
All higher education institutions	514	965	1115	950	896	818
State and municipal Higher education institutions	514	607	653	548	530	–
Private higher education institutions	–	358	462	402	366	–

The recent reduction in the number of higher education institutions was due to the state policy in the sphere of Russian higher education, which was characterized by reorganization and unification of higher education institutions in order to increase their efficiency and establish basic educational institutions.

In addition to the reduction in the number of higher education institutions, the number of university students has been constantly decreasing. The statistical data confirming this trend are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Number of students studying under the bachelor's, specialist's, master's programs (as of the beginning of the academic year) (Russia in Figures...)

	1993/94	2000/01	2005/06	2008/09	2010/11	2012/13	2013/14	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17
Number of students, thousand people	2613	4741	7064	7513	7050	6075	5647	5209	4766	4399
Number of students studying in education institutions in proportion to 10000 people of the population, people.	176	324	493	529	493	424	393	356	325	299

According to the data shown in Table 4, the number of university students increased until 2008–2009, when it was 7513 thousand people. Since the 2009–2010 academic year, an annual decrease in the number of students was observed, which reached 4399 thousand people in 2016–2017. The rate of decline of this indicator amounted to 41.4 % in 2016 as compared with 2008. Of course, such a trend is the result of the recent deteriorated demographic situation in our country.

The number of students admitted to higher education institutions over the past ten years has a negative dynamics (Table 5).

Table 5. Admission to study under the bachelor's, specialist, master's programs and bachelor, specialist and master graduates (Russia in Figures...)

	1993	2000	2007	2010	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Students admitted, thousand people	590	1292	1682	1399	1298	1247	1192	1222	1158
Bachelors , specialists and masters graduated, thousand people	445	635	1336	1468	1397	1291	1226	1300	1161

As can be concluded from Table 5, the largest number of students in the analyzed periods, namely, 1682 thousand people entered universities in the academic year of 2007–2008. According to the statistical data, the rate of admission of students to higher education institutions fluctuated annually and reached 1158 thousand people by the 2016-2017 academic year, which was 524 thousand people, or 31.1 %, less than the number of students admitted in the 2007–2008 academic year, when this indicator had the maximum value for the entire period studied.

A very important activity of any university is attraction of foreign students, the number of which is considered by the Ministry of Education and Science of the Russian Federation as an indicator characterizing the efficiency of the education institution. In an effort to meet the established performance indicators, Russian universities of any level are pursuing an active policy of attracting foreign students, which, as the statistics show (Table 6), is quite successful.

Table 6. Number of foreign students studying under the bachelor's, specialist, master's programs (as of the beginning of the academic year) (Russia in Figures...)

	2000/01	2005/06	2015/16	2016/17
Number of foreign students studying in state and municipal higher education institutions, people	58992	78139	195551	207356
Proportion of foreign students studying in state and municipal higher education institutions as compared to the total number of students, %	1.4	1.3	4.8	5.3
Number of foreign students studying in private higher education institutions, people	–	–	46947	37241
Proportion of foreign students studying in private higher education institutions as compared to the total number of students, %	–	–	6.7	7.1

According to the data presented in Table 6, the total number of foreign students studying in Russian state, municipal and private higher education institutions amounted to 244597 people in 2016, having increased approximately thrice over the period from 2005 to 2016. The growth rate of this indicator of university activity in 2016 reached 313 % of its level in 2005.

It should be noted that the positive dynamics of the education institutions' work aimed at attracting foreign students contributes to the development of international contacts of Russian universities, their prestige, formation of their image and reputation in foreign countries, and increases the probability of achieving a higher position in the ratings of domestic universities, as well as entering into world ratings.

National and world university ratings

The leading universities of Russia occupy a leading position in the ratings of Russian universities: the Moscow State University named after M.V. Lomonosov, the National Research Nuclear University "MEPhI", the St. Petersburg State University, the Higher School of Economics, etc. Regional higher education institutions find it difficult to enter even national ratings, since the Ministry of Education and Science of the Russian Federation sets performance indicators that are quite high for many ordinary education institutions. The overall rating of Russian universities in 2017 (the top ten) is presented in Table 7.

Table 7. National rating of Russian universities in 2017 (National Rating...)

Rank	Name of the university	Value
1	Moscow State University named after M.V. Lomonosov	1000
2	National Research Nuclear University "MEPhI"	856
3	St. Petersburg State University	735
4	National Research University Higher School of Economics	734
5	Novosibirsk National Research University	727
6	Moscow Institute of Physics and Technology	722
7	Saint Petersburg State University of Information Technologies, Mechanics and Optics	715
8	Tomsk National Research University	707
9	Peoples' Friendship University of Russia	706
10	Tomsk National Research Polytechnic University	680

A more complex situation concerning the reputation and recognition of Russian universities has developed at the world level. The leading university of our country, Moscow State University named after M.V. Lomonosov was assigned only the 188th place in the rating of 2017, and only two or three other Russian education institutions were included in the first five hundred.

The compilers of the world best universities ratings, the British company "Quacquarelli Symonds (QS) World University Rankings", evaluates universities using six indicators: research activities, teaching, opinion of employers and career potential, number of foreign students and

teachers. The QS Rating pays attention to the university's reputation in the academic environment. Many years, leading positions in the rating have been occupied by the universities of the United States and Great Britain.

Russia occupies very high positions in another world rating of universities. In the BRICS QS rating, emphasis is made on the indicators that reflect common features, which are characteristic of Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa and highlight strong qualities of higher education systems in these countries.

In 2017, the rating included top 300 universities of the BRICS countries, with 68 universities representing the Russian higher school. This rating also included 94 Chinese universities, 61 Brazilian universities, 65 Indian universities and 12 universities of South Africa. Leading University of Russia - Moscow State University named after M.V. Lomonosov – returned to the top five and took the fifth place (Table 8).

Table 8. Russian universities in the QS BRICS world rating 2017 (Ten Universities of Russia…)

No.	Name of the university	SIZE	RES	AGE	Rank 2013	Rank 2014	Rank 2015	Rank 2016	Rank 2017
1	Moscow State University named after M.V. Lomonosov	XL	VH	5	3	3	4	7	5
2	Novosibirsk State University	M	VH	4	22	18	19	20	11
3	Saint-Petersburg State University	L	VH	5	14	12	15	20	13
4	Tomsk State University	M	VH	5	58	47	44	43	26
5	Moscow Institute of Physics and Technology	M	VH	4	55	52	45	47	28
6	Moscow State Technical University named after N.E. Bauman	L	HI	5	33	36	35	38	33
7	National Research Nuclear University MEPhI	M	VH	4	65	57	51	50	35
8	National Research University Higher School of Economics	L	VH	3	50	58	63	62	39
9	Moscow State Institute of International Relations	M	MD	4	37	35	39	44	40
10	Tomsk Polytechnic University	M	VH	5	71	67	64	64	49
SIZE	**Category as per the number of students**	RES	**Category as per the level of research activities**	AGE	**Category as per the age**				
XL	≥ 30000 – Very large	VH	Very high	5	≥ 100 years – Historical				
L	≥ 12000 – Large	HI	High	4	≥ 50 years – Mature				
M	≥ 5000 – Medium	MD	Medium	3	≥ 25 years – Recognized				
S	< 5000 – Small	LO	Limited	2	≥ 10 years – Young				
НД	No data	НД	No data	1	< 10 years – New				

In general, the results of the analysis of several statistical indicators of the universities' activities, as well as data on world and national university ratings make it possible to conclude that

the current demographic situation and state policy in the sphere of education in our country do not currently allow us to call the conditions for the development of Russian universities as easy. Many regional education institutions are forced not only to continue the struggle for entrants, the best of which are striving to enter the capital's universities or other large universities that occupy high positions in the ratings, but also to fight for their "place in the sun". The problems of reputation management do not just continue to remain relevant for higher education institutions today, but are becoming more and more acute and demanding special attention.

Analysis of the practice of forming and managing the reputation of Russian universities

In order to study the above problems from a practical point of view, we conducted a study of the processes of forming and managing the university's reputation, the results of which allowed us to make certain conclusions.

In the opinion of 35 % of experts, formation and management of the university's reputation should be a responsibility of the administration and deans; 30 % of experts believe that these problems should be solved by all departments of the university; 15 % – these issues shall be solved directly by the Marketing Center or the Public Relations Department (10 %); 10 % – to solve the issues of reputation management in the university, a special unit should be established.

In our opinion, the university's reputation as a whole depends on conscientious and efficient work of each department and each unit of the education institution, each teacher, manager and employee.

As the research results show, the graduates' employment indicator is the main factor influencing the university's reputation to a large extent. It was this indicator, which was awarded the first rank by 21.8 % of experts. Qualification of the teaching staff is the next most important factor, according to 21.5 % of experts. The third place was given by 12 % of experts to the quality of educational activity of the education institution.

According to the results of the study, 89 % of the interviewed representatives of the universities' administration and teachers noted that their institution is working to promote the employment of graduates. 68 % of the respondents answered that there is an Alumni Association in their university, 37 % noted that they keep in touch with alumni to inform them about possible employment.

The main drawback of university training, as evidenced by the results of another study (Reznik, Sochilova, 2010) is a lack of practical experience of teachers, according to 88 % of the employers. In the opinion of 80 % of the respondents, the educational process of individual universities is focused on passive perception of the material by the audience; there is an attempt to give additional knowledge (sometimes redundant). 82 % of the employers believe that the universities give insufficient attention to practical training of students, and 78 % of the respondents say that theoretical knowledge lags behind the reality (Table 9).

Table 9. Drawbacks of the university training

Drawbacks of the university training	Number of responses,%
Theoretical knowledge lags behind the reality	78
The amount of theoretical information is excessive	48
Little attention is paid to practical training of students	82
The amount of theoretical information is insufficient	36
Lack of practical experience of teachers	88
Education programs are focused on passive perception of the material by the audience	80

Most likely, such a situation is characteristic of many regional universities in Russia. The main point here is not in a lack of aspiration for self-education among university employees, but in a heavy workload of teachers (the need to combine teaching, methodological and scientific activities), and in the absence of financial support from the university's administration. All this imposes a negative impact on the quality of educational services, lack of practical orientation, low rates of employment of graduates or lack of jobs in this sphere at all, etc.

In general, the results of the studies made it possible to identify the following features of the practice of forming and managing the reputation of higher education institutions: a lack of a reputation management system in a university; insufficient attention of the education institutions' managers and teachers to improvement of their skills; a lack of practical orientation of the educational process; inconsistency between the level of graduates' training and the employers' requirements; low rates of employment of graduates in individual universities.

The above trends and peculiarities of the development of Russian higher education institutions should be taken into account when determining the mechanisms for managing the university's reputation, which will make this process purposeful and more effective.

Characteristic features of forming and increasing the university's reputational responsibility

In general, it is necessary to pay attention to the fact that the process of reputation management in a university should first of all include the tools needed to form and enhance its reputational responsibility.

Within the framework of the project of the Russian Humanitarian Scientific Foundation "Methods of forming the reputational responsibility system in a higher education institution (on an example of Penza universities)", a survey (Reznik, Yudina, 2015) was conducted. The respondents included representatives of the administration and the scientific community of universities in Moscow, Saransk, Volgograd, Kazan, Saratov, Penza and other cities.

According to the research results, the university's reputational responsibility shall be considered using a system approach. According to the opinion of 47.8 % of experts, the reputational responsibility system of a higher education institution should mean a combination of elements and values, based on the university's obligation to bear responsibility for its actions, as well as their consequences, aimed at increasing the interest of target consumer groups, including in the long term.

The university's reputational responsibility system includes such elements as reputation and qualification of teachers (78.3 % of experts), reputation of the university's administration (60.9 % of experts), quality of education, range and level of educational services (52.2 %) and scientific achievements of the university (26.1 %) (Figure 2).
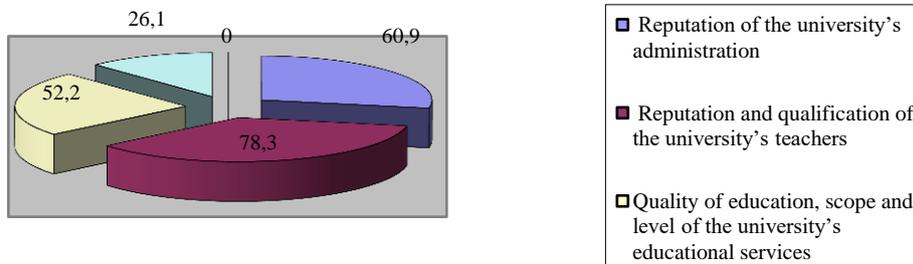
Fig. 2. Elements of the university's reputational responsibility system, %

High reputational responsibility of universities promotes their positioning as full-fledged, competitive doers of a state; determination of leading universities, whose activities promote integration of education, science and production at various levels; inclusion of Russian education institutions in world ratings. At the same time, those universities that neglect maintenance of their reputational responsibility bear certain losses associated with emergence and high impact of reputational risks in their activities.

5. Conclusion

Within this article, we considered the content of the university's reputation, which is an intangible, but no less important asset of any organization. In the modern world, this is a phenomenon, which can and should be managed. To do this, there is reputation management aimed at developing and implementing a long-term development strategy for the university.

The need to carefully study and take into account the external environment is an important aspect of reputation management, which will allow the university administration to determine advantages and disadvantages of its activities, including in comparison with other higher education institutions of the same level. The use of reputation management is aimed at obtaining results in the long term. All of its components contribute to improving the state of the university, and the efficiency of the reputation management mechanisms depends on the professionalism of the university administration.

Effective mechanisms for managing the reputation of a higher education institution, according to the requirements set by the labour market for education institutions, include the following ones, which are the most significant ones in our opinion.

Studying approaches to the process of managing the quality of the university's educational services allowed to develop some tools allowing to implement the following reputation management mechanism - *Development and implementation of the quality management system in the university.*

High-quality education is impossible without qualified teachers and competent administration. In this regard, *Improvement of professional competence of the university's administration and teachers* is an important mechanism of reputation management.

The level of employment of the students and graduates form a basis for a comprehensive assessment of any institution's activities. Previously, the state was engaged in employment of its graduates; currently universities are forced to solve this issue on their own. *Development of a system of career guidance, employment and adaptation of graduates* is another mechanism of reputation management.

Increased requirements of the employers to the knowledge and skills of university graduates requires not only improved quality of theoretical education in education institutions, but also strengthened practical orientation of the educational process, as well as some measures that promote self-expression and self-fulfillment of students. The foregoing reflects the content of the next mechanism for managing the university's reputation - *Formation of values, needs and abilities of individual self-realization in the student environment.*

Effective reputation management mechanisms should be implemented, among other things, within the development and implementation of the university's reputation strategy as a general strategy for its development, which must be supported by functional strategies in accordance with the types of activities. At the same time, the heads of the university's functional services should participate in justification of its basic development strategy. Only then implementation of reputation management mechanisms will bring positive results to the university, both social and economic.

Managers and the entire staff of the university should know how it looks in comparison with other players in the market of educational services, since its competitiveness is a guarantee of obtaining high educational, scientific and economic performance indicators, which will help the university to survive in the current conditions of reforming the Russian higher education system.

As the results of our studies show, the following items should be mentioned as key milestones in the development of reputation management in the university: improving the quality of education, strengthening work on graduates' employment, forming and increasing the university's reputational responsibility, and managing its reputational risks.

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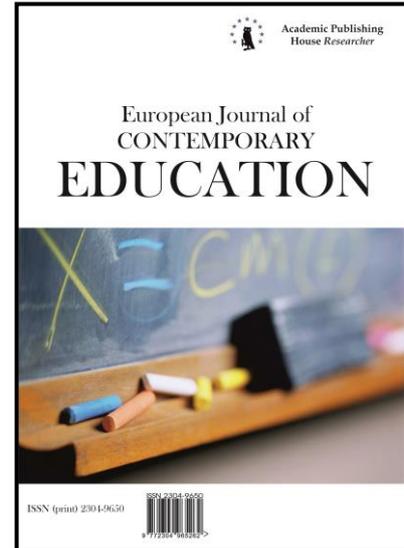
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Theory of "Trust" in the Focus of Expectation Study Concerning Educational Space Key Actors

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Abstract

The article presents the results of the study, illustrating the expectations and the persistent stereotypes about the parent and the pedagogical community, which reduce the possibility of confidential interaction development in the sphere of education. The conceptual provisions of "confidence" theory by P. Sztompka, in which trust is viewed as a strategic resource for the development of social systems, became the initial prerequisites for the study. The empirical base of the study was represented by the educational facilities of Moscow. The focus group method was used as the main research method, in which 34 representatives of the parental community and 20 teachers of the Moscow general education schools took part.

The authors conclude that there are contradictions in the key expectations of educational space subjects. Parents consider the school as a social compensator for family dysfunctions, considering it is necessary to involve a teacher in the upbringing and the socialization of younger generation. The results of the study showed that the modern school does not have the necessary resource, personnel and socio-cultural potential; it is unable to meet the expectations of the parental community in the current circumstances. This circumstance undermines the very possibility of educational space key agent trust and supports the functional weakness of the modern school.

The novelty of the data obtained in the course of the study is the conclusion that the boundaries of social tension, the manifestations of frustration and the uncertainty of the parental and pedagogical community, as well as the risks of school education modernization have extended. The materials of the research work illustrate the reduction of positive motivation for educational space actors, the alienation during the interactions between a family and a school and the lack of an effective managerial practice in the development of constructive cooperation. Social attitudes of a student and a teacher, refracted in the prism of formal interactions between a "client" and

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"educational service provider", initiate the educational space deformation and the distortion of traditional roles.

Keywords: school education, parental community, teacher, expectations, trust.

1. Introduction

The Institute of Education has a very important role, since it is called upon to form a new type of personality, a new citizen, devoid of dogmatic stereotypes, capable of being an active participant in socioeconomic and political transformations (Rogach et al., 2018). An objective increase of education institution role for the development of intellectual, sociocultural and economic potential of Russia (Kasatkin, 2017), the current trends and the patterns in the development of the educational sector necessitate the study of actor expectations and needs in the educational space (Rogach et al., 2017). At the same time, the educational environment should provide an opportunity for the development and the selection of education for each student through an active participation in various areas of education using alternative technologies of knowledge obtaining (Sokolvyak, 2017). Thus, an adopted course on education system modernization should be based on the achievements of modern theories and concepts that justify the principles and interaction determinants between all parties interested in educational process quality improvement. The theory of "trust" is among such theories, which have special significance for the study of the educational space key actor expectations.

The authors attempt to analyze the conditions for trust relations development in the education system. This is due to the fact that the turn to the "soft variables", mental and cultural dimensions of public reality, the expansion of anxiety, uncertainty and risk boundaries actualizes the significance of "trust culture" category. P. Sztompka, substantiating this theory, comes to the conclusion that trust becomes an "indispensable strategy for moving forward" (Sztompka, 2012: 58), is "an attribute of the public-individual field in which people operate with the cultural resource used by individuals in their activities" (Sztompka, 2012: 59).

Trust is the factor in the socio-economic development of society, life quality level increase and it determines the willingness of individuals to follow certain norms of behavior (Mareeva, 2015). Trust strengthens cognitive stereotypes and attitudes, forms intergroup mutual understanding, tolerance and organizational cooperation (Guzhavina, 2012). In the sociological aspect, trust is determined according to the social experience of individuals, as well as by individual goals and stability achievement extent to which the trust resource is able at the level of group interaction (Kozhina, 2013).

The complexity of the educational system, its inherent properties of conservatism and inertia, rather negative experience of reform perception in Russian conditions, cause the importance of trust study, which is one of modernization effectiveness key factors. In the context of trust development, the predictability of a management subject actions, the understanding of the main directions of educational sector reforming is of key importance. If institutional and organizational changes are perceived by actors as unsystematic and disorderly, this will lead to the level of trust decrease (Volchik, Krivosheeva-Medyantseva, 2016).

Trust is the mechanism based on the firm beliefs of the subjects in honesty, willingness to cooperate with other members of society and the confidence in the commonality of ethical norms (Fukuyama, 1997).

At that, one should take into account both interpersonal trust (in relation to other individuals) and institutional one (in relation to abstract systems and social institutions) (Giddens, 2011: 47). Interpersonal trust is based on positive expectations about the actions of other individuals. By interpersonal trust, we mean stable open interactions between actors in the educational space, focused on solidarity and cooperation in order to improve the quality of educational services. The characteristics of such interactions are the confidence in decency, positive motivation, interest in the most effective result and the creation of the best conditions for students, the disclosure of their abilities, the development of their skills and abilities on the part of all actors in the educational space (administration, teachers, parents, etc.). Trust releases and mobilizes human subjectivity, releases creative, free, innovative and energetic actions (Luhmann, 1979: 8). Interpersonal trust in a cohesive team contributes to higher pedagogical result achievement, improving the organizational effectiveness (Smith, Shoho, 2007). On the contrary, the lack of trust, the incompatibility of interests initiate tensions and hostility in the process of interaction, blocking

the exchange of information and knowledge (Jonasson et al., 2014). The key aspect in this context is the correspondence of expectations and behavior (activity) between interacting actors. The basis of trust between individuals is responsibility and complicity. Institutional trust (to abstract systems), formed in the modern era, provides the reliability in everyday life (Kiselev, 2014).

Civic engagement and interpersonal trust are the factors that shape institutional trust (Putnam, 2000). Many scientists and practitioners come to the conclusion that the most significant factor of family and school cooperation is trust (Angell et al., 2009; Shelden et al., 2010; Turnbull et al., 2015). "School trust and public responsibility relate to the fundamental foundations of education, the factor of ethical and social standard observance in the process of active learning" (Cherepaniak-Valchak, Pezhicka, 2014). A low level of trust initiates alienation in family and school interactions, blocks the development of sustainable patterns of behavior and norms based on the value of education, the prestige of pedagogical work, the motivation for learning, the development of personal potential and on the interest in new knowledge obtaining.

2. Materials and Methods

The goal of the study is to determine expectations and persistent stereotypes of the parent and pedagogical community that limit the possibility of confidential relations development in the field of education. The authors put forward the following hypothesis: the traditional parental perception of school as a key agent of the younger generation socialization is not reflected in the actual practice of the educational process, which undermines the credibility of the education system as a whole. The modern school does not have the resource and other potential that allows it to become a social compensator of family and social dysfunctions. The assumption is made that the expectations of the parents regarding the functional of the modern school are not supported. This assumption acts as an additional hypothesis that requires empirical verification. The functional weakness of the secondary school is manifested in the distance from the educational process, the lack of the opportunity to reduce the socio-cultural risks of young people growing up.

The empirical base of the study was the educational facilities of Moscow. The focus group method was used as the main research method, in which 34 representatives of the parental community and 20 teachers of Moscow general education schools took part. The questionnaire survey of focus group participants was used in order to verify the data obtained and the hypotheses put forward. The questionnaire included the following blocks of questions: the level of confidence and the factors of its formation; mutual expectations and the stereotypes of educational space key actors. The authors also used the general scientific methods of research in a comprehensive manner; research activities were applied supported by the methods of comparison, comparative and system analysis.

The results of the study were analyzed through the analysis of the relationship between the level of trust of parents in school and the level of their expectations (the formation of interest in learning, an individual approach, a teacher's authority, the educational function of school, etc.) and the use of the counting method for the Pearson's criterion χ^2. Statistical significance was set at $p < 0,05$.

3. Results

During the focus group study of the parental community expectations, it was established that new socioeconomic conditions require to have a high level of employment and an active economic position from parents. In this context, the lack of free time, a large amount of work leaves its imprint on the assessment of the time that a child spends at school.

Olga D., 31 years old: "I pay electives, and prolonged studies. Why should I spend the remaining energy on homework check or school project performance? Why do I have to answer for the ways they teach my child there … I pay, and the school has to do its job qualitatively."

The received results testify that modern parents of schoolchildren perceive themselves as the customers and the consumers of educational services. Other requirements for the modern school come to the forefront, and not only to its content part, but also to the resource-organizational context. At the same time, the introduction of market mechanisms in the educational sphere does not meet a clear understanding among parents: for many of them this practice is perceived as the narrowing of free, and most importantly an accessible education. A particularly negative reaction in the parental community relates to the need for significant expenditures on the education of modern

children, which are not the payment for the provision of qualitative educational services by an educational institution: "general fees", "money for repairs", "money for class needs", etc.

Anna V., 39 years old: "The fees increase, the quality does not improve. What is the purpose? I am afraid to imagine it … ".

The current practice undermines the credibility to the school as a social partner, who has the same goal as parents - to educate a worthy citizen of society. With different goals and the means of their achievement, a teacher and a parent are outside the single "negotiating field", which provokes the emergence of high expectations from each other's actions without taking into account the real capabilities of all interested parties. In the course of the study the segmentation of parental interests in two polar positions is observed. With sufficiently high expectations, typical of almost all representatives of the parental community, some respondents are characterized by distancing and low involvement in a schoolchild's educational process, while the other part of the parents, investing considerable funds in a child's education, is not satisfied with the school preparation of their children. Those parents who talk about their great contribution to the education of their children are focused on a "symmetric" response from teachers in the form of centering on a child's interests, an individual approach to his learning and on the improvement of the educational process quality. However, in practice, the mass character and the stereotyped nature of the educational process are observed.

According to the results of respondent answer analysis to a number of key questions assessing the level of their expectations (the formation of interest in learning, an individual approach, a teacher's authority, the educational function of school, etc.), three conditional groups were identified: the parents with high, medium and low expectations. This division made it possible to reveal the relationship between the level of expectations and the level of parental trust in school as an educational space agent (χ^2 = 11,287; p<0,05) (Table 1).

Table 1. Assessment of parental trust level in the pedagogical composition of educational institutions (N = 34)

Study groups	Evaluation parameters		
	High level of trust	Average level of trust	Low level of trust
Parents with high level of expectations	1	4	9
Parents with average level of expectations	6	7	4
Parents with low level of expectations	0	3	0

The discrepancies between parental expectations and the perceived reality limit the possibility of confidential relations development in the sphere of education. The indifference on the part of teachers, an inattentive and sometimes rude treatment of their children marked by children is perceived as the practice of "unfair" partnership. The results of the focus group study illustrate the change of the modern school vector from its perception as a social institution that ensures the reproduction of the social and intellectual potential of Russian society to "unavoidable evil."

Tatyana K., 43 years old: "Every year we perceive school as hard labor. We would like it be over soon!"

It is fair to say that this opinion is not the only one, although the dominant one among the parental community today. Some part of the parents is focused on the complexity of a teacher professional activity and the risks of his professional burnout.

Elena P., 38 years old: "The situation is hard for teachers nowadays. Sometimes we are tired of our children, and they need to cope with twenty or more at the same time, and each one demands an individual approach. And they are also burdened with papers, everyone demands something … ".

Almost universal absence of institutional trust in the system of Russian education as a whole is compensated partially by the development of personal trust relations with specific

representatives of the pedagogical community. Parents, seeing a teacher's interest in the quality performance of their professional activities, are ready to establish a constructive dialogue with him.

Some positive practices are noted, but the general negative color of statements about school education prevails.

Anastasia M., 45 years old: "Formerly the school had a high authority. A teacher had a sacred role, a child respected him and listened to his opinion."

During the study they found that parents expect the implementation of traditional role from teachers, which does not allow their excessive convergence in the personal space, beyond the educational process. It is noteworthy that deceived expectations, a disrespectful attitude of parents towards a teacher and a general negative attitude towards the school is widespread in the family circle. Pupils imitate the behavior of parents and reproduce a disdainful attitude towards teacher's work.

Svetlana Ch., 37 years old: "My husband calls school teachers in disdainful ways, and the son repeats it. I tried to explain many times that this is only worse for our child, nothing changes concerning such a disregard to a teacher's work."

The situation is exacerbated by administrative restrictions concerning teacher activities, who believe that the requirement of conflict-free interaction has a greater "weight" in their practice than real some attempts to educate and upbring a child.

Victor D., 53 years old (a teacher): "The director, if it is in his power, will never allow a conflict with his parents. In any case, a teacher will be guilty: he did not teach properly, did not watch properly, or something else."

This circumstance reduces the motivational component of a teacher's work, reduces the degree of his trust, both to the actions of the educational facility management, and to the actions of schoolchildren parents. In addition, the findings show that teachers do not have disciplinary, organizational and other resources that would allow them to level out the destructive behavior of students, to influence them, also to strengthen their authority.

Anna S., 54 years old (a teacher): "It's easier not to pay attention to the defiant behavior of a student and release him from school quickly than to come into a conflict with inadequate and sometimes aggressive parents who protect their child in any situation."

The orientation of the educational process on the training of students for USE adopted today limits the monitoring and the evaluation of schoolchildren educational activities with quantitative indicators. Less attention is paid to the quality aspect of school preparation in these conditions. According to teachers, it is very difficult to implement the traditional educational functions of the school, if neither parents nor the school authorities support them in this matter. In the course of the study, the correlation was found between the teachers' assessment of their professional activities (educational, motivational component, etc.) and the level of their support by the school administration ($\chi^2 = 11.746$, $p < 0.05$) (Table 2).

Table 2. The relationship between teachers' self-assessment of their professional activities and the level of their support from the school administration (N = 20)

Study groups	Self-assessment of teacher professional activities		
	high	average	low
Teachers who are satisfied with the level of support from the administration	**4**	**1**	**1**
Teachers who are not satisfied with the level of support from the school administration	**0**	**9**	**5**

Alexandra T., 47 years old (a teacher): "We can not even drive a child out of the class despite all of his misbehavior. Over the years, I question myself more and more frequently: do parents raise their children in general or do they throw them off at school to make us suffer with them?"

The continuity of educational sphere reformation has led to the breach of trust between a teacher and the administration of an educational institution. The expectations of teachers to the actions of management is reduced to their legal (protective) and motivational functions. In particular, in modern conditions the economic expectations of the pedagogical staff prove to be unsupported. The situation is aggravated by a high level of "paper" workload, including the innovative initiatives of the educational institution administration.

4. Discussion

The implementation of not only educational, but also upbringing functions of the school is associated with certain imbalances in the expectations of key actors. In modern conditions, the complications of the social environment, the actualization of younger generation growing risks, the expectations associated with the performance of educational functions are not realized. The pedagogical staff, overloaded with routine, paper work, mostly focuses on the performance of basic educational activities, the transfer of knowledge, believing that socialization and the upbringing of a child is the parental prerogative. Parents, in their turn, failing to cope with the influence of the external environment, the growth of information aggression and the propaganda of the consumer way of life make high expectations for the development of value-motivational attitudes of an individual within the school.

The implementation of the educational function in modern conditions is also largely associated with distorted expectations. The concept of "education quality" carries a different semantic load, it is identified with such characteristics as "the sufficiency of knowledge for the passing of USE and the admission to a university," "the development of abilities for further education," "the development of independent and critical thinking," etc. Such discrepancies reduce the probability of "an expected action" significantly. An additional negative incentive is the lack of coherence in the issues of parents' participation share determination in the educational process (the traditional functions of the school "to teach a child to read and write" are shifted to the shoulders of parents, a negative perception is caused by the need to provide material assistance to the school, etc.). A high level of tutoring service distribution is illustrated by the fact that nowadays the expectations of the parent community in the field of school education are not satisfied fully. Since the expectations are not justified, mutual trust does not arise, which leads to a number of dysfunctions, the lack of coherence and the consensus in the actions of educational space key actors. The most significant dysfunctions are the decrease of a teacher's authority (unjustified parental expectations are projected on the attitudes between students), the deformation of the institutional forms of student-teacher interaction, the decreased interest in learning by schoolchildren, conflict risks in the interactions between parents1 and the pedagogical staff.

Alienation is also characteristic for the interactions between the teaching staff and the school administration. The expectations of educational institution leadership are developed from the concepts of personal development declared by the authorities, the variability of educational programs, the competence approach on the one hand, and from rather stringent requirements to the results of the Unified State Examination and conflict-free interactions on the other hand. The perception of the pedagogical corps of the possibilities to realize one's expectations, the fairness of observing the parity of rights and duties is characterized by negative assessments of teachers.

Despite the fact that the state educational policy has set a course for public participation expansion in the management of education, there is a consistently low parental participation in this process (Rogach et al., 2017: 794). In the course of the focus group study, it was established that the parental and pedagogical community can not "agree" on their share representation in the processes of a child education and upbringing due to a number of reasons. The absence of a single analytical framework for the perception of the expectations, needs and interests of each other by parents and teachers entails the decrease of mutual trust level. In these conditions, the measures taken by the state to involve the public to the solution of the educational sector problems development (state-public management, the creation of expert and parental councils) (Frolova, Rogach, 2017) are not supported and perceived by parents as the way to shift the school functions to their shoulders.

5. Conclusions

In the course of the study, the team of authors identified the stable expectations of the parent and pedagogical community. The key expectations of parents, which limit the possibility of trust interaction development in the education system, are concentrated in the socially-role characteristics of the modern school. The educational institution is considered by parents as a social compensator of family and other dysfunctions, one of the key actors in the processes of younger generation upbringing, education and socialization. However, according to the results of the study, they determined that a modern school does not possess the necessary resource, personnel and socio-cultural potential (the decrease of the teacher's profession prestige, its authority among pupils and parents, etc.), which provokes the emergence of professional destructions among teacher activities and attitudes. A teacher's inability to meet the expectations of the parental community in the current conditions not only undermines the very possibility of trust between the key agents of the educational space, but also threatens an effective modernization of school education.

The functional weakness of the modern school and the deformation of the institutional forms of "student-teacher" interaction entails the discrepancy between the expectations of key interested parties and the actual practice of the educational process. The social attitudes between a student and a teacher, refracted in the prism of formal interactions between a "client" and the "provider of educational services", initiate the deformation of the educational space and the distortion of traditional roles.

The novelty of the data obtained in the course of the empirical study is the conclusion about the increasing boundaries of anxiety, the uncertainty of the parental and pedagogical community, and the risks of school education modernization. Accepting the assertion that trust is "an indispensable strategy for moving forward" as the constant the materials of the research work highlight the lack of positive motivation for educational space actors, the alienation in interactions between a family and a school, the lack of an effective managerial practice for constructive cooperation development.
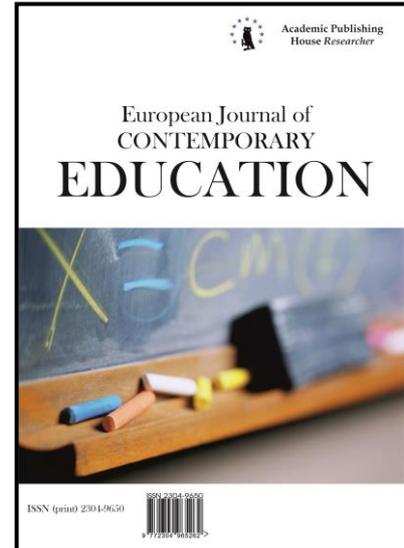
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Gender Differences in Savings. Case Study

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Abstract

Some basic financial topics such as savings and investment are important and required for a financially educated society. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to identify some characteristics that explain the savings habit of college students, as well as finding if this habit differs in relation to gender. For that purpose 60 students from the Universidad Popular Autónoma of Veracruz were surveyed and for data analysis, the statistical techniques used were Z scores to test population proportion and ANOVA to determine if there are differences by gender between the means. The main findings point to students having a savings habit, even though the amounts are minimal (< than $3,000.00 MXN ($160.00 USD) per month) and regarding gender differences, it was only proven that there is a difference in the variable INCOME, but not in the other three (Food Expenses, Mortgage Expenses and Savings).

Keywords: Savings, income, college students, gender.

1. Introduction

Savings is one of the most important aspects on the economic life of people, since it is the key to obtain financial Independence and accumulate wealth. Also, having savings allows for economic safety and being able to accomplish goals such as having your own business or acquiring an asset such as a house or a car. Savings can have different objectives as well: save to cover education or health care services, retirement planning or facing different kinds of emergencies.

However, nowadays there are limited saving choices since financial institutions like commercial banking do not offer investment products that guarantee long-term savings as such; this, due to the economic situation in the country, which has caused great instability in financial markets, as mentioned by García-Santillán, Escalera-Chávez & Venegas Martínez (2014).

Several organizations and authors have carried out researches providing relevant findings about the lack of savings habit and investment vision, an example of this is the study made by the

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National Banking and Stock Commission (CNBV for its acronym in Spanish), which obtained alarming numbers related to credits´ payments overdue in Mexico: the number is six time higher than it was at the beginning of the decade (CNBV, 2009).

On the other hand, the National Savings and Financial Services Bank (Bansefi for its acronym in Spanish) points out that the population using commercial banking is approximately 37 % of the economically active population. For the most part, this population is located in urban areas and thus, "only 13 % of rural households report Access to savings or credit instruments" (Gómez & Vega, 2006).

Therefore, it is possible to state that for dispositions on economic policy to work, not only must the government intervene, but it is also necessary that citizens are trained and informed in order to participate responsibly in the economy.

It should be noted that Bansefi (2009), mentions that popular savings and credit entities known as "cajas populares" (popular savings funds) are organizations that have traditionally focused on lending financial services to the lowest income population. The numbers from Bansefi indicate that the average loan from this savings funds users is $19,000.00 MXN or $1,000.00 USD approximately, which are destined to house construction or improvements, household expenses, business expenses, education and car expenses.

According to Klaehn, J., Helms, B. & Deshpande (2006), savings behavior is present at all socio-economic levels; nonetheless, a large part of the population uses informal instruments due to a lack of access to formal savings instruments in the financial market. Another obstacle that is mentioned is the fact that low-income people do not trust the financial system and this lack of financial knowledge prevents them from saving at formal financial institutions.

Data from the Financial Inclusion National Survey in 2015 show that the population does not know the financial products and services offered in the market, since 53 % do not know where to go in case of financial problem. Specifically, regarding savings, only 44 % have some kind of formal savings product and 51.5 % do not know the existence of saving accounts that do not charge fees.

Furthermore, the savings products more commonly used by Mexicans are payroll accounts (63 %) and savings accounts (40 %); however, 53 % of those with a payroll account and 44 % of those with a savings account do not know the fees charged to make use of these instruments. The former causes that in case of emergency, people resort to loans from family, friends or acquaintances to obtain resources (70 %) and the other choice is pawnshops, being informal sources which can be costly.

The relation between education and savings behavior was explored by Yoshino, Morgan & Trinh (2017), who proved in Japan that the level of education and financial literacy are positively and significantly related to savings and financial inclusion.

Because of the former, it can be considered that regarding educational aspects, nowadays college institutions have an important role in training, since society demands information in specific subjects that are vital in daily life and thus, college institutions provide spaces not only for students but for society in general. In this manner, social, business and government sectors, to mention a few, require intensive extra-curricular training courses, for example in financial topics, which are considered catalysts for economic growth, particularly in the case of savings.

After this approach to the importance of savings, it is pertinent to pose the study questions: what is the savings habit of college students? And, does savings habit differ in relation to gender?; this, the aim of this study is to identify the habit of college students regarding savings and if it differs in relation to gender. It could also be thought that, being college students – regardless of whether or not they work since they do get income from their parents -, then they could have and develop a good savings habit. From there, the hypotheses of this research are posed:

Ha1: College students have the savings habit.
H01: College students do not have the savings habit.
Ha2: Savings habit in college students differs in relation to gender.
H02: Savings habit in college student does not differ in relation to gender.

2. Literature review

Savings has been the subject of numerous research papers, mainly regarding retirement planning (Anderson, Baker & Robinson, 2017; Bucher-Koenen & Lusardi, 2011; Lusardi & Mitchell, 2007 & 2008; Van Rooji, Lusardi & Alessie, 2012) or savings behavior in relation to financial

literacy (Lusardi, 2004; Mandell, 2008; Mandell, Schmid Klein, 2009; Sabri, McDonald, 2010; Hamilton et al., 2012), besides being considered one of the financial topics that are part of financial inclusion and literacy (Bernheim, Garret, 1996; Chen, Volpe, 1998, 2002; Peng et al., 2007; Huston, 2010; Cameron et al., 2013; Zait, Bertea, 2015).

Another example of the former is the study by Bernheim, Garrett & Maki (2001), where the authors point out that taking a financial management course during basic education causes a positive effect in decision making in adult age in relation to savings, having a tendency to save a larger portion of income that when said education was not received. It must be noted that the database they used considered the 56 % of unbanked adults worldwide by accessing deposits, loans and financial laws promoting financial inclusion.

However, Mandell (2008) differs from the former; because of to the study he made for the *Jumpstart Coalition for personal financial literacy,* where senior-year students were surveyed measuring variables like: income, money management, savings and investment, expense and credit. Said work proved that financial behavior of young people will not change in time, hence their financial decisions have a negative effect in the economy, which translates to low savings rate and capital formation, low retirement savings and a higher distribution inequity of income and wealth.

On their part, Dupas & Robinson (2009) made an experiment in Kenya, where they selected random bank accounts from market vendors (mostly women) and bicycle taxi drivers (men), in rural areas. Said experiment proves that, despite the large fees to retire money, a large amount of women (40 %) used the accounts and were able to save more, even though the savings opportunities for women are limited. In this sense, results involve important savings and investment obstacles for women according to the study sample.

In this line of thought, Fazio (2009) mentions the importance of promoting savings habit and use of financial institutions services and states that there is evidence that having financial literacy enables the correct use of savings and investment instruments.

De Bassa Scheresberg, Lusardi, & Yakoboski (2014) made a study about personal finance of college educated young *millenials*; among their findings are the fact that 85 % have a savings account, despite being unprepared for economic emergencies, which seems like a contradiction, or is indicative that having a savings account does not imply that enough resources have been saved to face an emergency.

Specifically, saving behavior in college students have been analyzed in previous research, like the study carried out in Malasya by Sabri & McDonald (2010), who found that students with higher financial literacy are more likely to have better savings behavior and therefore, having fewer financial problems.

Once the literature review on savings has been presented, next the methodology used in this study is explained.

3. Methodology

This study is empiric and non-experimental because there is not a manipulation of independent variables (*X*) that modify the effect (*Y*), since they are observed as it happens. Also, it is descriptive and cross-sectional, approached from a quantitative perspective to determine if college students have the savings habit or not, as well as knowing if there is a difference in relation to gender.

3.1. Population and sample

As a result of the interview with directive personnel from the Universidad Popular Autónoma of Veracruz, it was considered pertinent to carry out a study that could provide an insight on students´ savings habit, as a first approach to monitor financial literacy of said institution´s students. Also, a relevant fact that should be considered is that these students attend college during weekends because for the most part, they work and thus, this schedule fits their needs.

Financial education is a current subject and efforts are being made worldwide to counter the lack of financial education in society; therefore, globally and specifically in the national context, the need for a financially literate society has been visualized, because it would mean a society that makes better financial decisions.

With these arguments, the study was made with the participation of students from the majors in: Social Work, Sports Education and Artistic Education. As a result, the determination of the

sample was not probabilistic, since it was selected by convenience, meaning that the population taken was comprised by the students from the previously described carriers and who were present at the moment of the survey application, which was during a weekend when they attended class.

60 students were surveyed, who comply with two basic inclusion criteria: the first was that they were present during the survey application and the second was that they were enrolled and valid, meaning, without owing any subjects from other semesters.

3.2. Instrument

The instrument was designed form a series of indicators regarding income and savings, as well as some socio-demographic data. The items considered in this study are from the test by Zamora-Lobato et al. (2017).

3.3. Measurement procedure

3.3.1. Z score to test population proportion for Ha1 and Ho1

Regarding the savings habit of college students, a Z score to test population proportion was used. This test seeks to measure the corresponding proportions about savings habit using the statistic Z

Consequently, the work hypothesis establishes that mostly, college students have the savings habit, on the contrary, the null hypothesis establish the negation to this assumption. So, in order to contrast the work hypothesis, the test of population proportion is used (Ho: p=0.5, Hi: p> 0.5). The decision criteria states that Ho is rejected if Z calculated > Z critical (tables), if the case is contrary Ho is not rejected.

The procedure of the test establishes that the statistic *Z* is obtained from the following mathematical expression:

$$Z = \frac{\hat{P} - p}{\sqrt{\dfrac{pq}{n}}}$$

P value= 0.0001
Tables´ value
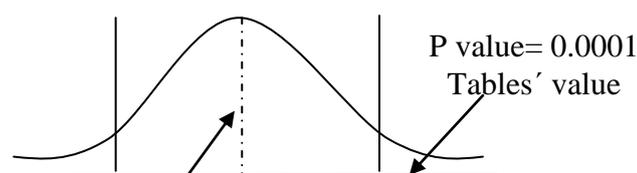
Where *x* = sample proportion, n= sampl   P= 0.5 ó Z=0 $\hat{P} = ¿?$ ó Z= ¿?

$$\hat{P} = \frac{x}{n}$$

3.3.2. ANOVA of one factor for Ha2 and Ho2

For the contrast of the hypothesis, the statistical procedure ANOVA is used in order to prove if the savings habit of the UPAV students differs in relation to gender. For that purpose the following format is established:

$$Ho : \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_1$$

$$Ha : \ni \mu_t \neq \mu \underline{\quad} j = 1, 2 \dots \dots, K$$

Based on theoretical criteria, to calculate the ANOVA it is required to comply with the assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity. K samples upon which treatments were applied are independent and the populations have the same variance (homoscedasticity). In this manner, the following elements intervene in the ANOVA procedure:

Total variation is given by: $SCT = \sum_{J=1}^{K} \sum_{i=1}^{nj} (x_{ij} = \bar{X})^2$ hence the intra-groups variation complies with:

$SCD = \sum_{J=1}^{K} \sum_{i=1}^{nj} (x_{ij} - \bar{X}_j)^2$ therefore, the global mean is represented by: $\bar{X} = \dfrac{\sum_{J=1}^{K} \sum_{i=1}^{nj} x_{ij}}{n}$. and finally, the inter-groups variation is: $SCE = \sum_{J=1}^{K} (\bar{X}_j - \bar{X})^2_{nj}$

Where: *Xij:* is the value i-esim of the sample j-esim; *Nj:* the amount of said sample and $\bar{X}$: the means.

If the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, SCE / K-1 and SCD / n-K are two unbiased estimators of the population variance and the coefficient between them is distributed according to *F* of Snedecor with K-1 degrees of freedom in the numerator and n-K degrees of freedom in the

denominator. The distribution is set out from the two variables X and Y, each with a Chi² with m and n degrees of freedom respectively: $X \to \chi_m^2$ y $Y \to \chi_n^2$

Therefore, if Ho is true, then it is expected that the quotient between both estimations is approximately equal to 1, so that Ho will be rejected if this quotient differs significantly from 1; next the data analysis is presented.

4. Data analysis and discussion
As a result of the data analysis, firstly the socio-demographic characteristics of the surveyed students are described. The frequencies obtained with their mean and standard deviation, as well as the Shapiro-Wilks statistic and the Kolmorogov test with Lilliefors correction and the value of P=0.00 are shown in graphics 1 through 6, with the gender, age, marital status, work status, type of job they have (considering they are employees who study on weekends) and lastly, number of family members.
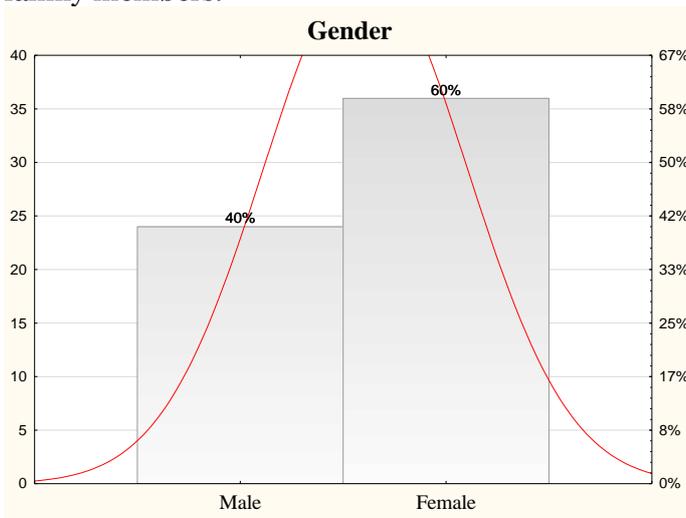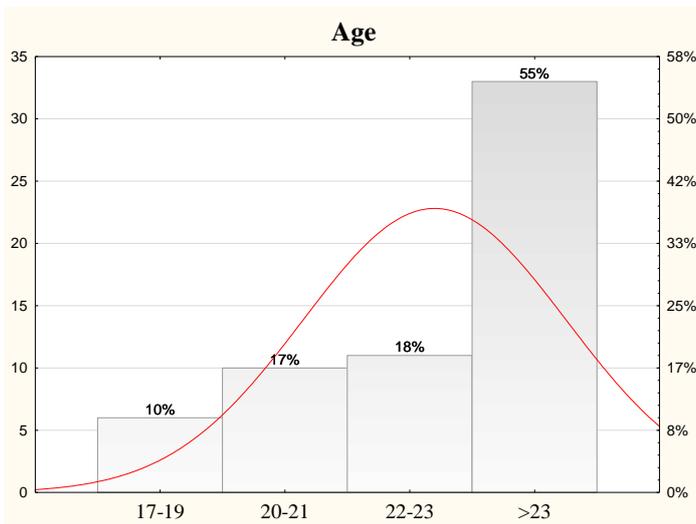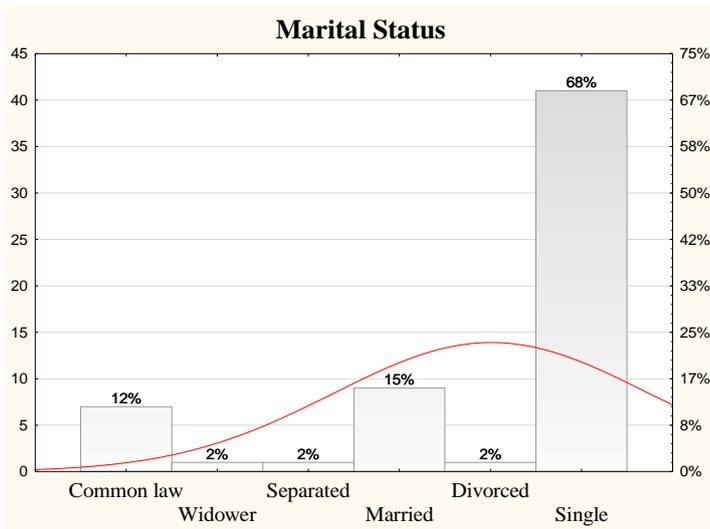

Fig. 1. Gender

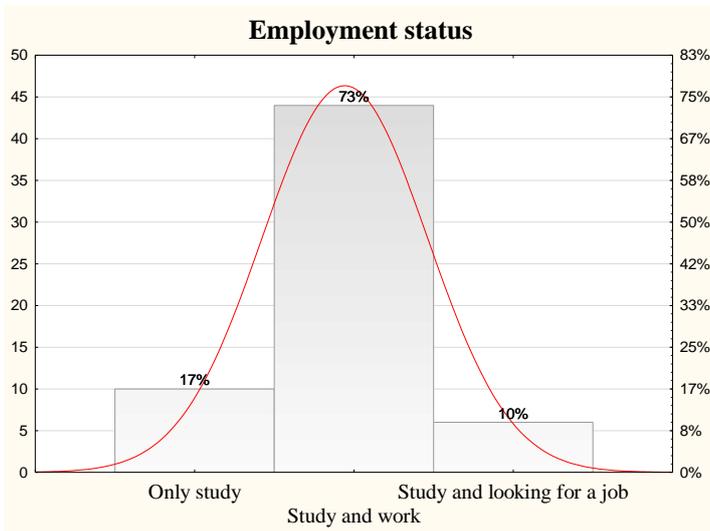**Fig. 2**. Age

Fig. 3. Marital status
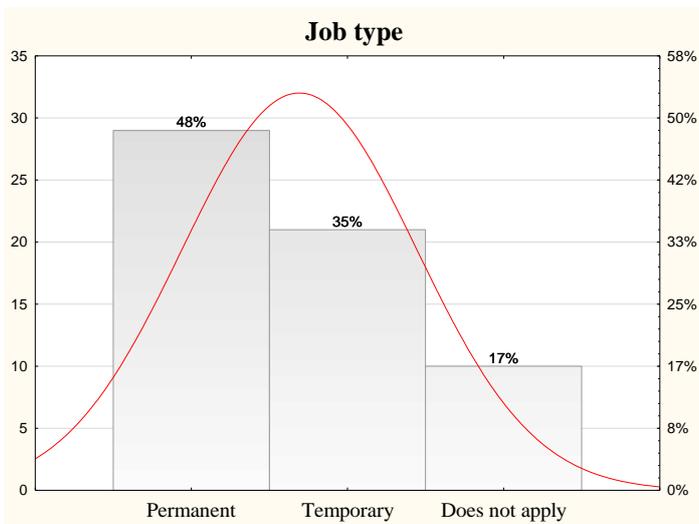

Fig.4. Employment status

Fig. 5. Job type
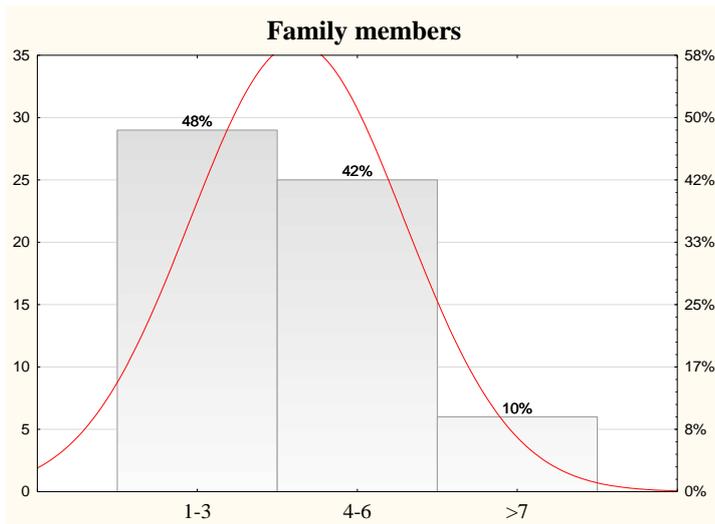
Fig. 6. Family members

Resuming, the most significant results from the student´s profile were: 60% are women whose age is over 23 years old, as proven by the larger percentage (55%) and their marital status is single (68%), they work and study as proved by the largest percentage obtained (72%) and their job type is permanent (48%). Finally, their families are composed by 1 to 3 members (48%). For the contrast of the hypothesis, the analysis of the corresponding statistical test (*Z* and ANOVA) continues.

Procedure for savings habit:

If p > 0.5 is not equal and is assumed as alternate hypothesis, it means that the null hypothesis is the affirmation that p = 0.5 and the value α=0.05 is considered for its level of significance. Hence, the basis is the asseveration that: H_O: p = 0.5 and H_1 p>0.5

Graphically, it can be observed that 92% of the surveyed students save very little, since option 1 refers to an amount lower than $3,000.00 MXN.
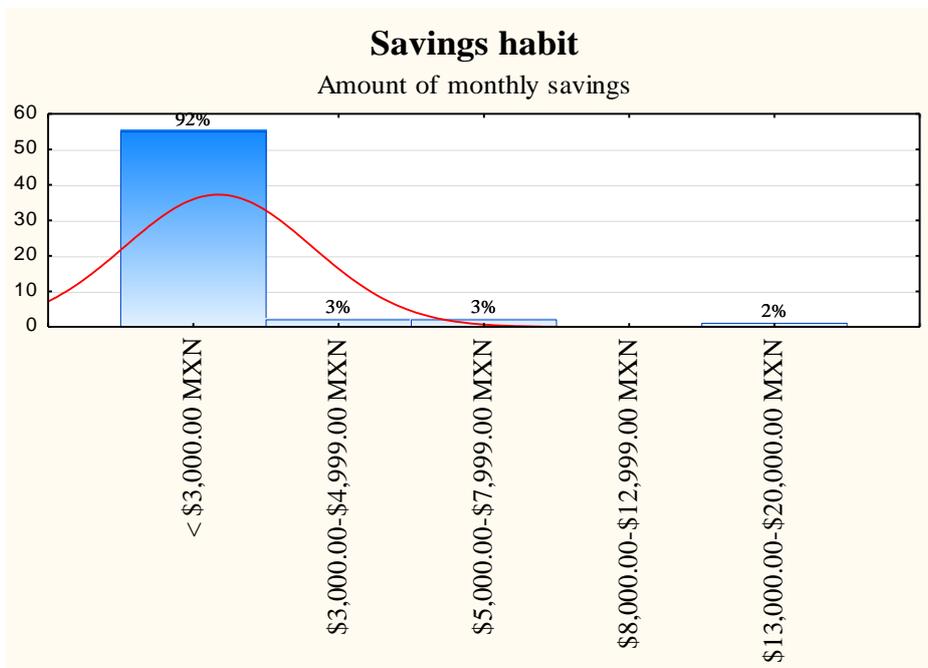
Fig. 7. Savings habit (monthly saving amount)

In such manner, to prove a population proportion p it is very important the sample statistic $\hat{p}$

$$Z = ?$$
$$\hat{p} = \frac{x}{n}$$
$$p = .5$$
$$q = 1 - p$$
$$n = 60$$

$$Z = \frac{\hat{p} - p}{\sqrt{(p)(q)/n}} = \frac{.92 - .50}{\sqrt{(.5)(.5)/60}} = \frac{.42}{\sqrt{(.25)/60}} = \frac{.42}{0.06454972} = 6.502$$

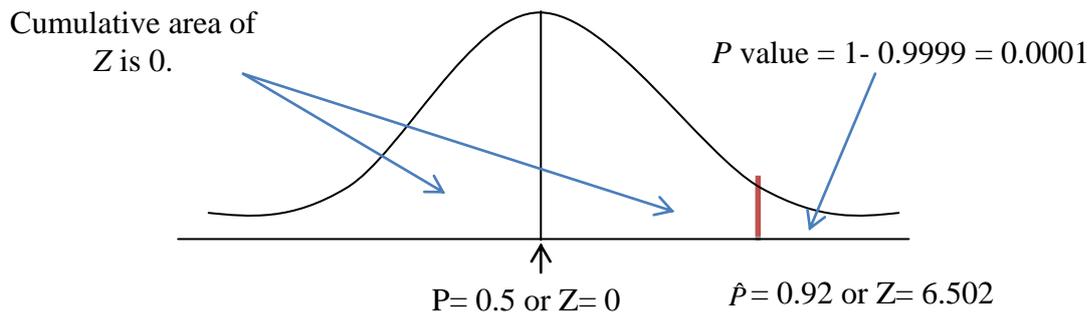$Z_{calculated}$ 6.502 is > a $Z_{theoretical}$ and the value of $P = 0.0001$ is < than the significance α=0.05, then Ho is rejected.

Cumulative area of Z is 0.

P value = 1- 0.9999 = 0.0001

P= 0.5 or Z= 0 $\hat{P}$= 0.92 or Z= 6.502

For the value of Z =6.502 we use the value 0.999 from the tables for the cumulative area on the left of Z value and the area on the right of the statistic Z is $1 - 0.9999 = 0.0001$ and if we consider that it is < to the significance level α=0.05 then there is enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

ANOVA for means differences in: income, expense and savings habit by gender

In table 2, the value of Levene statistic can be seen, which in Income is less than significance 0.05 and so, equality of variances is rejected in this factor. Nonetheless, for Food expenses, Mortgage expenses and Savings, significance is higher than 0.05, suggesting equality of variances.

Table 2. Variance homogeneity test

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Income	7.182	1	58	.010
Food expenses	2.583	1	58	.113
Mortgage expenses	2.157	1	58	.147
Savings	.735	1	58	.395

Among these lines, table 3 shows ANOVA with statistic F and its significance, which, as in table 2, supports the evidence that for factor Income the equality of variances hypothesis is rejected, not to in the factors: Food expenses, Mortgage expenses and Savings, where the significance is higher than 0.05, suggesting equality of variances.

Table 3. ANOVA

		Sum of squares	df	Quadratic mean	F	Sig.
Income	Inter-groups	9.344	1	9.344	10.104	.002
	Intra-groups	53.639	58	.925		
	Total	62.983	59			
Food expenses	Inter-groups	1.003	1	1.003	1.022	.316
	Intra-groups	56.931	58	.982		
	Total	57.933	59			
Mortgage expenses	Inter-groups	1.600	1	1.600	1.619	.208
	Intra-groups	57.333	58	.989		
	Total	58.933	59			
Savings	Inter-groups	.069	1	.069	.166	.685
	Intra-groups	24.264	58	.418		
	Total	24.333	59			

In table 3 the statistic F of the dimensions Food expenses, Mortgage expenses and Savings shows a significance level higher than 0.05, which leads us to conclude that there are no significant differences by gender.

Still, in the variable Income the significance value is lower than 0.05, which leads to the conclusion that there is difference between means.

Consequently, to identify the theoretical value of F with 1 df_1 in the numerator and 58 df_2 in the denominator, the closest value in the tables is taken, which is 60 df_2, so the F value is 2.791 from where, if the decision criteria is taken, we get that:

The value for calculated F for Income is 10.104 > critical F (2.791), rejecting the null hypothesis. The value of calculated F for Exp-Food is 1.022 < critical F (2.791), the value of calculated F for Exp-Mort-Serv is 1.619 < critical F (2.791), in both cases there is evidence to reject the null hypothesis, thus accepting the alternate hypothesis. Finally, the value of calculated F for Savings is .116 < critical F (2.791), not having evidence to reject the null hypothesis, rejecting the alternate hypothesis instead.

5. Final discussion and conclusions

The purpose of this study focused on measuring some aspects that explain savings habit in college students; also, another purpose was to identify if this behavior differs in relation to gender. The findings are described next.

Most of the students who answered the survey were female, whose age is 23 years old or more. Also, they are single and are dedicated mainly to their studies and work, being the latter permanent.

The ANOVA analysis proved that there isn´t any differences related to gender in the variables of Food expenses, Mortgage expenses and most importantly, savings behavior, even though there is a difference in the income they receive, which can be a reflection of the job inequity that prevails not only in Mexico but in many countries.

This data must be considered carefully since different studies have highlighted the role of women in several fields, both work and study related; this, because they are preparing more, as stated in the study of financial inclusion of women from the VI region (Salazar et al., 2017), where participation of women in financial area has increased. Regarding to savings, this study shows that more than 50% of women have some kind of savings capacity, even though their activities are

restricted to house work. Also, those who have some savings use them for housing, while a minimal percentage use it as savings.

Even though in this research where the subject of savings was approached specifically and no differences related to gender were found, some financial literacy studies have proved that still, there is an inequity between men and women, like the study by Chen & Volpe (2002), where female college students proved to have less financial knowledge than their male counterparts or the research by Moon, Ohk & Choi (2014) in China, who found that female college students have less financial education and opportunities than males, which causes great differences in their financial literacy related to gender.

On the other side, more than half of the students stated to earn an income that does not surpass the amount of $3,000.00 MXN per month and finally, most of them still depend on their parents, situation that is demonstrated by the large percentage of responses (42%), being a logic fact given that the surveyed college students remain single.

It is possible to express some considerations about factor 1, which refers to income by activity or job. The analysis reveals that income earned by job development of students is seen pessimistically, in comparison to the latest report from the Special Advisor of the UN General Secretary for Inclusive Financial Development, who points out that around 2,500 million adults nowadays are excluded from the financial system. In said report, the data from the Global Findex (2014) is taken, which in its 2014 database states that 80% of people living with less than $2.00 USD a day do not have accounts at any financial institution.

Other items that were measured were: food and mortgage expenses, which were integrated to the questions of the survey applied to the students. In the same line of thought, a series of indicators related to Income and Savings as well as some data for socio-demographic profile were added. All the items considered in the survey were taken from the test by Zamora-Lobato et al. (2017).

Among the findings of this survey applied to college students is the fact that they consider important and useful to have a budget for managing their resources, being able to identify that students perceive as important to have a higher income to cover their basic needs.

The former agrees with the research by Lusardi & Mitchell (2007), where respondents answer several questions that measure their preferences in literacy and financial risks, finding that many households are not familiar with economic concepts needed to make financial decisions, in such manner that there is a lack of financial literacy in young people and senior adults, who are not sufficiently informed about financial concepts, which causes grave consequences for savings, retirement plans, mortgages and other financial decisions.

Factor IV measures savings of college students, where it is clearly proved that savings habit in college is not enough and this is due to a lack of financial inclusion, as mentioned in other researches aimed to study the levels of financial knowledge, among which stands out the one by Bucher-Koenen & Lusardi (2011), who made a study about German households that included a series of questions about financial knowledge and the consequences of lack thereof.

It is also important to consider the environmental factors involved in college students´ savings habit, as proven by Hamilton, Shobe, Murphy-Erby & Christy (2012), who found out that even though the parents of young people from low-income households encourage their children to save, those families lack savings for the future or to reach a specific goal due to the lack of resources. In the case of students considered in this research, it can be observed that their income is limited and this may influence their savings capacity.

Perception is another fundamental element that must be considered regarding savings behavior, since for example, if a young person has a negative perception towards savings for the future, we would think that he/she will be less likely to have emergency savings or make a financial planning for the future (Atkinson & Messy, 2012).

From a specific context, the present study provides an insight to the savings behavior of college students in Mexico, particular, from Veracruz, proving that saving is still not enough, besides finding that there were not any significant differences related to gender in the studied population. Other research might enrich the existing information about savings from other contexts and also confirm if truly there aren´t any significant differences between genders in other places or population groups.

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Annex
Instrument
a.- Gender: Male ( )   Female ( )
b.- Age: _____ years old
c.- Marital status:
( ) Common law   ( ) Separated   ( ) Divorced   ( )
Widower   ( )Married   ( ) Single
d.- Current job status:
( ) Only study   ( ) Study and work   ( ) Study and looking for a job
e.- Job type:
( ) Permanent   ( ) Temporary
f.- Number of family members:
( ) 1-3   ( ) 4-6 ( ) >6
g.-How much do you earn for your job, activity or business each month?
    ( )   Less than $3,000.00 MXN ($160.00 USD approx.)
    ( ) $3,000.00 - $4,999.00 MXN ($160.00 - $264.00 USD approx.)
    ( ) $5,000.00 - $7,999.00 MXN ($265.00 - $424.00 USD approx.)
    ( ) $8,000.00 - $12,999.00 MXN ($425.00 - $689.00 USD approx.)
    ( ) $13,000.00 - $20,000.00 MXN ($690.00 - $1,060.00 USD approx.)
    ( )   More than $20,000.00 ($1,060.00 USD approx.)
h.-How much do you spend on food and groceries per month?
    ( )   Less than $3,000.00 MXN ($160.00 USD approx.)
    ( ) $3,000.00 - $4,999.00 MXN ($160.00 - $264.00 USD approx.)
    ( ) $5,000.00 - $7,999.00 MXN ($265.00 - $424.00 USD approx.)
    ( ) $8,000.00 - $12,999.00 MXN ($425.00 - $689.00 USD approx.)

( ) $13,000.00 - $20,000.00 MXN ($690.00 - $1,060.00 USD approx.)
( )   More than $20,000.00 ($1,060.00 USD approx.)

i.-How much do you spend on house or services per month?
( )   Less than $3,000.00 MXN ($160.00 USD approx.)
( ) $3,000.00 - $4,999.00 MXN ($160.00 - $264.00 USD approx.)
( ) $5,000.00 - $7,999.00 MXN ($265.00 - $424.00 USD approx.)
( ) $8,000.00 - $12,999.00 MXN ($425.00 - $689.00 USD approx.)
( ) $13,000.00 - $20,000.00 MXN ($690.00 - $1,060.00 USD approx.)
( )   More than $20,000.00 ($1,060.00 USD approx.)

j.-How much do you save per month?
( )   Less than $3,000.00 MXN ($160.00 USD approx.)
( ) $3,000.00 - $4,999.00 MXN ($160.00 - $264.00 USD approx.)
( ) $5,000.00 - $7,999.00 MXN ($265.00 - $424.00 USD approx.)
( ) $8,000.00 - $12,999.00 MXN ($425.00 - $689.00 USD approx.)
( ) $13,000.00 - $20,000.00 MXN ($690.00 - $1,060.00 USD approx.)
( )   More than $20,000.00 ($1,060.00 USD approx.)
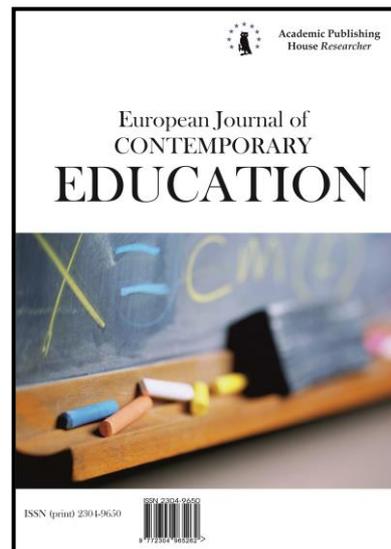
The History of Education

The System of Teaching Literacy in Company Schools of the Russian Army: the 1850−1860s Experience

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Abstract

The paper addresses the introduction of literacy schools for the lower ranks in the Russian army. The study primarily focuses on the teaching process, as well as on the used instructional techniques aimed to improve the education efficiency.

The materials include army orders, as well as publications by Russian officers in the Russian Empire's central military edition – the Voennyi Sbornik ("Military Collection") journal.

The methodological basis for the study is formed by principles of historicism and objectivity, traditional for this kind of research. It also employed analytical, probabilistic, statistical, typological and comparative methods. The method of historicism allowed for the use of diverse facts, uncovered in field work with sources, and subsequent identification of important phenomena and processes related to the organization of the teaching process in company schools. The paper also paid attention to the instructional techniques that were applied in the teaching process.

In conclusion, the authors note that the company literacy schools established in 1857 boosted the number of literate lower ranks. Classes in company schools were carried out in periods when military units were stationed in winter quarters. The term of study was no more than 3 years in these schools. The curriculum included a limited range of subjects such as reading, writing,

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arithmetic and Scripture knowledge. The teaching was performed by regimental officers who were given complete freedom in choosing methods to instruct learners.

Keywords: Russian army, 1850–1860s, company schools, study guides, books, literacy.

1. Introduction

At the end of 1857, the regiments of the Russian army saw the introduction of company schools designed to teach literacy for lower ranks. The teaching of the lower ranks first began in the guards divisions, and the successful experience gained was then extended to the army, the navy and non-regular units. In this paper, we would like to have a closer look at the experience that was accumulated in the teaching of the lower ranks in company schools.

2. Materials and methods

The materials include army orders, as well as publications by Russian officers in the Russian Empire's central military edition – the Voenny Sbornik ("Military Collection") journal.

The methodological basis for the study is formed by principles of historicism and objectivity, traditional for this kind of research. It also employed analytical, probabilistic, statistical, typological and comparative methods. The method of historicism allowed for the use of diverse facts, uncovered in field work with sources, and subsequent identification of important phenomena and processes related to the organization of the teaching process in company schools. The paper also paid attention to the instructional techniques that were applied in the teaching process.

3. Discussion

In the late 1850s – early 1860s, the Russian military press repeatedly discussed questions of enhancing literacy in the Russian army. For example, in 1858, the year that the Voenny Sbornik journal was created, it published an article "On the benefits of teaching literacy for the entire mass of Russian troops" (O pol'ze obucheniya gramote vsei massy russkikh voisk) (O pol'ze, 1858). This article topped a general interest to this topic in the next four years. It is known that Voenny Sbornik was monthly issued from 1858 to 1917. For example, already in the following year, in 1859, an article appeared "A few more words about the article: "On the benefits of teaching literacy for the entire mass of Russian troop," published in the 2nd issue of Voenny Sbornik in 1858" (Eshche neskol'ko slov po povodu stat'i: O pol'ze obucheniya gramote vsei massy russkikh voisk) (N.N., 1859). The same 5th issue of the journal published an article on the primary teaching Cossacks of literacy, written by A. Chebotarev (Chebotarev, 1859). The 6th issue of the journal brought up an important topic of regimental libraries. For example, N. Abel'dyaev reviewed the process of arranging regimental libraries in the active Caucasus army (Abel'dyaev, 1859). Importantly, many representatives of the Russian officer corps in the time stressed that corporal punishments practiced in the Russian army were ineffective, and it was necessary to replace them with universal literacy among the lower ranks (Klugen, 1859).

In addition, much attention was paid to the quality of training of the officers in the Russian officer corps (V.-skii, 1859). In 1860, an author, under a pseudonym V-Ch-ii, published an article on literacy in the army, where he outlined the experience of teaching reading and writing to the lower ranks (V-Ch-ii, 1860).

At the same time, the journal published materials on how to launch the teaching process in company schools (A.M., 1859; Ob ustroistve, 1858).

In 1861, the journal published a list of books in the Bibliography section, specifically designed to teach reading to the lower ranks (Bibliografiya, 1861). In 1862, an article by an anonymous author, titled "Schools and teaching teams in the army" (Shkoly i uchebnye komandy v armii), was published in the journal. The author focused on the extracurricular education of cadets and volunteers (volnoopredelyayushchiesya) in the army corps (Shkoly, 1862). In the same 1862, Voenny Sbornik published the article "On literacy in the army" (O gramotnosti v armii), which the author signed as Ne-voennyi (Non-military). In this article, the author raised the issues of teaching practices in army regimental troops that were stationed in winter quarters, i.e., at the time when they were supposed to take up literacy studies (Ne-voennyi, 1862).

4. Results

Following the end of the Crimean War in 1857, the command of the Russian army initiated the creation of company schools in regiments to teaching literacy, namely reading, writing and arithmetic, to the lower ranks (V-Ch-ii, 1860: 310). The responsibility of managing the schools was given to officers. To help them, the army allocated one literate non-commissioned officer or a private soldier for every 10 students. A company school should have 20 lower ranks enrolled from semi-literate privates, predominantly from candidates for non-commissioned grades. The period of studies was not determined by specific time, but was no more than three years. All those who failed to demonstrate good performance, that is, those who were not fit for graduation from school were expelled as incapable of learning to read and write (V-Ch-ii, 1860: 310; Natolochnaya et al., 2018: 226).

Classes in company schools were carried out from October to April, when the troops were stationed in winter quarters. Every year in April, two examinations were arranged for those who were to complete their studies in company schools. The first examination board included a battalion commander, a company commander and an officer who was in charge of the school. The secondary examination was administered by officers during musters by division and corps commanders. The second exam was mainly organized to check and assess the proficiency level of officers who ran the schools. The first examination had the greatest meaning to the lower ranks because they were assigned evaluation points at it. As the maximum score was 4, and no grades were awarded below one, all those who passed the exam were divided into four categories (V-Ch-ii, 1860: 310).

Points were awarded for each individual subject, namely: for reading, penmanship, dictation, arithmetic, abacus calculation and Scripture knowledge. The students were considered to finish a company school when they received an average of 3 full points (V-Ch-ii, 1860: 310-311). The teaching process often applied the Lancaster method which instructed to pronounce letters and write them simultaneously. This method required only a wooden board and a piece of chalk.

For beginners' course in reading, a large cardboard alphabet was recommended, and a cheap way to write was offered by using chopsticks on sand spread in a thin layer in wooden frames or simply on a table (V-Ch-ii, 1860: 311).

To buy the required writing implements, it was allowed to spend one ruble per month for each company school, and also subscribe for a soldier's journal for this money, which was quite comprehensible to the lower ranks. It is noteworthy that as early as in 1847, a volition of Emperor Nicholas I started the journal "Reading for the soldier" (Chteniye dlya soldata) in Russia. On March 3, 1859, Order No. 41 gave the troops of the Caucasian army a strong recommendation to subscribe for this journal to provide moral education to the lower ranks (Izvlechenie, 1859: 159). It means that the recommended subscription for this edition was valid for troops stationed in the interior Russian regions, as well as for army troops deployed in the combat zone.

To encourage literate lower ranks, it was ordered to promote them to non-commissioned officers and corporals mostly before their illiterate comrades-in-arms.

Teaching literacy in schools was required to be taken to the level at which each of the students could fluently write from dictation and read. It was allowed to have bad but legible handwriting. In addition, the student was to know the first four mathematical operations with numbers using the abacus for calculations. Arithmetic, however, was taught only after the student had achieved a good command of writing and reading techniques. Nevertheless, the company school curriculum included training the skills in executing official documents that the lower ranks might need to submit from time to time. For example, it was required in case of any temporary duty, e.g. to redeploy a squad, accept a food supply, property, etc. (V-Ch-ii, 1860: 311)

In addition, teaching reading and writing to soldiers was carried out by different officers as funds and time permitted, regardless of company schools (V-Ch-ii, 1860: 312). Similar training was arranged for the Cossacks. When analyzing the experience of teaching the Cossacks of the Ural Cossack Host, it is important to remember that literacy levels were quite high in some cities, for example, in Uralsk with 14 % of the population (Chebotarev, 1859: 95). The Cossacks here were also taught in winter. The studies typically began in the middle of November and ended in the middle of February. In this period, the Cossacks were efficiently trained in writing from dictation, reading, abacus counting and multiplying.

At the level of battalions in the Russian divisions, teaching literacy was assigned to battalion adjutants (N.N., 1859: 89). In the late 1850s, it was founded out that about 10% of Russian soldiers were able to write and read, and they had the duty to teach others. As a motivation, it was explained to the lower ranks that a literate serviceman got priority in moving higher up the career ladder, and in case of the resignation, a literate soldier had a chance to become a clerk in the village (N.N., 1859: 90).

Now let us proceed with a description of the training system. Company schools were recommended to use the works by Zolotov As a methodological material, namely the author's brochure detailing the instruction method, a brochure on introducing into the reading technique, developed by the author for appanage (udelnye) agricultural schools, and a brochure with tables for Zolotov's methodological materials. However, it should be noted that officers could choose not to follow these instruction materials, but make use of the methodology that they believed to be more efficient (V-Ch-ii, 1860: 312).

We would like to provide an overview of various methods of teaching reading.

The Lancaster method, despite its seemingly simple and cheap application opportunities, was adopted in few company schools, because teaching with this method proved to be much more difficult and time-consuming in practice than teaching by the standard synthetic method. The latter implied starting with the alphabet from a textbook or table, then proceeding to syllables and finally to reading. At the same time, a writing course was separated from reading, as it was difficult for a soldier to memorize simultaneously the forms of printed and cursive letters. Writing lessons began already at the time when soldiers learned the alphabet, syllables and moved to reading phrases. In many company schools of the Russian army, soldiers were taught writing using a slate and a grapholite or diluted chalk and a black wooden board, rather than using chopsticks on the sand. As a result, soldiers perfectly mastered the alphabet with samples of writing in two or three classes (V-Ch-ii, 1860: 312).

The Zolotov method was not often implemented in the army, and this was caused by different conditions in which students were placed in company schools. The common point of the two teaching methods was that students, with rare exceptions, were released from all service duties. Classes took place three times a week, were carried out simultaneously for the whole school and by the same officer – the head of the school. It meant that students were on an equal footing. However, the difference lied in the fact that the Zolotov method was supposed to teach people who were completely illiterate, while company schools often accepted self-taught students with some knowledge of the alphabet. Hence, company school officers had to reteach self-taught soldiers, instead of teaching them from the very basics. Army officers noted that it was much more challenging to reteach soldiers than to learn from the very beginning (V-Ch-ii, 1860: 313).

As a result, company schools had the lower ranks that needed to be retaught and those few that needed initial training. In this connection, it was not expedient to introduce the Zolotov method, since there was only one teacher per 20 students. Therefore, teaching was built for all on equal grounds, but to instruct beginners, schools often engaged non-commissioned officers, who, of course, had no idea of the Zolotov method. Thus, the experience of the first years of company schools in regiments demonstrated that the use of the synthetic method had a greater effect than the Zolotov method. This explained why the heads of company schools proposed to improve the synthetic method, and general debates on this issue ensued on the pages of Voenny Sbornik. For example, the article "On the organization of schools in the army" (Ob ustroistve shkol v voiskakh) made an attempt to improve the synthetic method of teaching reading and to this end advised to first learn vowels, explain the difference between vowels and consonants, and when naming consonants, always follow one ending, for example, *[e]*, to facilitate memorization for students (Ob ustroistve, 1858).

The author of the article "Something on literacy in the army" (Koe chto o gramotnosti v voiskakh) indicated that it was difficult to introduce a new pronunciation of letters, since both the soldiers, who had already learned the alphabet, and the teaching soldiers learned based on the old method of letter pronunciation, and it was much more difficult to be re-learnt than to learn something anew (A.M., 1859).

However, we cannot say that the Zolotov materials were not employed by company schools. His tables proved to be highly efficient. For example, when students learnt syllables in company schools, the Zolotov tables were very helpful. With these tables, it was in fact possible to teach

soldiers to read by syllables in just several lessons. By studying all kinds of syllables, both direct and reverse ones, using cardboard letters, putting various consonants to vowels alternately, the officer accompanied this operations by reading the tables of words made of the already learned syllables (V-Ch-ii, 1860: 315-316).

Speaking of Zolotov's books for beginners, published for appanage agricultural schools, they fully met their objectives. However, there were very few of them (only 2 per school), and schools heads offered to provide all students with this manual.

Classes in company schools were held three times a week, before and after lunch, and twice a week after lunch. Before lunch, classes were given from 8 to 11 am, and after lunch – 2 hours, from 3 to 5 pm. The rest of the time was devoted to the war service training, such as weapon handling, shooting theory and other (V-Ch-ii, 1860: 316). The choice of such a schedule for literacy lessons was explained by the fact that winter afternoon hours were very short and inadequate to achieve any satisfactory results in teaching soldiers to read and write.

On a reading lesson, the lower ranks were given various books, and soldiers began to read aloud. Officers believed that this was the only way to monitor the learning process during the course. However, this type of monitoring over the reading soldiers by the officer was only cursory, because the officer could not control more than 5-6 soldiers at a time. It turned out that on average, each officer could give a soldier only 11.5 hours per year. This was the reason why students with less prominent faculties were expelled from company schools three years later (V-Ch-ii, 1860: 317).

Another serious issue was that soldiers had different books on reading lessons. If everyone was given the same text, everyone could read the same thing, as it was practiced in educational institutions. This way one would read, and others would only follow his reading in their books; while the teacher would only correct and explain mistakes to one student, and the rest class would absorb these explanations. This method could further contribute to students' progress if not the officer himself provided explanations, but asked more capable students to do it, and, by correcting or prompting them to think, he would be able to convey the explanation of the subject to the soldiers themselves (V-Ch-ii, 1860: 318).

There were situations when officers gave home assignments on reading to each student, but soldiers had to learn the same lesson for a few days, because the officer had no opportunity to interview everyone in one lesson. In addition, a practice was in place when officers read the best articles from journals such as "Reading for soldiers" (Chteniye dlya soldata) and "Narodnoye chteniye" (People's reading).

The writing course began only when soldiers could fluently read. At writing classes, officers first used diluted chalk on a black board, while showing how to hold the pen and explaining basic calligraphic rules. When students developed proficiency in the rules of writing strokes and circles, they proceeded to the lowercase and uppercase alphabet, and then the soldiers, who showed good performance, were given copybooks. This was again followed by the training in strokes. It was necessary for learners to get used to writing on paper. Before they began to write from dictation, soldiers were given home assignments – copy texts from books. On lessons, the teacher asked every student to read his home text and corrected some major grammatical errors that learners were required to know of.

After learners mastered the writing technique, officers proceeded to dictations first by separate words, and then by whole phrases.

Teaching arithmetic stood out for numerous methods used. Some schools adopted a more practical approach to arithmetic by only making students learn the names of the numbers that were included in the first four mathematical operations. Other schools did not do it, but only explained to soldiers how to perform the operations, and required a learner to do the operation itself without any explanations. There were cases when officers combined theory and practice and continued to teach in this way until a soldier was able to explain what the material. To accelerate the learning process, officers required that learners learn by heart the rules from books and notes given by officers to soldiers. A similar variety of methods was peculiar to teaching numbers. There were officers who required memorizing single figures, tens, hundreds, thousands, etc.; other officers, seeing how hard it was for soldiers to cope with numbers, limited the task to a million or a hundred thousand. There were also officers who used the methodology published in the article "On how a company commander taught numbers intricacies to his company" (O tom, kak rotnyy komandir uchil svoyu rotu tsifirnoy mudrosti) in "Reading for soldiers" (Chteniye dlya soldata) in 1859.

However, teaching also used an alternative method. For example, all students were divided into four groups, according to the level of the learning material completed. The officer focused on the first and last groups alternately, while the two medium groups were assigned to a non-commissioned officer or to students who knew the first four operations well. The officer often checked the instructors and guided them in rule explanations. With this teaching method, the entire learning process took place in the classroom, no books and notes were handed out, except for practical exercises for those who had already understood all four rules. To check whether a soldier did a sum himself, the teaching officer made him describe how he started to solve the problem and why he did it this way rather than otherwise. At the same time, the officer explained what should have been done if the problem was solved incorrectly (V-Ch-ii, 1860: 320).

The Scripture knowledge was one of the easiest subjects for teaching in company schools. Because succeeding in the subject only required the knowledge of key prayers and the Ten Commandments. As a result, officers only had to explain their meaning. If officers had some time left, they taught the scripture history to soldiers and elaborated on the main duties of a Christian. It is important to note that soldiers liked this subject very much, and the first book that a soldier bought for his extra money was a prayer book.

The experience of teaching soldiers in company schools showed that literacy came most easily to young soldiers, while senior conscripts had to struggle very much to complete the course. It is also important that soldiers preferred solving arithmetic problems to reading books (N.N., 1859: 92). From our viewpoint, this was explained by the applied value of arithmetic that could be used both to calculate a salary, count property items, and later in civil life.

As for the leisure time arrangement, a major role was given to regimental libraries the Russian army. The significance of regimental libraries dramatically grew if the troops were deployed in remote garrisons at outposts in the combat zone, for example, in the period of the Caucasian War. In this environment, books were the primary leisure activity – a relaxation from service – for officers. However, the catalogs of regimental libraries included very few military books, and a vital part was played by Russian literary periodicals, history books and 2-3 books on mathematics. All other books were novels and technical literature for subject-matter specialists. In other words, there was the problem of library collections created at random (Abel'dyaev, 1859: 420).

Speaking of the books for soldiers, they were divided into three categories: religious books referred to the first one, the second one included textbooks, and the third one included books intended for didactic reading (Bibliografiya, 1861: 219).

The first category had the recommended "Fundamentals of Christian teaching" (Nachatki khristianskogo ucheniya) and "Biblical history in short legends, borrowed from the sacred books of the Old and New Testaments" (Bibleyskaya istoriya v kratkikh skazaniyakh, zaimstvovannykh iz svyashchennykh knig vetkhogo i novogo zavetov). The second category allowed to use "Russian Alphabet" (Russkaya Azbuka) by V. Zolotov and "Russian Alphabet for the masses of people" (Russkaya Azbuka dlya narodnykh mass) published by Lermantov and Co. Finally, the third category included a magazine for the lower ranks "Soldiers' talk" (Soldatskaya beseda) and "Zolotov's talks in the training fencing class" (Besedy Zolotova v uchebnom fekhtoval'nom klasse) (Bibliografiya, 1861: 219).

5. Conclusion

Thus, the company literacy schools established in 1857 boosted the number of literate lower ranks. Classes in company schools were carried out in periods when military units were stationed in winter quarters. The term of study was no more than 3 years in these schools. The studies included such subjects as reading, writing, arithmetic and Scripture knowledge. The teaching was performed by regimental officers who were given complete freedom in choosing the methods to instruct students.

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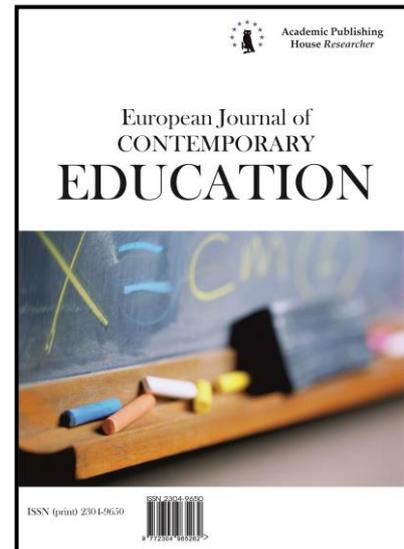
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Regional Problems of Public Schools in the Russian Empire in 1869–1878 (using an example of the Vyatka Province)

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Abstract

The article deals with regional problems of primary education in the Vyatka province of the Russian Empire during the period of 1869–1878. The author pays attention to the development of one-year and two-year schools, reveals the characteristic features of education development and takes into account regional specifics.

The Complete Collection of Laws of the Russian Empire was used as materials, as well as the reports published in the Ministry of Public Education journal; the author also uses scientific publications on Russian public education during the studied period.

In order to construct methodologically theoretical conclusions related to the result processing, we used a set of special analytical methods of research, including analysis and synthesis of results, abstraction, and the methodology of assumption. As a result of the application of analytical techniques, it was possible to systematize the information obtained and use it more effectively for theoretical conclusions related to the effectiveness of the public education system on the territory of the Vyatka province.

In conclusion, the authors note that the primary schools management in the Vyatka province had its own peculiarities. Thus, an attempt by the Zemstvo to switch a number of primary schools to their own expense had led to the inhibition of the development of regional public education by 1875. In addition, a characteristic feature of the region was that the Zemstvo reform completely eliminated church and parish schools, which again were re-open only in 1871. The common feature of the Vyatka school and national public schools was an increase in the number of girl students in rural schools.

Keywords: public education system, the Vyatka Province, 1869–1878, schools.

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1. Introduction

The system of public education in the Russian Empire was experiencing a period of active development in the second half of the XIX century. It should be mentioned that the "Decree on city schools" was adopted in Russia in 1872 (PSZRI, 1872, vol. XLVII. № 50909). According to this Decree all the province schools were renamed into city schools with an increase in the number of classes, thus improving the quality of education. This Decree affected 402 province schools (Shevchenko et al., 2016: 368). In addition, the government made efforts to unify the teaching techniques in primary schools at that time. For this a special set of rules was adopted for the primary public schools (Cherkasov, Smigel, 2016: 421; Rozhdestvenskiy, 1912).

This article focuses on one-year and two-year schools, which were in different departmental subordination in the Vyatka Province.

2. Materials and methods

The Complete Collection of Laws of the Russian Empire was used as materials, as well as the reports published in the Ministry of Public Education journal; the author also uses scientific publications on Russian public education during the studied period.

In order to construct methodologically theoretical conclusions related to the result processing, we used a set of special analytical methods of research, including analysis and synthesis of results, abstraction, and the methodology of assumption. As a result of the application of analytical techniques, it was possible to systematize the information obtained and use it more effectively for theoretical conclusions related to the effectiveness of the public education system on the territory of the Vyatka province.

3. Discussion and results

The problem of the development of public education in the Russian Empire was actively discussed since the early 1830's. At the same time, in 1834, the Ministry of Public Education began to publish its own journal – Journal of the Ministry of National Education.

As in 1869 there were 370 primary schools on the territory of the Vyatka province, and by 1878 their number had increased by 191, having reached a total number of 561 (Nurminskiy, 1878: 33). In other words, the number of schools in the province increased by 21 per year. However, if we consider this issue in detail, one can notice that the increase in the number of schools continued only until 1785. In 1875, 1876 and in 1877 it decreased, in comparison with 1874 (Table 1).

Table 1. Number of elementary schools in the Vyatka Province in 1869–1878

Years	Number of schools	Dynamics
1869	370	-
1870	397	+27
1871	478	+81
1872	509	+31
1873	572	+63
1874	603	+31
1875	591	-12
1876	576	-15
1877	559	-17
1878	561	+2

Considering the number of schools, we can observe the increase in all counties, although it was not evenly spread. For a visual introduction to the distribution of the number of schools in the counties, see (Table 2).

Table 2. Distribution of schools in the counties in different years

County	Number of schools			
	1869	1874	1878	%
Vyatka	38	45	46	8,2%
Glazov	27	59	49	8,7%
Elabuga	39	57	50	8,9
Kotelnich	31	44	38	6,8
Malmyzh	17	49	48	8,6
Nolinsk	31	49	46	8,2
Orlovsk	37	50	46	8,2
Sarapul	69	99	77	13,7
Slobodskoy	24	49	49	8,7
Urzhum	17	49	52	9,3
Yaransk	40	53	60	10,7
Total	370	603	561	100

Comparing the given indicators, we can observe an increase in the opening of schools in all the counties. Although in a number of counties at this time there was a significant increase in the number of primary schools. Thus, in the Urzhum county the number of schools increased by more than 3 times, in the Malmyzh county – by 2.8 times and in the Slobodskoy county – by more than 2 times. It is important to note that the counties with the smallest number of schools in 1869 had a sharp increase in their number. As a result, the number of schools in the counties became more equal by 1878.

It should be noted that most of the schools in the counties were subordinates to the Zemstvo. On January 1, 1864 Zemstvos got the right to open and run schools according to the Zemstvo's reform (Kalachev, 2011: 23). The schools were divided into two types: city and rural schools. "Regulations for the primary public schools" was later adopted on June, 14, 1864. It referred to the schools of all departments — the Ministry of Public Education, the Holy Synod (parish schools) and others. According to the "Regulations" all schools, regardless the department to which they belonged, had a unified curriculum (Law of God, Church and Civil lectures, Writing, Arithmetic, Choir) (Bychkova, 2009: 16).

In 1869 there were 23 city schools and 34 rural schools in the province. After 9 years the number of city schools increased by 11, and rural – by 180. Public organizations played an important role in public education at that time. For example, the Literacy society, which opened its' branches in various provinces of the Russian Empire (Kapranova, 2007: 201).

Table 3. The number of city and rural schools in 1869-1878

Year	City schools	Rural schools
1869	23	347
1870	28	369
1871	32	446
1872	30	479
1873	33	539
1874	32	571
1875	35	556
1876	34	542
1877	34	525
1878	34	527

Table 3 indicates that the number of city schools did not change a lot. However, it must be taken into account that some decrease in the number of schools did not occur due to the school closing, but due to their transfer to a higher level (for example, girls' parish schools became girls'

gymnasiums). This allows us to assert that the number of city schools was constantly growing. The number of rural schools reduced for quite obvious reasons. It should be noted that the primary schools were financed not only by the State treasury, city and rural societies, religious institutions and the Zemstvo, but also by the clergy and private individuals. The latter, as a rule, were severely restricted in funds and were supported only by the diligence of their founders. This group of schools had a great change in number. The table below indicates the distribution of schools by their financing sources (Table 4).

Table 4. Schools by their sources of financing

Year	Schools financed by:							Non-financed schools		
	State Treasury	Religious institutions	City Societies	Rural Societies	Zemstvos	% Of donated money	Total	Established by the clergy	Est. by the private individuals	Total
1869	-	-	9	2	347	1	359	-	11	11
1870	4	-	11	2	359	1	377	5	15	20
1871	10	2	12	2	374	1	401	65	12	77
1872	12	11	11	2	393	1	430	67	12	79
1873	12	11	10	2	396	1	432	110	30	140
1874	13	17	10	2	403	1	446	145	12	157
1875	14	17	11	2	402	1	447	134	11	145
1876	16	10	12	2	392	1	433	136	7	143
1877	16	28	11	2	424	1	482	66	11	77
1878	17	28	11	2	433	1	492	66	2	69

Table 4 indicates that the number of schools with permanent funding was constantly increasing. Only in 1876 there was a noticeable decrease, but then the number began to increase again. The number of non-financed schools was constantly subjected to strong fluctuations. The nature of this phenomenon was that such schools were at the expense of individuals. But since the aforementioned schools did not have financial support, they could not afford a large number of students. In this regard, the schools of the second group had almost no influence on the literacy of the population, and on the number of students.

Analyzing Table 4 it should be noted that the number of schools financed by the State treasury was steadily increasing. In 1869 such schools didn't exist and by 1878 17 of them had been opened. The number of schools that were supported by local funds remained unchanged**.** The number of schools, which were supported by the funds of city societies, also insignificantly increased (from 9 to 11). The great increase was in the number of schools that were funded by the religious institutions and the Zemstvo. The Vyatka province had its own specifics, and we will dwell on this in more detail.

When the Zemstvo institutions were opened in the Vyatka province, in January 1867, they were asked to take the elementary schools on their expense. At that time the elementary schools were run on a fee from the peasants (9 kopecks per year from each peasant) (Nurminskiy, 1878: 38). In many counties the Zemstvo accepted to pay only a part of the school expenses, while the other part was assigned to be paid by the local rural societies. The Zemstvo of the Vyatka province financed all the number of schools. This principle persisted during the first years of new schools opening. At that time, some cities also took advantage of this situation, transferring their schools to the maintenance of the Zemstvo, in order to reduce city expenses. As a consequence, city and rural societies did not increase the number of schools on their expense. At first, when there were a few schools, such an order of things did not present any difficulties and most of the Zemstvos opened

new schools willingly. But as the number of schools grew, it turned out that only the Zemstvo could not meet all the needs of education. The difficulties were not only in significant funding, but also in the economical management, and therefore they were forced to increasingly strengthen their offices. Only after that the Zemstvo decided to turn to rural societies with a proposal of school co-financing. However, the rural communities practically did not support the idea of introducing a new tax. The Zemstvo stopped opening new schools, inviting the rural communities to co-finance, and getting no response from the latter. This led to a drop in the number of schools. However, since 1877 the Zemstvo again began to finance the public education and the number of schools began to increase.

While the Zemstvo assemblies tried to get co-financing from rural societies, parochial guardianship appeared in the regions. It is important to note that the schools were always more loyal to the parish church, than to rural authorities. Church guardianship historically had a close connection with school. As a result, by 1878 there were 21 schools in the province, which were financed by church and parish guardianship. It is should be mentioned that in 1874 there wasn't any school of that type and during that period of time, the rural societies did not open any school. In addition to this, guardianship participated in running the Zemstvo and State schools. The example of their activity is the following: in 1877, Izhevskoe guardianship (Sarapul Province), renovated a local school building, spending 2,500 rubles. (Nurminskiy, 1878: 40).

Another feature of Vyatka province was that there were no noble landowners in the region, and, consequently, there were no people who would encourage the villagers to help public education. It is also important to note that in several regions of Russia the Zemstvo educational reform of 1864 sharply reduced the number of parochial schools. In the Smolensk province there were about 800 parochial schools in 1862. After the Zemstvo reform, the number of schools began to decline drastically (due to the transition of pupils to Zemstvo schools) and by 1869 the number of parochial schools in the province dropped to 113 (Ivochkin, 2010: 60), which was almost 8 times less.

All schools were divided into one-year and two-year curriculum. In 1869 there were no two-year schools, but in 1878, there were already 9 of them. There were 4 of them subordinated to the Ministry of Public Education, and 5 - to the Zemstvos.

The schools were divided into boys', girls' and mixed schools. In 1869 there were 269 boys' schools, 57 girls' schools, and 44 mixed schools. In 1878 there were 110 boys' schools, 59 girls' and 392 mixed schools. Thus, compared with 1869, the number of boys' schools decreased by more than two times, the number of girls' schools increased only by 2, while the number of mixed schools increased by 9 times (Table 5).

Table 5. Number of schools by type

Year	Schools		
	Boys'	Girls'	Mixed
1869	269	57	44
1870	272	54	71
1871	260	67	151
1872	272	72	165
1873	259	81	232
1874	251	77	275
1875	236	75	280
1876	151	69	356
1877	110	59	390
1878	110	59	392

The data given in Table 5 shows that the number of boys' schools was in decrease, the number of girls' schools changed but didn't increase much and the number of mixed schools increased constantly. The reasons for this phenomenon were a constant increase in the number of girl students, which resulted in the transformation of boys' schools into mixed ones. On the other hand, this could be explained by the inability to have a sufficient number of separate girls' schools. It was

more profitable for the Zemstvo institutions to run two mixed schools than a boys' and a girls' school in one village. It is necessary to explain that boys' schools were run by male teachers. A significant number of female teachers came from the women's teachers training colleges to work in mixed schools in the early 1870's (Kornilova, Magsumov, 2017: 352-366; Ikonnikov, 1876).

There were schools for Russian and foreign children. The schools for foreign children were open by the Ministry of Public Education and the Vyatka Committee of the Missionary Society. In 1878 there were 20 schools of this type, 8 of them were supported by the Ministry, and 12 by the Committee. These schools were opened in remote places, mostly in villages with foreign population. It is necessary to admit that the teachers who could speak the local foreign language were selected to work in those schools.

Let us consider the total number of schools in relation to the population and the territory of the province. In 1869 there was 1 school for 362 square kilometers and 6394 inhabitants, and in 1878 – for 239 square kilometers and 4465 inhabitants. We see that the number of colleges rose sharply, despite natural population increase. Let us consider the number of students in primary schools. In 1869 there were a total number of 12.713 pupils in 370 schools, and in 1878 in 571 schools – 28.694 pupils. It is important to note that while the number of schools increased by only 191, or 51%, the number of students increased by 125%. Thus, the increase in the number of students was faster than the increase in the number of schools. In 1869, each school was accounted for 34.3 students, and in 1878 - 51 students (Nurminskiy, 1878: 44).

Table 6. Increase in the number of students by years

Year	Boys	Girls	Both genders	Dynamics
1869	10973	1740	12713	-
1870	12615	2309	14924	+2211
1871	15166	2954	18120	+3196
1872	16578	3382	19960	+1840
1873	18794	3940	22734	+2774
1874	20207	4506	24713	+1979
1875	19878	4422	24300	- 413
1876	21271	4471	25742	+1442
1877	23642	5007	28649	+2907
1878	23687	5007	28694	+45

A decrease in the number of students in 1878 was due to the lack of data (the data collection was carried out only in the first few months). This number increases throughout the years, decreasing only in 1875. Analyzing the data in Table 6, we find a gender imbalance. Thus, there were 82.9 % of boys, and 17.4 % of girls in the total number of students. It is interesting to note that since 1869 the number of boys in schools increased by 115 %, and the number of girls – by 187 %. This fact clearly demonstrates that the increase in the number of girls in schools was faster.

Of the total number of 28694 students, 2,617 studied in city schools and 2,677 in rural schools. Thus, 9.1 % of the total number of students were studying in city schools, and 90.1 % – in rural schools. Since city schools accounted for only 6 % of the total number of schools, it becomes evident that city schools had more students than rural ones. In fact, every city school accounted for an average of 79.9 students, and for each rural school this number was 49.4.

This distribution of students between city and rural schools is presented in Table 7.

Table 7. Distribution of students by years

Year	Number of students in city schools			Dynamics	Number of students in rural schools			Dynamics
	Boys	Girls	Total		Boys	Girls	Total	
1869	1143	472	1615	-	9830	1268	11098	-
1870	1275	432	1707	+92	11340	1877	13217	+2119
1871	1301	514	1815	+108	13865	2440	16305	+3088

1872	1400	525	1925	+110	15178	2857	18035	+1730
1873	1479	614	2093	+168	17315	3326	20641	+2606
1874	1637	690	2327	+234	18570	3816	22386	+1745
1875	1931	757	2688	+361	17947	3665	21612	-774
1876	1918	724	2642	-46	19353	3747	23100	+1488
1877	1885	732	2617	-25	21757	4275	26032	+2932

From the data given in Table 7 it follows that the number of students in city schools at the indicated time increased by 1002, that is 62 %, and the number of students in rural schools increased by 14934, that is, by 134.5 %. Thus, the increase in the number of students was due to rural schools. This can be explained by the fact that there were a lot of students in city schools in 1869, as well as the fact that more schools were opened in the majority of the villages. Considering the increase in the number of students in city and rural schools by gender, we can see that in city schools the number of boys increased by 742 or 64.9 %, and the number of girls – by 260, or 55 %; in rural schools, the number of boys increased by 11,927, that is 12.13 %, and the number of girls by 3007, that is, by 237.1 %. Thus, the smallest percentage of the increase is in the number of girl students in city schools, and the largest – In the number of girl students in rural schools. The comparatively small percentage increase in girls' enrollment in the city schools is due to the fact that in the studied period, women's progymnasiums with preparatory classes were opened in the province cities, which replaced primary schools in provincial schools, so in some province governorates (6 out of 10) there were no special primary schools. A significant percentage increase in the enrollment of girls in the villages indicated a rapid awareness in the agricultural sector of the need for women education.

It is important to note that women's higher education was actively developing and the first women's training colleges were opened to train women teachers in the late 1860's in the Russian Empire (Zinchenko, 1901: 26).

4. Conclusion

In conclusion we would like to note that the primary schools management in the Vyatka province had its own peculiarities. Thus, an attempt by the Zemstvo to switch a number of primary schools to their own expense had led to the inhibition of the development of regional public education by 1875. In addition, a characteristic feature of the region was that the Zemstvo reform completely eliminated church and parish schools, which again were re-open only in 1871. The common feature of the Vyatka school and national public schools was an increase in the number of girl students in rural schools.

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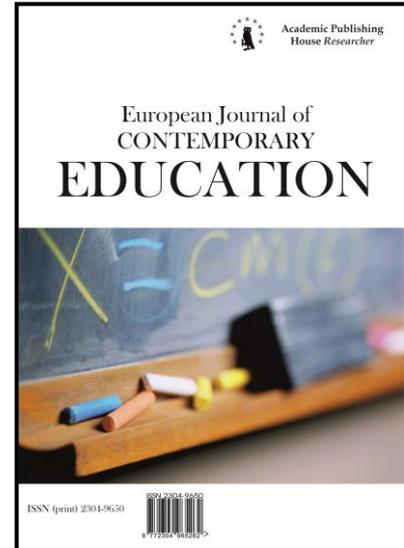
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The Class List of Secondary Educational Institutions' Pupils in Siberia at a boundary of the 19th-20th centuries

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Abstract

The class list of secondary educational institutions' pupils of Siberia in the second half of the 19th – the beginning of the 20th centuries is investigated in the paper. It was established that the growth of people belonging to different social classes among pupils was observed in these institutions by the beginning of the last century. However this tendency proved to be differently in educational institutions of different type.

In this context more conservative approach on the part of state gymnasiums of the Russian Empire was observed. The growth of people belonging to different social classes happened much more slowly in these institutions. An essential part of graduates was made by children of noblemen, officials and other privileged groups throughout the long period of time.

More democratic school admissions were characteristic for secondary professional, non-classical secondary and commercial schools. For the last the possibility to pay for training, but not the class origin of pupils was the main condition. Besides, there were no restrictions practically to enter teacher's seminaries and institutes because of a low salary of elementary school teachers that, in turn, caused the low attraction for the representatives of privileged groups to enter these institutions.

The conclusion has been drawn that the education system in the Russian Empire at a boundary of the 19th-20th centuries developed at the intersection of contradictions between the needs for modernization of the Russian economy and the conservative efforts made for maintaining traditional social structure by the power.

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1. Introduction
The differentiation of citizens according to their class origin accepted in society, among others, influenced on the formation of pupils' staff of educational institutions in the Russian Empire. In the second half of the XIX century children of noblemen and officials predominated among other students at the universities, gymnasiums and other types of educational institutions. For example, in 1892 children of officials and noblemen have made more than a half of all pupils (56 %) in man's progymnasiums and gymnasiums. At the same time about a third of pupils of such educational institutions were made by representatives of urban classes (31 %). Hardly insignificant specific weight of pupils is attributable to people from rural sector (6 %) (Tolochko, Skovordina, 2002: 29-31).

However this tendency gradually changed. The strong growth of people belonging to different social classes among pupils of secondary educational institutions was observed by the beginning of the 20th century. This tendency distinctively appeared in Siberia, considering greater democratic character of the population in this region.

2. Materials and methods
The empirical basis of a research was made by means of documents from the State Archive of the Tyumen region (SATR), the State Archive of the Irkutsk region (SAIrR), the State Archive of the Tomsk region (SATR), Historical Archive of the Omsk region etc.

The statistical method which has allowed to carry out the comparative analysis of statistical data on the phenomena of social life in the second half of the 19th - the beginning of the 20th centuries; a method of the content analysis by means of which the content of archival documents containing data on belonging of secondary educational institutions' pupils to these or those state classes of society, data about activity of pupils' parents in such educational institutions have been investigated; the historical and system approach which has allowed to reveal interrelations between different historical events and facts, to systematize the established data; the narrative approach by means of which the identified facts and historical events have been stated in a consecutive order were applied in the research.

3. Discussion
The activity of primary and secondary educational institutions in Siberia at the turn of the 19th-20th centuries is the subject of scientific interests of the scientists investigating different aspects: the structural arrangement of educational activity (Shamakhov, 1957; Sulimov, 1995; Verkhoturova, 2002; Gach, 2009) sports and patriotic education of pupils (Tolmacheva, Ustinova, Zubareva, 2017), research and cultural life (Dudgeon, 1982; Vermeer, Van Der Ven, 2003; Priests, 2006; Haminov, 2011; Ustinova, Skifskaya, 2017).

Not numerous works of scientists published at the beginning of the last century are devoted to social and demographic characteristics of Siberian students (Chepalov, 1914; Yenisei, 1915).

It should be noted that the research of state of secondary educational institutions' pupils including Siberia was not paid the sufficient attention in works presented today. The corresponding aspects, either were not affected in general, or were considered briefly – among the numerous other questions connected with functioning of secondary school of Siberia during the studied period.

4. Results
As it appears from numerous historical documents up to the end of the 19th century the government in every possible way tried to limit availability of secondary education to people from "unprivileged" social classes. The establishment of the increased amount of a tuition fee and also the existence of a certain educational qualification were used as methods and means of such restrictive control quite often.

According to the known historical document of June 18, 1887 – to the Circular "About the reduction of gymnasia education", to ironically nicknamed in the people as "the circular about the

servants' children", educational administration was recommended to allow to enter only children of wealthy parents, that is those who consist on guardianship at persons who can provide "sufficient guarantees" about the correct house supervision and also "necessary conveniences to studies" in a pro-gymnasium and gymnasium (Russian..., 1994: 286-287).

As it was explained in the report of the national education minister I. Delyanov, at observance of this rule the gymnasiums and pro-gymnasiums would be exempted from entrance of children of cooks, laundresses, footmen, coachmen, small shopkeepers and "similar" except gifted children, it was impossible to bring them out of that environment to which they belong (Rozhdestvenskiy, 1909: 43).

It should be noted that the imposition of limitations has been caused by the fact that persons who graduated from gymnasiums have been granted the preferential right to enter higher educational institutions. However, in the first half of the 19th century achievements in the career of people have been determined not by their state, but, first of all, by the level of their education as it was proved by B.N. Mironova. Education, social activity and wealth have begun to play even more significant role in post-reform Russia in the career. Due to this precise reason the aspiration of democratic classes' representatives of society to knowledge was clear and logical. Thus, it is possible to note that in the Russian Empire the education system developed on a joint of great contradictions between the conservative efforts initiated by authorities for maintaining traditional structure of society, and the needs for a modernization of the Russian economy, became actual by this period of time.

However already by the beginning of the 20th century the formation process of "classless" civil society inevitably resulted in the growth of specific weight of people belonging to different social classes among the studying youth. It became obvious even concerning pro-gymnasiums and gymnasiums taking the leading positions in the hierarchy of secondary educational institutions. Opportunities in the sphere of graduation from the secondary educational institutions by representatives of the lowest social classes began to extend even more in days of the First Russian revolution (Kamenskiy, 2009: 29; Krasnoyarsk..., 1974: 47; Dianin, 1926: 73). If by the beginning of 1905 people from rural sectors made the minority of pupils in these educational institutions of the Russian Empire (11,3 %), and children of officials, noblemen and representatives of urban sector-most of them (81,1 %) (Titlinov, 1924: 37), from 1907 to 1914 the share of graduates from families of officials and noblemen has decreased up to 32,5 %, from families of merchants and honorable citizens – up to 9,9 % respectively. The share of peasants' children, on the contrary, has increased up to 20 %, having made the fifth part of all students in man's pro-gymnasiums and gymnasiums of the country by this time (Sulimov, 1995: 131-132). At the same time according to the data provided in V.R. Leykina-Svirskaya's research, the number of pupils in man's gymnasiums has increased almost by one and a half times (from 107,3 thousand up to 152,1 thousand people) (Leykina-Svirskaya, 1985).

It is possible to note that in general the processes reflecting changes in the class structure in secondary educational institutions' pupils of Siberia were congruent with the general tendencies in the educational sphere occurring in the country and had its own specific character. So, for example, the specific weight of pupils from families of officials and noblemen was about a half (47,5 %) from the total number of pupils of educational institution in a man's gymnasium in Krasnoyarsk in 1900. Also the substantial share of pupils has numbered on children of handicraftsmen, lower middle class and merchants of the second guild (41,3 %). At the same time the specific weight of peasants' children was only 5,6 %, and honorable citizens and merchants of the first guild was even less – only 1,9 % (Krasnoyarsk..., 1974: 38-40).

In 1915/16 academic year in the Yenisei man's gymnasium an essential part of pupils was made by pupils from families of lower middle class (33 %), clergy, noblemen and officials (27 %). The smaller share of pupils fell on peasants' sons (16 %), merchants and honorable citizens (9 %). A big share of people from the lower middle class in gymnasiums and significantly smaller specific weight of representatives of the peasantry has been caused, among other, and features of inhabitants' of the Eniseysky province (Krasnoyarsk..., 1974: 42; Rushin, 1956: 67).

As the outstanding historian F.F. Shamakhov noted in one of his researches, children of handicraftsmen made about 40% in secondary educational institutions of Siberia by 1905. At the same time children of officials and noblemen – about 35 %, Cossacks and peasants – 17 %, clergy - 3,5 %, merchants and honorable citizens – 4,5 %. It is necessary to notice that by 1914 the share of

handicraftsmen children has decreased up to 33 %, however their gross specific weight in total of all studying youth also remained very high. Also the general share of officials and noblemen children was in parallel reduced (to 29 %). However in the same time the share of children of Cossacks and peasants has grown to 25 %, merchants and honorable citizens (to 7 %) and also clergy (Shamakhov, 1957: 126).

Besides other statistical information, data that in educational institutions of different types, for example, the list of pupils in non-classical secondary schools and gymnasiums significantly differed as it was described by F.F. Shamakhov. In state gymnasiums, as a rule, this list was to a lesser extent democratic in spite of the fact that the share of commoners gradually grew. (Shamakhov, 1957: 127).

This tendency is distinctly observed on the example of some Siberian gymnasiums. For example, during the period from 1905 to 1917 among man's gymnasiums' graduates the general share of noble families' children and also children of officials has decreased from 54,6 to 36,4 % in Tomsk. At the same time the specific weight of children of merchants and honorable citizens was reduced from 15,9 to 7,9 %. However at the same time the share of pupils from families of clergy (from 1,6 has grown to 5,5 %), peasants (from 4,6 to 18 %), handicraftsmen (from 22,9 to 29,4 %) (Shamakhov, 1957: 144).

In private gymnasiums the list of pupils differed. Children of those who had an opportunity to pay for training were enlisted in educational institutions of this type, even without having the privileges connected with class origin (Gach, 2009: 95-96).

By 1913, for example, 249 schoolgirls were trained in the female gymnasium №3 in Omsk which was opened in 1907 as a private educational institution (Stariy…, 2000: 127-128). There were 18 daughters of noblemen (7,2 %), 4 daughters of representatives of clergy (1,6 %), 25 children of merchants and honorable citizens (10,1 %), 62 daughters of peasants (24,9 %), 21 - Cossacks (8,4 %), 59 – from families of the lower middle class (23,7 %), 60 daughters of citizens having other class origin (24,1 %) among pupils (BU "ISA". F. 62. Op. 1. D. 10. L. 85-86).

Thus, in the mentioned gymnasium the prevalence of pupils from the peasantry and the lower middle class is evident, and the pupils of the noble origin – is relatively insignificant. (Verkhoturova, 2002: 53).

In the non-classical secondary schools which were educational institutions for municipal, mainly commerce and industrial population, the list of pupils in comparison with gymnasiums, was regulated even less. For this reason the share of people from unprivileged social groups was high (Sulimov, 1995: 41-42).

The specifics of class list of realists from Siberia was visually represented on the example of non-classical secondary school in Tyumen where among 261 pupils who were constantly living in this city – children of officials and noblemen have made approximately the third part (84 people or 32,2 %), children of merchants and honorable citizens – 33 (12,6 %), clergy – 3 (1,1 %), lower middle class – 89 (34,1 %), peasants – 48 (18,4 %), pupils from families belonging to other class origin – 4 (1,6 %) in 1907 (SATyumR. F. I-1. Op. 1. D. 514. L. 58-59).

On the basis of the presented data it is possible to draw a conclusion that the specific weight of children from the families of the lower middle class was significantly higher, than in gymnasiums. At the same time the share pupils from noble families was lower.

The similar proportional ratio is visible on the example of two Tomsk non-classical secondary schools where according to the data stated by F.F. Shamakhov a share of children of merchants, noblemen and clergy made about 36 % while the specific weight of children of peasants, handicraftsmen and lower middle class was at the level of 64 % by 1917 (Shamakhov, 1957: 93-94).

The list of pupils in secondary special educational institutions differed by even more expressed democratic character and freedom (Boykov, 1930: 27). First of all, it was explained by the fact that there were no restrictions of class character upon entering. On the other hand, the graduates have significantly been limited in their right for entering the higher educational institutions. For these reasons secondary professional educational institutions were not popular with officials and persons of noble origin (Sulimov, 1995: 71-72).

For pupils from unprivileged classes the low school payment had the special fascination in comparison with non-classical secondary schools and gymnasiums. Besides, pupils of some such educational institutions had the opportunity to study using the state subsidies and grants. As a result under these circumstances about 28,3 % of pupils from families of noblemen, 25,2% –

peasants, 24 % – lower middle class, 13,3 % – merchants and honorable citizens were trained in secondary special professional institutions in the Russian Empire by the beginning of the last century (Rozhdestvenskiy, 1909: 33).

Due to the government grant pupils in teacher's seminaries and institutes received education mainly. However the insufficiently high status of elementary school teachers caused by the low level of their salary could not attract youth from wealthy families in such educational institutions (Leontyeva, 1997: 24-25). For this reason the essential specific weight of pupils in these institutions was made, as a rule, by pupils from peasant families. The information about the class list of pupils in the teacher's institute of Irkutsk confirms this tendency (table 1).

Table 1. The state distribution of pupils in teacher's institute of Irkutsk as of 1/1/1917 years (SAIrkR. F.65. Op. 3. D. 5. L. 14-15)

State	Number of pupils	In %
Peasants	21	46,7
Workers and lower middle class	12	26,7
Cossacks	3	6,7
Honorable citizens	1	2,2
Clergy	1	2,2
Foreigners	1	2,2
Others	6	13,3
In total	45	100

As it appears from the data presented in table 1 – 45 pupils were registered at teacher's institute in Irkutsk, and about a half of them (46,7 %) belonged to peasants' families by the beginning of 1917. The majority of pupils had an opportunity to study free of charge (Shinkareva, 2002: 28). For example, 12 students who have entered the teacher's institute in 1916 got the grant approved by the Ministry of national education (SAIrkR. F.65. Op. 3. D. 5. L. 14-15).

However even in those educational institutions where payment for training was high (for example, in commercial schools), the absence of obvious restrictions of class character when entering has predetermined the tendency consisting in prevalence of children from the lower middle class, merchants, honorable citizens and peasants in these institutions. So, in F.F. Shamakhov's research it is mentioned that this specified tendency at secondary school in Tomsk was distinctly shown from the moment of this educational institution establishment in 1901 (Shamakhov, 1957: 85-88).

The list of pupils in the private commercial school founded in Tyumen at the expense of famous merchants Kolokolnikov was similar (Kratkaya…, 1995: 327). The Kolokolnikovs became famous for the extensive charity and patronage (table 2).

Table 2. The distribution of pupils of the Tyumen commercial school by social groups and state (1912/13 and 1914/15 academic years) (SATyumR. F. I-92. Op. 1. D. 69. L. 11-12)

Class structure and social groups	Academic years			
	1912/13		1914/15	
	Number of pupils	%	Number of pupils	%
Lower middle class	64	33,2	106	40,5
Peasants	60	31,0	66	25,2
Merchants and honorable citizens	40	20,7	43	16,4
Noblemen	14	7,3	16	6,1
Clergy	4	2,1	7	2,6
Foreign citizens	6	3,1	6	2,3
Representatives of other classes	5	2,6	18	6,9
In total	193	100	262	100

Thus, pupils from the lower middle class quantitatively prevailed among pupils of the considered commercial school. And their share has increased as of 1914/15 academic year by 7,3 %. The essential specific weight in the structure of pupils in the Tyumen commercial school during this period was occupied by children of peasants, merchants and honorable citizens while the share of pupils from families of noblemen and clergy was rather small.

It is necessary to explain that belonging of that or other person to any class did not represent either a type of activity, or an occupation, or level of financial security, or the place of residence by the beginning of the 20th century any more.

At the same time class characteristics did not appear for a key feature which would define the attribution of the studying youth to some certain category of citizens any more. The pupils' accounting by their parents' class, existing for a certain time in statistical reports of secondary and the primary educational institutions only approximately corresponded to a professional and social status of the persons' families studying there. Much more indicative was accounting by "a kind of activity pupils' parents", accepted and officially approved in trade and industrial and commercial schools (Rozhdestvenskiy, 1909: 48; Rashin, 1956: 87).

Data about pupils' parents of the Tyumen commercial school (table 3) would be presented below as an example.

Table 3. The distribution of Tyumen commercial school pupils by their parents' activity in 1912/13 and 1914/15 academic years (SATyumR. F. I-92. Op. 1. D. 73. L. 16-17).

Kind of activity of pupils' parents	Academic years			
	1912/13		1914/15	
	Number of pupils	*the Share, in %*	*Number of pupils*	*the Share, in %*
Representatives of the commerce and industry capital	87	45,1	113	43,1
Commerce and industry employees	50	25,9	61	23,3
Employees of state institutions and persons with liberal professions	42	21,8	62	23,7
Workers, handicraftsmen, servants	12	6,2	23	8,8
Workers of agricultural sector	2	1,0	3	1,1
The persons occupied in other kinds of activity	-	-	-	-
Total	193	100	262	100

As it appears from figures on table 3, the representatives of the commerce and industry capital, commerce and industry employees and also employees of state institutions and persons of liberal professions quantitatively prevailed in Siberia. Authors came to a conclusion that actually there were officials, representatives of the bourgeoisie and also the intellectuals mainly.

The comparison of these tables permits to assume that the kind of parents' activity and their state quite often did not coincide among themselves. So, for example, according to 1914/15 academic year's documentation approximately every fourth pupil belonged to the peasantry. At the same time parents of only three pupils (1,1 %) were engaged in work of agricultural character as a primary activity. On the basis of the foregoing, it is possible to note that person's origin was quite often stated only nominally. At the same time neither the type of professional activity of the person, nor his education was established.

Nevertheless, for maintaining traditional structure of society of the power intentionally regulated class structure, and not only pupils of averages, but also the lowest educational institutions, but also and students of higher education institutions.

5. Conclusion
Summing up the result, it should be noted that, despite the created origin restrictions in the sphere of education, secondary educational institutions became more democratic by the end of the 19th– the beginning of the 20th centuries. At the same time the share of people belonging to different social classes among pupils constantly increased. This tendency developed in the sense of the formation of "classless" bourgeois society; however it was shown more distinctly in the territory of Siberia, than in the central part of the empire. More "democratic" structure of the Siberian population was the reason of this fact.

Nevertheless, the tendency for the growth of people belonging to different social classes has created special conception, beliefs, and the system of values and behavior of its representatives in the general structure of secondary educational institutions' pupils. The prevalence of people from unprivileged classes in the general social structure of the Siberian outskirts' inhabitants has caused poverty of an essential share of secondary educational institutions' pupils of Siberia.

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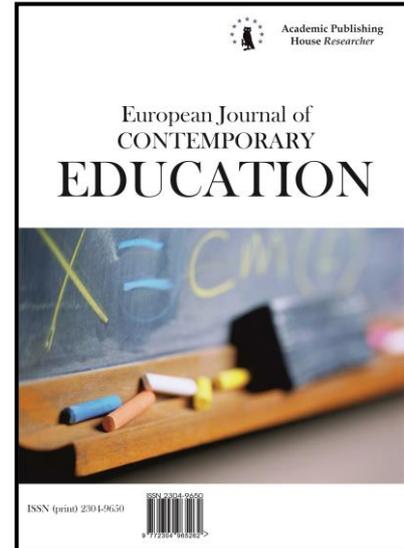
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Organization of Pupil Government in Teaching Activities of Stanislav Shatskii (through the example of Rural Summer School-Colony "The Invigorating Life")

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Abstract

This paper attempts to analyze the educational work of Stanislav Shatskii which was aimed at the formation and development of pupil government. His first pedagogical experiments were carried out in the early twentieth century. He made a great contribution to the development of pedagogical theory and practice. The russian educator Stanislav Shatskii paid a lot of attention to the formation of a children's team, the development of pupil government in the learning process. He organized educational and research work in experimental school-colonies. Its purposes, structure and functions were one-of-a-kind in the world. The educational model of Stanislav Shatskii can serve as a basic matrix for the specialized education of modern Russia, as it contains the grounds, means and mechanisms for the implementation of learning and educational strategies that meet the interests of society, mentality and social basis of the russian people.

Keywords: Thomas Shu, pupil government, settlers, "The Settlement", "The Invigorating Life", Narkompros (People's Commissariat of Education).

1. Introduction

Stanislav Shatskii (1878–1934) was a Russian and Soviet educator, who devoted his entire teaching career to the creation of a new school. Shatskii's pedagogical activities began in 1905, when he was engaged in the creation of a system of out-of-school and preschool work with children. Shatskii and his colleagues developed the so-called "Russian system of education". This system was dominated by a broad social approach, which allowed giving children an all-round

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development (labor, physical, aesthetic). In Shatskii's opinion, self-organization and autonomy played an important role in the activities of children's groups. Shatskii saw pupil government as an instrument of settlers' organization, as well as a stage of socialization, allowing pupils to gain the necessary skills for adult life. Many of his pedagogical ideas were recognized as innovative and advanced ones not only in Russia but also abroad.

2. Materials and Methods

The documents of Scientific archive of the Russian Academy of Education, the pedagogical works of Stanislav Shatskii and his colleagues, the works of other Russian researchers devoted to the activities of Shatskii served as sources in the presented study. The analysis of archival sources and scientific pedagogical literature has made it possible to form the theoretical basis of our study.

The system-structural analysis is used to model the structure of pupil government of the school-colony "The Invigorating Life" (*transliteration of Cyrillic pronunciation in Latin letters –* Bodraya Zhizn').

The use of general scientific methods of research: systematization, comparison, generalization of data made it possible to characterize the main stages of Stanislav Shatskii's educational activities in terms of defining their social and pedagogical significance.

3. Discussion

At the beginning of XX century, the theory of free education was popular among the leading Russian educators. The representatives of this educational direction in the Russian pedagogy are L.N. Tolstoy, I.I. Gorbunov-Posadov, K.N. Wentzel, etc. Shatskii also shared the ideas of free education at the beginning of his pedagogical career. He admired the thoughts of L.N. Tolstoy about the need for consolidation of students into a single united community, the development of creative imagination and artistic education of children (Scientific archive of the Russian Academy of Education of the Russian Federation, F. 1, archival unit 195, P. 15).

The works of pre-revolutionary researchers who were engaged in the study of pedagogical activities of Stanislav Shatskii include a few scientific papers of his fellow colleagues. Thus, the Russian teacher and architect A.U. Zelenko analyzes the collaborative pedagogical work with Shatskii on the creation and development of the children's community "The Setlement" in his article "Modern reformers of education and upbringing" (Scientific archive of the Russian Academy of Education of the Russian Federation F. 1, archival unit 4, P. 5). In another work, "Conversations with the reader. Family or public education", A. U. Zelenko considers the experience of children's institutions' organization which was headed by Shatskii. He gives examples of pedagogical techniques aimed at creative and environmental education of children (Zelenko, 1912).

Quite a large number of scientific works was devoted to Stanislav Shatskii's pedagogical activities in Soviet times. In 1923 there was published an article by academician M.N. Skatkin "The first Experimental Station for Public Education". It analyzed the results of the Station's activities for four years. M.N. Skatkin revealed the main tasks and directions of children's collective development based on the pedagogical theory of Stanislav Shatskii (Skatkin, 1923).

D.S. Bershadskaya in her work "Pedagogical views of S. Shatskii" studies the activities of the Russian educator related to the organization and development of the colony "The Invigorating Life" (Bershadskaya, 1960).

In the textbook "History of pedagogics" there were highlighted the main stages of the creative career of an outstanding teacher in the article by A.N. Volkovsky and M.N. Skatkin "S. Shatskii, his pedagogical views and activities" (Konstantinov, 1955).

In 1962 and 1965 V.I. Shatskaya, M.N. Skatkin prepared the collection of S. Shatskii's works in four volumes for the publication, which included both published works and unpublished articles, shorthand notes of his reports and speeches.

In her work "Interrelation of creative ideas and S. Shatskii's experience with the concepts and practice of foreign pedagogics" G.Yu. Maksimova reveals factors and indicators of Shatskii's activities interaction with the ideas of foreign educators, many of which reveal the nature and principles of pupil government (Maksimova, 1991).

There are a number of modern studies that are devoted to the problem of studying the forms of institutionalization of socio-cultural modernization of children's education in specialized educational institutions (Abramov et al., 2017).

Among the foreign researchers of pedagogical activities of Stanislav Shatskii it is worth noting such authors as O. Anweiler, (Anweiler, 1966), S. Hessen, and N. Hans (Hessen, 1933), L. Wilson (Wilson, 1928). Modern foreign studies of Shatskii's educational activities include a work by American author Parlett V. "Overcoming of cultural worlds by means of a rural school: educational vision, local self-government and rural experience of Kaluga school system of S. Shatskii, 1919-1931". This work describes Shatskii's activities on development of preschool organizations network and rural schools of the first and second stage in Soviet Russia (Partlett, 2004). Another article by Parlett V. "Cultural Revolution in rural school: Kaluga experimental station of S. Shatskii, 1919-1932", considers the process of organizing experimental stations of The People's Commissariat of Education of the RSFSR (Partlett, 2005).

4. Results

The work on organizing pupil government began since the establishment of "The Settlement" by S. Shatskii in 1905.The idea of this organization was borrowed from the American clubs. The purpose of such clubs was social assistance to poor children, which was expressed in making them literate, crime prevention, providing social services. The club of American worker Thomas Shu was one of the most popular in the United States at the end of the XIX century. In this club they both made children literate and put them to a trade. The main method of socialization was the game. But most importantly, this club created a pupil government with an elected council which addressed many pressing issues, including financial ones. All the leading teachers of Europe, including Russia, were delighted with the ideas of the society "The Settlement". The new children's organization did not last long; it was closed in 1908 for the spread of socialist ideology. Shatskii was arrested. Shatskii founded the first club organizations for the children of the Moscow suburbs. In 1909 Shatskii founded a new society "Children's work and rest". The activities of these out-of-school institutions were purposed for a wide independent work of children, the use of labor as a means of education. Shatskii claimed: "...upbringing is the organization of children's life, the object of education is the child, and in a child we, first of all, appreciate the fact that he is a growing organism" (Shatskii, 1962). The educator identified several types of children's life: social life, mental life, art, physical education, play and work. Shatskii first used the term "health care". In 1911 Shatskii, with the support of philanthropist M. K. Morozova, created a summer labor colony "The Invigorating Life". The colony was located in Kaluga province.

Fig. 1. Stanislav Shatskii (1878-1934)   **Fig. 2.** Building of the society "Children's work and rest"

Valentina Shatskaya, the wife of Stanislav Shatskii, played an important role in the organization of the colony. It was in the colony that the theory of pupil government was developed and implemented, aimed at identifying "some consistent patterns in the development of children's society" (Shatskaya, Shatskii, 1924). The school-colony "The Invigorating Life" was a striking example of an innovative experiment in pedagogy.

"The Invigorating Life" was a self-sustainable institution. There were built the following facilities in the territory of the colony: Shatskii's house (there were also an administrative office and a music room in Shatskii's house), a school building, a cook-house and a summer canteen house, a club-canteen building, a cellar, a power station, workshops, a dormitory, a dormitory for teachers, a club, a stadium, a radio antenna, a cattle yard, a vegetable garden, a fruit garden.

Fig. 3. Buildings of the colony "The Invigorating Life" (1911)

Stanislav Shatskii was a leading participant in educational experiments and reforms. In 1919, he created the first experimental station which included fourteen primary schools, two secondary schools, a central school-colony "The Invigorating Life", six kindergartens, three regional libraries, seven reading houses (village reading rooms), a set of children's clubs and a center of pedagogical training. The purpose of these schools was to educate rural students and culturally transform the village.

Stanislav Shatskii thought about the development of a children's team and identified a certain pattern and relationships. This idea is reflected in one of the works: "The observations on the life of a children's collective lead to the following conclusion: between the main constituents of children's life – manual work, play, art, mental and social development, there is a certain relationship, there is a constant interaction, and ultimately, those or other changes in one direction (this applies to the forms of children's activities, and their organization) cause corresponding changes in another area" (Shatskaya, Shatskii, 1924).

The educator attached importance to the process of formation and development of children's groups. "To work together with children, – wrote Stanislav Shatskii, – it means to recognize enormous influence of a children's society on children. The school must be interested in the development of children's organizations involved in the formation of life. Then it will be easier for it (the school) to function. Our pioneers and Komsomol members, uniting the most energetic elements of our youth, can provide great support here for the school" (Shatskaya, Shatskii, 1924). Shatskii attached great importance to pupil government. He wanted as many children as possible to participate in the various forms of collective management. It is important to educate the children's ability to subordinate their desires to the rules of the collective. According to Shatskii, an

important detail in the development of pupil government, was related to the creation of the general assembly of children.

The teaching activities of Shatskii included the development of fundamental new forms of children's collective education taking into account the principle of self-government. In the work "My pedagogic career" Shatskii wrote, "...the questions of pupil government, which we have largely become accustomed to, and considered ourselves, probably not without reason, the pioneers in this area – made the formulation of new pedagogical problems especially close for us in..." (Shatskaya, Shatskii, 1924). It should be noted that outside the colony younger students were always subordinated to senior students.

The system of pupil government was based on several directions of the children's collective development: mental development, aesthetic development, labor education, social development. Joining all directions in one pedagogical model enhances social skills, promotes formation and development of the children's collective and pupil government.

I. *Mental development*. Shatskii believed that "the work of the mind directs life and satisfies the spirit of research" (Shatskaya, Shatskii, 1924). The colony had a school of two stages: stage 1 – grades 1–4, level 2 – grades 5–9. The school curriculum included subjects such as writing, mathematics, literature, physical education, music, as well as very popular lessons of tourism and staging. By 1925, the school had 200 children (88 of them lived in the colony, the rest came from the neighboring villages). Children of workers and employees from the suburbs of Moscow and children of the Kaluga province peasants studied at this school.

II. *Aesthetic development*. According to Stanislav Shatskii "...art makes life more beautiful and feeds the aesthetic sense" (Shatskaya, Shatskii, 1924). In the colony, the teachers cultivated in children love of painting, music, theater, literature. Shatskii himself performed operatic arias, and his wife delivered lectures on literature and art. There was organized a puppet theater for younger pupils. The children themselves made puppets and scenery for performances. With senior pupils the teachers staged performances of "Boris Godunov", "The Government inspector" (Russian: Ревизор, Revizor) which were also shown in rural clubs.

III. *Physical development* was based on the lessons of physical culture. At these lessons the teachers made stress on competitive sports. Shatskii attached great importance to the game as a means of training and education. "The game – wrote Shatskii, is a living laboratory of childhood, giving the flavor, the atmosphere of young life. In the game, in this special processing of vital material, there is the healthiest core of intelligent school of childhood" (Shatskii, 1962). As Shatskii stated: "The game repeats itself and adapts to life... it gives such a cheerful tone of common life" (Shatskii, 1964). Children played football, "knucklebones" (a skillful cast of bones), ran. Here is how the game is described by one of the colony's pupils in the magazine "New Life" (Russian: Novaya Zhizn'): "The game has begun. The players standing still and shifting their feet with impatience. Controversial blow ... The players rush to the ball, trying to kick it ... " (Shatskaya, Shatskii, 1924). The children also loved to play Indians.

IV. *Labor education*. According to Shatskii, the main factor uniting the children's collective is socially useful work. "So, groundwork – material, disciplining and experienced, as claimed by Shatskii, is provided by physical labor, serving children and being feasible for them. Life is organized and made easier by business self-government" (Shatskaya, Shatskii, 1924). "We should speak about such an organization of children's work, – wrote Shatskii, which is feasible, accessible to children, but it must be serious. We need such child labor, which would be full of sense and rise" (Scientific archive of the Russian Academy of Education, F. 1, Archival unit 295, p. 114).

According to Stanislav Shatskii, labor is another important element necessary for the formation of an independent personality. For example, children were able to cook, grow crops, sew clothes, clean rooms and more in the colony "The Invigorating Life".

Fig. 4. Hay harvest in the colony (1925)

But labor should not be punishment or some chore. In that case, it will only have a negative effect. Shatskii claimed that labor must be systematic, replaceable and according to children's possibilities. Work must bring children positive emotions and real joy. Labor activities of pupils should be under the close attention of teachers who skillfully and tactfully direct, support and encourage them. The purpose of labor, according to Shatskii, is not only to master basic household skills, labor – is, above all, a tool that organizes a children's team on the principles of creativity, friendship and mutual assistance.

IV. *Social development*. The importance of this direction was to acquaint pupils with the rules of the school-colony, with subsequent adaptation to the conditions of life in society. But the formation of such qualities as discipline, obedience, sense of duty is not enough to educate the individual of a pupil. Therefore, the principle of pupil government existed in the colony, which allowed children to solve production, household, mental and creative tasks on their own.

The first pupils – 14 "troubled ones" lived in the summer colony (Korolyov, Korneichik, Ravkik, 1961). Afterwards "The Invigorating Life" switched over to a year-round functioning. As a result, hundreds of children lived in "The Invigorating Life", the same number of pupils came to school from the neighboring villages.

The structure of pupil government was being gradually built in the colony. In the first year of its existence there were singled out 5 "senior settlers", aged 15–19 (Shatskaya, 1961). Many of these "seniors" were learning trades at other institutions, there were those who were working at a factory. The main task of the "senior settlers" was to provide labor education for the younger pupils through their own example.

All organizational and economic issues were solved at the meetings of the settlers that were held daily. The structure of pupil government in the "The Invigorating Life" consisted of the following elements:

1) *Chairman of the meeting* – managed the work of the General meeting;

2) *General Assembly of the settlers* – a collegiate governing body. At the assembly all economic and organizational issues were solved and regulations were approved. At the General Assembly, the children chose the Chairman of the meeting, a nurse, the head of the laundry, a housekeeper, who led the economic accounting. Elections were a key instrument of pupil government. The settlers openly expressed their views, denounced laziness and irresponsibility of some children who could not cope with the orders of the Assembly;

3) *the editors of the magazine "New life"* – the magazine published decisions of the colony, a daily report on the cook-house work, a two-week report on the economy, it informed about all the important events in the colony, the magazine also published children's stories and poems, notes on important events, reasoning of educators about the life and development of the colony.

The editorial Board of the magazine also acted as a kind of generator of managerial and economic ideas and suggestions. The pages of the magazine raised questions which both the future of the colony and the future of individual pupils depended on. As an example, here are some of these suggestions from the magazine:

"1. To collect all the regulations of the colony.

2. To draw up a two-week report (a task for a housekeeper).

3. To make a daily report on the cook-house and put up on the wall

… 6. What are we short of?

7. Do we need meetings?

8. Do we need punishment? If not, what should replace them?

9. How well does everything go? If it does poorly, then why?

11. What do I want from the colony in the future?

12. Do the senior settlers provide benefit for the colony?

13. What do I want to do in the future?

14. Do settlers get along with each other?.." (Shatskaya, Shatskii, 1924).

The colony formed a whole system of customs and rules that formed the basis of social development of children and public life. The punishment for breaking the rules of the colony – confession before a group. Shatskii watched the confrontation between the two phenomena: the "set" which seeks freedom and fun, sometimes arbitrariness and the "colony" – a labor organization. The punishment for breaking the rules of the colony – a public admission of guilt, and correction is possible only through the labor, successful studies and social activities. Those who did not accept the rules of the colony, and supported the "set" were forced to leave.

4) *"welcoming" commission* consisted of 2 settlers: a boy and a girl. The children accompanied guests, showed them the colony, and were busy with food and accommodation (see: Fig. 5).
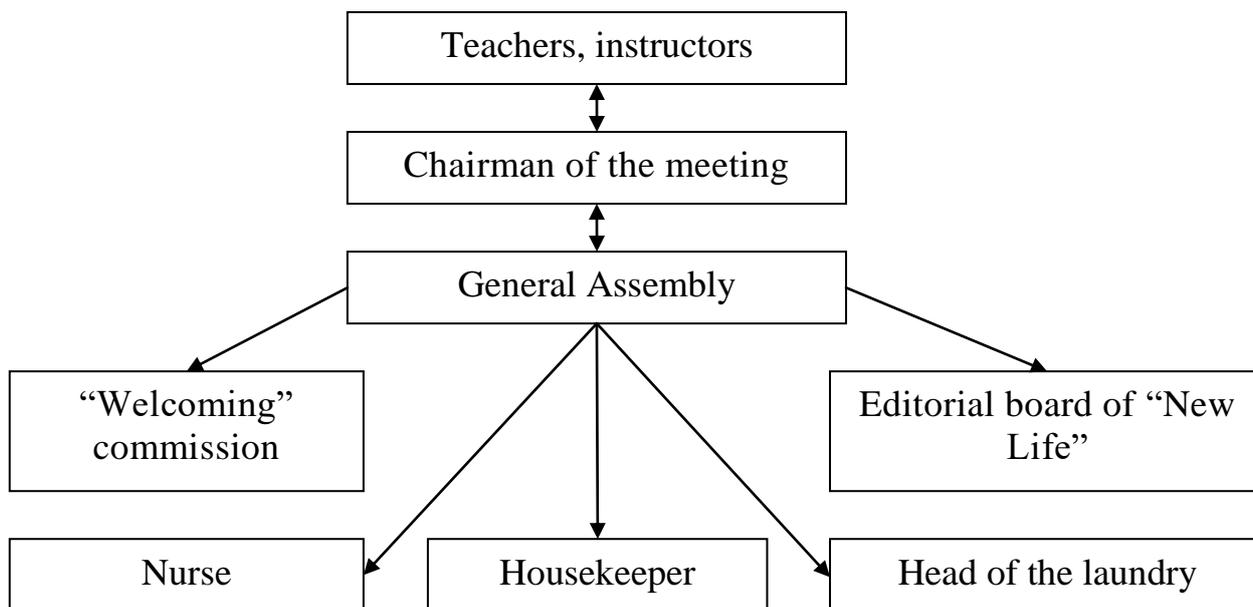
Fig. 5. Structure of pupil government in the school-colony "The Invigorating Life"

According to Stanislav Shatskii, the full development of a child was the main goal of teaching activities in the school-colony "The Invigorating Life". The combination of mental work with the physical development of a child, socially useful work, aesthetic education allowed teachers and pupils to achieve remarkable results. Teaching methods of Shatskii were based on an independent search for a solution to the problem posed to a child. Independent activity contributed to the development of logical thinking, formed such qualities as responsibility, discipline.

Owing to the success of the pedagogical experiment in the school-colony "The Invigorating Life", Kaluga branch of the first experimental station soon became the flagship of innovative education in Soviet Russia. Every year thousands of teachers, officials and cultural workers visited

the station hoping to export their ideas and approaches to other settlements. The teachers and representatives of Narkompros together made presentations at educational conferences, consulted widely with international experts, and actively sought to spread the experience of the station. Shatskii became one of the leading experts in the People's Commissariat of Education. He has formulated a program for new Soviet schools.

5. Conclusion

Studying Stanislav Shatskii's pedagogical heritage, it should be noted that many ideas in the organization of pupil government were adopted from the representatives of the world teaching thought. The very idea of pupil government in the early twentieth century was mainly spread in the pedagogy of Western European countries. It is worth noting that these adoptions were mainly in form, but not in content. Stanislav Shatskii was aware of the achievements of foreign pedagogics and applied the best practices of children's organizations in his teaching ideas. Shatskii also understood that pure copying of foreign teaching samples would only harm the educational process as a whole. It was necessary to create a fundamentally new pedagogical theory that would successfully suit the national system of education. Shatskii managed to do it. The summer labour school-colony "The Invigorating Life" created by the Russian teacher was very highly appreciated by the pedagogical community of the USSR. The school-colony was considered by the educators and leaders of People's Commissariat of Education as an experiment that enables to explore the specific development of the children's team. And, in Stanislav Shatskii's opinion, this school had a special environment that made it possible to establish harmonious interrelation between mental, aesthetic, physical, labor and social development of children, which can be supported quite effectively under the conditions of pupil government.

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