

**НАЦІОНАЛЬНА АКАДЕМІЯ ПЕДАГОГІЧНИХ НАУК УКРАЇНИ
ІНСТИТУТ ПЕДАГОГІЧНОЇ ОСВІТИ І ОСВІТИ ДОРΟΣЛИХ
ІМЕНІ ІВАНА ЗЯЗІОНА**

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ЦЕНТР ПОРІВНЯЛЬНОЇ ПРОФЕСІЙНОЇ ПЕДАГОГІКИ**



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CONTENTS

Iryna Androshchuk, Ihor Androshchuk MODERN TRENDS IN TEACHER EDUCATION IN CANADA	7
Nataliia Paziura, Natalya Bidyuk ENGLISH TRAINING IN ASIAN COUNTRIES AIMED AT INTERNATIONALIZATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION	12
Olesia Sadovets, Halyna Lysak INTEGRATION OF ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES INTO APPLIED LINGUISTICS CURRICULUM: OVERVIEW OF LEADING UNIVERSITIES' EXPERIENCE AND A NEW APPROACH SUGGESTION	20
Junko Winch A CASE STUDY OF ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE AND ATTENDANCE BETWEEN REASONAL ADJUSTMENT AND FOUNDATION YEAR STUDENTS IN LANGUAGE CLASSES (Досвід Британії) .	32
Dorota Jankowska ACADEMIC DIALOGUE IN THE NARRATIONS OF STUDENTS OF PEDAGOGY IN THE YEARS FROM 2006 TO 2016 (Досвід Польщі).....	40
Olena Terenko EDUCATION OF THE THIRD AGE PEOPLE AS IMPORTANT COMPONENT OF ADULT EDUCATION IN THE USA AND CANADA	56
Julia Demchenko SOME ASPECTS OF PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF BACHELORS IN HUMAN SERVICES IN THE USA.....	63
Oleksandr Lazorenko PECULIARITIES OF TRAINING OFFICERS FOR THE NEEDS OF THE BORDER AGENCY OF CHINA	70
Viktor Pokaliuk, Oleksandr Chernenko A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS ON TRAINING SYSTEMS OF QUALIFIED WORKERS OF RESCUE UNITS	76
Vitaliy Tytarenko FOREIGN EXPERIENCE OF VOCATIONAL ART EDUCATION	85



Liubov Hunko
FORMS AND METHODS OF TEACHING FUTURE MASTERS
IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE AND APPLIED LINGUISTICS
IN THE UNIVERSITIES OF CHINA.....95

ІНФОРМАЦІЙНІ ПОВІДОМЛЕННЯ

ПРАВИЛА ОФОРМЛЕННЯ І ПОДАННЯ РУКОПИСІВ 102



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MODERN TRENDS IN TEACHER EDUCATION IN CANADA

ABSTRACT

The paper deals with the characteristics of professional training of future teachers in Canada. They include the increase in the number of hours allocated for practical training of students; the digitalization of the educational process which enhances the teacher's role, as both a participant in this process and the source and transmitter of knowledge; active use of information and communication technologies which helps to increase working hours and, at the same time, reduce the number of classes. The paper shows that the high social status of the teacher leads to increasing requirements for applicants for the teaching profession. It specifies the following basic schemes of implementing teaching placements that are used in professional training of future teachers; supervised teaching; one-year part-time teaching at schools; four-month teaching placement under the guidance of university and school mentors. The paper emphasizes the need to develop pedagogical skills during the professional training of future teachers, which can be realized through direct, indirect, interactive, experimental strategies, as well as self-study. Besides, it clarifies the main models of teacher training in Canada: a consecutive model (it is implemented during one- or two-year training programmes after obtaining a bachelor's degree in certain sciences); a concurrent model (it involves simultaneous training in certain sciences and pedagogy); a graduate model (it is designed for two years and aimed at training highly qualified teachers (Master of Education) or methodologists), a sole degree model (it involves obtaining teacher education in higher education and specialized teacher education). The paper proves that they also implement distance learning that is suitable for teachers who cannot afford to pay for such training or do not have the time to attend classes. It describes the basic principle of teacher education in Canada which lies in lifelong learning realized in two aspects, namely, initial professional training at universities, as well as both the development and improvement of teacher's professional competency, teaching and skills.

Keywords: professional training, types of training, teacher education, future teachers, teacher placement, models of training.

АНОТАЦІЯ

Розглянуто особливості професійної підготовки майбутніх учителів у Канаді: збільшення кількості годин на практичну підготовку студентів; здійснення освітнього процесу в онлайн-середовищі, що активізує роль вчителя як учасника освітнього процесу, а не лише джерела й транслятора знань для учнів; активне застосування



інформаційно-комунікаційних технологій, що сприяє збільшенню робочого часу й одночасному зменшенню кількості навчальних занять. З'ясовано, що високий соціальний статус педагога зумовлює підвищення вимог до вступників на педагогічні професії. Виокремлено основні схеми проходження педагогічних практик, які використовуються у професійній підготовці майбутніх учителів, зокрема проходження практики під керівництвом наставників; річне викладання в школі з частковою оплатою; чотирьохмісячна педагогічна практика під керівництвом наставників з університету та школи. Наголошено на важливості в процесі професійної підготовки майбутніх учителів формування педагогічної майстерності, що забезпечується реалізацією прямої, непрямої, інтерактивної, експериментальної стратегії та стратегії самостійного навчання. Встановлено основні моделі підготовки вчителів у Канаді: послідовну (реалізується протягом вивчення одно- або дворічної програми підготовки після завершення навчання й отримання ступеня «бакалавр» з певних наук); паралельна (передбачає одночасне навчання з певних наук та педагогіки); післядипломна (розрахована на два роки й спрямована на підготовку висококваліфікованих учителів (Master of Education) або методистів), одноступенева (передбачає здобуття вищої педагогічної освіти й одночасно спеціальної). З'ясовано, що практикується також форми навчання для підготовки вчителів, які не мають можливості оплачувати навчання або не має часу на відвідування занять та дистанційна форма підготовки майбутніх учителів. Схарактеризовано основний принцип педагогічної освіти у Канаді, що передбачає неперервність освіти впродовж життя, реалізація якого відбувається в двох аспектах: початкова професійна підготовка в умовах університету та становлення й удосконалення професійної компетентності педагога, удосконалення методик передачі знань й умінь.

***Ключові слова:** професійна підготовка, види підготовки, майбутні вчителі, педагогічна практика, моделі підготовки.*

INTRODUCTION

European integration processes and complex reforms in Ukrainian education, caused by the update of the legal framework and standards at all levels of specialist training, require corresponding changes in the system of teacher education. There appears to be a need to train teachers capable of shaping a fully developed and creative personality of the student, developing his or her abilities, independence and cognitive activity in the classroom and during extracurricular activities. This leads to a rethinking of approaches to teacher education in higher education, as well as an improvement of professional training for future teachers based on expanding the possibilities of realizing tasks of professional activities during extracurricular activities. The success of the realization of certain tasks depends on taking into account international experience of training future teachers, including in Canada.

THE AIM OF THE STUDY

The paper aims to generalize the Canadian experience of ensuring professional training for future teachers and analyze the main trends in teacher education.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH METHODS

Based on understanding the trends in education and their focus on countries with high levels of teacher education, one can analyze the Canadian experience of teacher training. The country has been demonstrating high-quality training of future teachers and their further pedagogical activities for many years. The characteristics of teacher training in Canada were highlighted by many scholars, including M. Christou (2018), A. Hickey (2003), V. Resta, L. Huling, & N. Rainwater (2001), S. Wilson (1999), J. Young (2004), Z. Zhang & D. Martinovic (2008). The basic approaches and principles of professional



training of future teachers, distinguished by the results from the analysis of scientific works by these researchers, constitute the theoretical framework of the paper.

Research methods include the following: an explanatory-and-analytical method using the analysis and synthesis of scientific results on professional training of future teachers; generalization and systematization used to highlight the main trends in such training, areas of teacher placements, as well as models of teacher training, and draw conclusions.

RESULTS

Given that the teaching profession is rather prestigious in Canada, the requirements for applicants for this profession, as well as for obtaining a teacher's certificate, have increased significantly in recent years. This allows one, already at the stage of admission, to select students with a high level of training, an appropriate level of moral and values-based orientations, which are professionally aimed specifically at pedagogical activities. In general, professional training of future teachers consists of fundamental, psycho-pedagogical, informational-and-technological, methodical, practical and social and humanities-related training. Despite the unity of types of training, training programmes are characterized by variability, individualization, electivity, cultural and practical focus of the content, which contributes to developing a high level of professional competency and pedagogical skills in future teachers.

However, training programmes differ in duration and structure, the main form of such training is practical classes. Teacher placement can last from 13 to 20 weeks. The effectiveness of practical training of future teachers under the guidance of experienced school teachers is confirmed by the results of the student survey. Thus, professional training of future teachers focuses on the organization and implementation of complex teacher placements and takes into account current educational trends (Niemi, & Jakku-Sihvonen, 2006). Teacher placements of future teachers at Canadian universities are as follows: 1) school teachers act as student mentors during teacher placements; 2) future teachers do part-time teaching at schools; 3) students undergo teacher placements for four months at schools during their last year of university study under the guidance of a university teacher and a qualified school teacher (Crocker, Kirby, Dibbon, & Calvin, 2008; Niemi, & Jakku-Sihvonen, 2006).

The analysis of scientific research on teacher training in Canada suggests that particular attention is focused on epistemological foundations of teacher education; a systemic interconnection of courses representing different types of training; an integration of theoretical and practical training; an active introduction of information and communication technologies in the educational process; effective training of teachers for interaction in a multicultural environment; a transfer of focus from teacher education to professional activities (The University of Toronto, 2020). Besides, it is important to develop students' pedagogical skills in the process of professional training, which is ensured by the implementation of direct, indirect, interactive and experimental strategies, as well as self-study. The use of these strategies is based on active teaching methods that help to activate the creative potential of future teachers, foster autonomy in decision-making and increase readiness for interaction and collaboration (The University of Toronto, 2020).

In Canada, teacher education is also characterized by the active implementation of such principles as differentiation and individualization. The implementation of these principles is incorporated in educational courses for future teachers, which are divided into the following types: discrete courses (they involve conducting lectures with subsequent practical classes on problematic areas, as well as writing different types of works that integrate theory and practice); integrated (interdisciplinary) courses; instructional modules (they are aimed at studying relevant objects, whose knowledge will be evaluated by some appropriate criteria) (Crocker, Kirby, Dibbon, & Calvin, 2008).



S. Wilson (1999) identifies two main models of teacher training in Canada, namely, consecutive and concurrent ones. The consecutive model is implemented during the study of one- or two-year training programmes after obtaining a bachelor's degree in certain sciences. The concurrent model involves simultaneous training in certain sciences and pedagogy. It lasts four or five years, introduces pedagogical courses at Year 1 or 2 and involves mandatory completion of teacher placement directly at schools.

The analysis of scientific works makes it possible to distinguish two more models of teacher training: graduate and sole degree models. The graduate model is designed for two years and consists of theoretical and practical components which reflect the content of the school curriculum in relevant subjects). It is aimed at training highly qualified teachers (Master of Education) or methodologists. Graduate teacher education typically involves on-the-job training with mandatory certification. It must be noted that Canadian education is exempt from state regulation since each province independently finances and reforms education. In this context, the issue of teacher certification is also addressed individually by each province based on the Canadian Free Trade Agreement (CFTA). The following categories are distinguished for teacher certification: student leadership (an organizational category); lesson planning (a subject-specific category); a pedagogical interaction with pupils (an evaluative category); a pedagogical interaction with participants in the educational process (a cooperative category).

The sole degree model is similar to the graduate one and involves obtaining teacher education in higher education and specialized teacher education at the same time.

The duration of sole degree training is 3 or 4 years. Indeed, the differentiation of different models of teacher training is related primarily to the programmes operating at a particular Canadian university and the characteristics of their cooperation with schools (Teach in Canada, 2020). One should also pay particular attention to the programmes which incorporate the so-called "part-time" training for those who cannot afford to pay for such training or do not have the time to attend classes. Future teachers can enrol on distance learning, too (The University of Toronto, 2020). In general, the trends in the development of teacher education in Canada are as follows: the number of hours allocated for practical training of students; the digitalization of the educational process which enhances the teacher's role, as both a participant in this process and the source and transmitter of knowledge; active use of information and communication technologies which helps to increase working hours and, at the same time, reduce the number of classes.

Regardless of the programme, three components can be distinguished in the structure of teacher training: general training (a study of academic courses); subject-specific training (a study of subjects, which future teachers are to teach at schools, as well their teaching methods; professional training (it combines professional courses with teacher placement at schools). At the beginning of higher education study, students can enrol on additional courses and choose an age group of pupils with whom they intend to work in the future. The compulsory courses within a bachelor's degree are the following: "Personality Development, Training and Diversity", "Neuroscience and Cognitive Development", "Education, School and Social Institutes", "Education, Knowledge and Curriculum", "Creating a Caring Classroom and School Learning Environment", "Ethics and the Teaching Profession". For one, the course on house management includes a system of seminars in the following topics: "A Good Wife, Her Husband, and Other Fairy Tales"; "Focusing on Health, not Weight"; "Reconstructing Views on Fashion"; "Accommodation and Its Design". The topics of the seminars vary depending on the subject to be taught by the teacher (The University of Toronto, 2020).



Another feature of teacher training in Canada is internationalization. Given the multicultural nature of the Canadian population and the presence of different peoples and ethnicities, the teacher must understand the cultures of these peoples, respect them and interact with them, taking into account their particularities in their teaching activities. In Canada, they actively implement the classification of educational specialties covering STEM and BHASE. Indeed, STEM contains engineering, mathematics and technology, whereas BHASE – health care, business, social sciences, art.

Thus, the main principle of teacher training in Canada is life-long learning, which implies personal development and the need for self-improvement. The realization of this principle occurs in two aspects: initial professional training at universities which is considered as a dynamic system of future teachers' pedagogical development, as well as the development and improvement of teacher's professional competency, teaching and skills.

CONCLUSIONS

Therefore, Canadian experience of training future teachers proves the need to consider the following aspects in the national education system: a professional selection of future teachers at the stage of admission to higher education institutions; the increase in the number of hours allocated for teacher placement and diversification of practice bases (secondary schools, extracurricular education institutions, volunteer work during higher education study); the establishment of close cooperation between secondary schools and higher education institutions, as well as direct involvement of school teachers in teacher training. Further research should study international experience in teacher training and, based on this, justify and develop methodological principles of professional training of future teachers concerning the organization of extra-curricular artistic and technical activities of pupils.

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ENGLISH TRAINING IN ASIAN COUNTRIES AIMED AT INTERNATIONALIZATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

ABSTRACT

The paper outlines the important role of cross-cultural competence in foreign language training and its role in the process of internationalization of higher education in the countries of Asian region. As foreign language proficiency remained a distinctive feature of social class, foreign language communication skills acquired special importance with increasing pace of internationalization of higher education. Under globalization foreign language proficiency has become one of the main requirements for academic mobility. Special attention is paid to English as the language of cross-cultural communication and necessary component of internationalization. As English is the language for education in universities all over the world, scholars and scientists consider that encouraging the use of English in teaching makes it easier for non-English speaking specialists to fulfill their study abroad. The experience of Asian countries is of great value to scientists as these countries are interested in increasing the number of foreign students in Asian educational establishments as well as studying Asian students abroad. China is put in the center of the authors' attention as it has acquired the status of a main exporter of higher education due to Chinese students' interest in oversea courses. The analysis of peculiarities of foreign language training in different countries has been conducted in the article. In non-English-speaking countries English is taught as an additional language or is used as a medium of instruction in education to make non-English speakers' participation in the process of internationalization possible. The authors have analyzed the main problems and difficulties in foreign language training, stresses the importance of cross-cultural competence for brining up tolerance for representatives from different cultures and awareness of cultural differences between nations as main condition for effective communication. There are some difficulties in students' attempt to develop adequate English proficiency to learn other subjects' content through English. On the other hand, cross-cultural communication skills enhance efficiency of teaching as a teacher should be aware of his students' culture and some traditions. The paper highlights the fact that one of the important factors, influencing foreign language training, is understanding not only linguistic, grammar, phonological differences such as differences in the structure of native and target languages, but cultural values and behavior patterns of verbal and nonverbal communication according to national cultures as well.

Keywords: *foreign language training, the English language, cross-cultural communication, internationalization of higher education, Asian countries.*



АНОТАЦІЯ

У статті автори характеризують важливу роль кроскультурної компетентності у навчанні іноземної мови та її роль у процесі інтернаціоналізації вищої освіти в азійських країнах. Оскільки володіння навичками інішомовної комунікації залишається маркером соціального статусу, ці навички набувають особливої важливості з початком інтернаціоналізації вищої освіти. У контексті глобалізації, достатній рівень володіння іноземною мовою перетворюється на один з важливих вимог академічної мобільності. Особлива увага приділена англійській мові як мові міжнародного спілкування та необхідної складової інтернаціоналізації вищої освіти. Англійська мова є мовою навчання в багатьох університетах світу, вони заохочуються в її використанні, оскільки вона полегшує для не носіїв англійської мови процес навчання в закладах освіти інших країн. Досвід азійських країн викликає великий інтерес для науковців, оскільки ці країни зацікавлені у збільшенні кількості іноземних студентів в азійських закладах освіти та у їх навчанні за кордоном. Китай знаходиться в центрі уваги авторів, беручи до уваги той факт, що він перетворюється на основного провайдера міжнародних студентів: китайська молодь демонструє постійний інтерес у навчанні в країнах ЄС. У статті виконаний аналіз особливостей навчання іноземної мови в різних азійських країнах. Якщо англійська мова не є офіційною, вона викладається студентам як додаткова, щоб вони мали змогу брати участь у процесі інтернаціоналізації вищої освіти. Авторі статті проаналізували основні проблеми та труднощі у вивченні іноземної мови, підкреслюючи важливість кроскультурної компетентності для виховання толерантності до представників інших країн та усвідомлення культурологічних відмінностей між націями як основну умову ефективної комунікації. Авторі вказують на занепокоєність щодо труднощів у досягненні відповідного рівня володіння англійською мовою, який необхідний для оволодіння змістом професійної освіти. З іншого боку, навички кроскультурної комунікації забезпечують ефективність навчання, якщо викладач розуміє культуру його студентів та особливості традицій. В статті підкреслюється, що одним з важливих чинників, що впливає на вивчення іноземної мови, є розуміння не лише лінгвістичних, граматичних, фонологічних особливостей відповідних мов, а й культурних цінностей і зразків вербальної та невербальної комунікації відповідно до національної культури.

Ключові слова: навчання іноземної мови, англійська мова, кроскультурна комунікація, інтернаціоналізація вищої освіти, азійські країни.

INTRODUCTION

Nowadays the trends of unification and standardization can characterize the development of higher education systems in different countries in the world. The agreement called "Bologna Process" originally signed by 29 countries in 1999 nowadays comprise 45 countries. Its main aim was to harmonise education in Europe universities with the British model, according to common approach to levels and length of courses, facilitating mobility of students, mutual recognition of the qualifications got in different educational establishments, enhancing qualifications to present time requirements of labour market, providing competitiveness to the educational establishment's graduates.

Due to internationalization of higher education, students get opportunity to enter any establishment in any chosen by them country, to study peculiarities of a foreign culture and its people's mentality. Internationalization involves the following forms of partnership and cooperation between higher educational establishments in different countries:



individual mobility, i.e. mobility of students and teachers for educational purposes, mobility of curricular, institutional cooperation with the strategic aim to form educational alliances. Advantages of internationalization can be seen in unity of resources, prevention of overlapping researches, authentication of educational projects, better higher education access, implementation of international standards of quality, more innovations in higher education, strengthening of international cooperation.

THE AIM OF THE STUDY

The paper aims at the analysis of Asian countries experience in the field of internationalization of higher education and the contribution of the English language to this process. Cross-cultural competence is viewed as integral component of foreign language training and as considerable contributor to effective communication between representatives of different nations, main difficulties in its mastering are in the focus of the attention.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH METHODS

The issue of the English language contribution into the higher education development and the process of its internationalization have been in the focus of many scholars for a period of time. They stress the necessity to improve the efficiency of English language acquisition with the purpose of further education and professional development (Roy-Campbell, 2014), study its role in strengthening the position of countries in international political area and on transnational markets (Abad, 2013), analyse the integral character of a language and culture that can not be studied separately (Chunyan Sun, 2015).

Many scientists begin to consider cross cultural competence as means of effective communication in the globalized world. They speak about promoting a foreign language cross-cultural competence as promotion of a professional competence (Yudina, 2009) and about appearance and functioning of a language directly related to national traditions (Wilder & Escobar, 2010). For this reason foreign language training in higher educational establishments acquires cultural meaning, as a future specialist of a new type who masters a foreign language, may carry out professional activity on an international market, quickly adapting in multicultural space to the new means of communication, study peculiarities of another culture and comprehend own ethnic and cultural origins, manifesting tolerant attitude toward representatives of different countries.

As our research is qualitative, we have used a range of general scientific methods such as study and the analysis of reference, scientific educational print as well as systematization and generalization. The research included documents analysis and narrative inquiry.

RESULTS

Nowadays no one doubts the importance of the development of cross-cultural connections with European countries for the acceleration of higher education internationalization in Ukraine. It is vital for a specialist in any sphere of activity to acquire skills of professional foreign language communication, together with knowledge of rules and norms of cross-cultural communication enhancing its efficiency. Foreign language training means forming skills of cross-cultural communication in the field of future professional activity.

The tendencies of internationalization of higher education forced many countries in the world to implement unprecedented educational reforms, aimed at increasing efficiency in languages training, and especially English as an international language, without a good command of which a specialist can not compete on labour markets. During last decades Ministries of education of different countries presented National bilingual programs making for their citizens mastering two foreign languages (English and native) available, and thus, strengthening the position of these countries in international political area and on transnational markets (Abad, 2013).



Dramatic move towards internationalisation in university education across the world since the turn of the century is explained by various factors which have contributed to this move: the internationalisation of industry and commerce, leading to internationalisation and mobility of the workforce with internationally-recognised qualifications; the development of trans-national education, with universities offering their qualifications in other countries; the introduction of the Bologna agreement of 1999, for harmonising the structure of degree programmes and documentation; the consequent need for quality education in universities and as a result publication of annual tables ranking the top universities of the world (Bolitho & West, 2017, p. 14).

All of these developments have led to an increased demand for English language skills across all educational sectors as graduates need sufficient English proficiency to work or study overseas. English is one of dominant languages of the world, that is native for a population of five countries (Australia, Canada, England, New Zeland, USA), and which B. Kachru attributes to the so-called “internal circle”. English is an official language in many other countries, the former colonies of Great Britain determined as an “external circle”. As English is spoken in the countries of external circle together with the mother tongues, its role differs from a role in an internal circle because every country has its own rules of communication (Graddol, 2006).

In most countries of external circle foreign language training takes place in cross-cultural environment. The students speak English for specific purposes, largely, in formal education, as basic part of communication off educational establishments is conducted in native language. In the countries where English is native, it is taught to non-English-speaking students, mostly immigrants, as additional language to make their participation in all spheres of the English-speaking country life possible. Thus, we can state the existence of two contrasting contexts for mastering English: English language students’ training for perfection of skills and knowledge got in comprehension schools, and non-English-speaking students’ training for their further socialization in the English-speaking environment. Common problem for both of these contexts, though so contrasting, is the necessity to improve the efficiency of English language acquisition with the purpose of further education and professional development (Roy-Campbell, 2014).

In the analysed literature a communicative competence is determined as a general “construction” that embraces all necessary skills for effective communication with the use of verbal and nonverbal facilities. L. Bachman and A. Palmer consider that it is divided into organizational and pragmatic knowledge. Organizational knowledge is knowledge of grammar on the level of words and sentences, whereas textual knowledge gives possibility to communicate and interpret the words of interlocutor, and sociolinguistic knowledge allows the users to communicate effectively in a socio-cultural context. In addition to these types a communicative competence also includes a strategic competence and psycho-motor skills (Abad, 2013).

In the context of non-English-speaking students’ training it is necessary to highlight the importance of national culture and traditions that considerably influence students’ tolerance to the representatives of other cultures. A language and culture are interdependent components that can not be studied separately (Chunyan, 2015). As culture can not be separated from a language and a language gets to all aspects of people’s life, by means of which people cognize the world and pass knowledge from generation to generation. A language forms a certain nation as a cultural group, distinguishing it from others.



After S. Hrygoryshyn, a language is one of main factors of social functioning. It fulfills the enormous amount of functions in a society: nominative (ability of a language to nominate and present objects and processes), cognitive (participation is in the process of cognition), communicative (participation is in the process of communication of people) and others (Hrygoryshyn, 2009, p. 54).

Language allows to identify itself as a member of a certain social group, that has its own vision of the world, allows people to be aware of their potential at present time and see the prospects of their development in the future on the basis of past experience. P. Freire & D. Macedo consider that these components are closely connected with national economic interests and ideology aimed at uniting poor, underprivileged citizens and national minorities in one nation and dominant cultural tradition. Scientists consider that appearance and functioning of a language is directly related to national traditions (Wilder & Escobar, 2010, 28–129).

Traditions and socio-cultural context considerably influence students' attitude to the study of English in all countries. If socio-cultural surroundings encourage the development of competition, it forms positive attitude toward studies and motivation to the study of English. In other words, positive attitude and motivation toward the study are conditioned by society. This phenomenon exists worldwide, and theoretical researches prove that competitive and encouraging environment enhances motivation to study. Besides, researches reaffirm that different national and socio-cultural factors influence considerably English proficiency.

We should consider in more detail's national views on foreign language training and socio-cultural factors that influence the process of mastering foreign language competence in some Asian countries as such training contribute considerably into internationalization of higher education in this region. For this purpose, we appeal to determinations of basic research concepts. In Oxford dictionary, tradition is determined as a long-term custom or belief, that is passed from one generation to other, and that influences all aspects of human life, including education (Ahmad, 2015, p. 191). Conception of tradition is often considered the basic component of religious beliefs, culture, knowledge and skills that does not end with the death of generation and is consciously kept and passed to the next one. It provides connection between generations and storage of national values, attitudes, identity etc.

Since the beginning of 21 century the indicators of academic mobility in such countries as the USA, Japan and Korea, have increased twice. At the same time, it is necessary to draw attention to the fact that the USA gradually yields to Australia, New Zealand, Great Britain, Germany, France in the questions of encouragement of foreign students. Such countries as China, India, Korea and Japan come forward among the main suppliers of students for study overseas. In the last decade the world market of educational services became the witness of considerable changes. For example, Singapore in 2015 accepted 150000 foreign students, Japan intends to increase their number to 300 thousand by 2025, China – to 500 thousand by 2020 (Krechetnikov, Pestereva, & Rajović, 2016, p. 231).

At the same time, the attractiveness of the Asian educational market is high enough. Scientists expect the increase in the number of foreign students from 17 to 87 million by 2025. It is proved that the pace of internationalization process in Asian higher education is in direct connection with educational policy of countries in this region. We can distinguish three basic models of internationalization of education: state-managed (China, Malaysia, South Korea), market-driven (Hong Kong), transitional from state-managed to market-driven (Japan, Taiwan). It is important that the primary purposes of internationalization of higher education implementation in the Asian countries are:



improvement of international reputation of universities (ranking in the world ratings of the best universities), strengthening of educational and scientific potential of universities, increase in the number of students due to diversification of countries-suppliers, improvement of academic quality. It is interesting that the last purpose named was the accumulation of finances (Kazuo, Takako & Kyuwon, 2010, p. 24).

The world's universities ranking which the Shanghai Jiao Tong University Institute provides every year has become a standard international reference. It reflects an American and other English-speaking universities dominant position. According to the ranking nearly 75 % of the world's top 100 universities are in English-speaking countries. It explains increasing importance of English in the role of the medium of education in universities across the world. And it gives direction of further actions for such universities. It explains either strong concern that was expressed by Thailand, the Philippines, Japan, and Taiwan about proficiency in English in their countries and their desire to start new educational initiatives by the end of 2005. They usually invite teachers and researchers from around the world; encourage international students to enroll on the courses, in such a way enriching the university's prestige, revenue, and intellectual climate (Graddol, 2006, p. 74).

In one of the most quickly developing Asian country, China, Department of education marks that English training courses in colleges must be focused on acquisition of cross-cultural competence, development of foreign language proficiency, especially listening and speaking skills, foreign language communication skills for real life situations. It is recognized that ability to conduct effective communication is extremely important for future career and full-fledged life in multicultural society. As proficiency in English is considered a necessary factor of 'graduateness', universities in many countries began to require from students a certain standard of English proficiency before obtaining their degree (Graddol, 2006, p. 96).

The new policy adopted by China has resulted in appearance more than 20 million new users of English each year. China's intention was to make English a decisive factor of its strategy for rapid economic development (Graddol, 2006, p. 95). The English language curriculum in Chinese schools runs that the primary purpose of study is the improvement of students' listening, reading, speaking and translation skills. However, language training has no sense if students do not have the possibility to communicate in the English-speaking environment. In the non-English-speaking countries the situation is more complicated because of many teachers' accent, which they are not aware of. Thus, teachers are the first to improve their proficiency and set example to the students of accurate pronunciation (Kazuo, Takako, & Kyuwon, 2010, p. 7). Chinese teachers say that often during foreign language lessons students are afraid to make a mistake, and it is an obstacle to those, who do not communicate in authentic language environment. Regardless language proficiency, usually, in Chinese schools the main task at speaking lessons is learning speech patterns. That is the reason why after lessons a student still focuses his or her attention on reading and writing. That is why the change of training methods is of vital importance for acquiring speaking skills in Chinese educational establishments.

S. Krashen considers that the main function of a teacher in a classroom is providing students with possibility to acquire necessary knowledge and under such conditions a classroom transforms into the place where students learn information to which they have not had access anywhere. At the same time, teachers should simulate situations in which students may find themselves and give them opportunity to practice foreign language settling cultural conflicts. Thus, speaking lessons become an activity during which the students have opportunity to improve the verbal and nonverbal communicative skills. And



the basic part of this process is forming cross cultural communication skills. The ultimate goal of foreign language training is to teach students to communicate fluently and freely as well as to improve general cultural knowledge and skills.

The teacher, as an organizer of the verbal communication, should set a proper example for the students. On condition of possessing certain knowledge of cross-cultural communication, the teacher will be able to manage a class with high-class mastery. Therefore, these teachers ought to have high level of oral proficiency in foreign language and cross-cultural competence (Chunyan, 2015, p. 8).

Our analysis allows us to make a conclusion, that absence of profound understanding of national culture of the country language of which is studied is the main reason for failures during acquisition of cross-cultural communication skills. In most cases, basic attention is paid to traditional aspects of training (pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary). Unfortunately, the study of corresponding cultures that are connected with the language is often ignored. As a result, students do not know about a culture and values of the English-speaking countries. It is often the reason for mistakes and misunderstanding between them and English-speaking interlocutors. Another reason for the insufficient skills of foreign communication is the absence of English-speaking surroundings simulated by the teacher. It takes place when at lessons the teacher plays a dominant role, and students remain passive listeners during the class memorizing only language patterns. As a result, such lessons do not provide communicative efficiency because the students are limited and passive in their participation. Although the students memorize set expressions and idioms, they make many mistakes, because they do not understand their meanings that are conditioned by a culture. Such situations often take place at Chinese universities.

Besides, the students are deprived of the possibility to use what they have learned at lessons in the real-life situation. Another reason for unsatisfactory level of English proficiency is misunderstanding of style, the choice of which depends on a certain situation as well as the content of conversation, origin of interlocutors and type of communication. Often students do not pay attention to the interlocutor's title or rank, surroundings the conversations take place in, that, in its turn, results in incorrect cross-cultural communication.

In the analyzed literature researchers stress that for the development of students' cross-cultural competence, promoting oral communication skills must be based on corresponding pedagogical, psychological and linguistic theories. Development of oral skills means diversified cooperation in accordance with the aim, content of training, strategies and methods of assessment. Student-centered teaching, real life language surroundings and cooperation with teachers were determined by foreign scientists as basic factors for effective foreign language training and improvement of students' cross-cultural communicative skills (Chunyan, 2015, p. 9).

Another important aspect in foreign language training, as the organized activity, is the choice of questions and themes for the competitive and modern curriculum. In this context, efficiency of educational process depends on the aim with which a language is studied. Usually teaching is predetermined by educational standards or curriculum concerted with educational authorities of the country. But scholars underline the necessity to conduct foreign language training taking into account poly cultural character of society that requires additional culture-oriented subjects (Roy-Campbell, 2014, p. 16).

Invitation of well-known scientists and experts for delivering lectures on cross cultural issues, sending teachers overseas, addition of extra curricular activities for development of cross-cultural competence and awakening cultural consciousness are very



effective. Such events may be held in the form of cultural forums, discussions of foreign films, English-language competitions, debates etc. (Chunyan, 2015, p. 9).

CONCLUSIONS

Thus, modern trend in internationalization of higher education has made English language study not only as a “code system of signs” but also as a necessary condition to conduct of dialogue with the representatives of other cultures. Such initiative of the developed Asian countries as strengthening of international cooperation means activation of these countries in the sphere of higher education internationalization and increase of their students’ mobility. The result of these initiatives is close attention to forming students’ foreign language communication in Asian universities. One of important factors that influences forming foreign language communication skills under internationalization of higher education is acquiring specific knowledge about cross cultural relations, differences in the speech acts of native and target languages, systems of cultural values, peculiarities of verbal and nonverbal behaviour according to the rules of national culture.

Our further research will be focused on the analysis of foreign language teachers’ training in the universities of the Asian region.

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INTEGRATION OF ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES INTO APPLIED LINGUISTICS CURRICULUM: OVERVIEW OF LEADING UNIVERSITIES' EXPERIENCE AND A NEW APPROACH SUGGESTION

ABSTRACT

The aim of the paper is to prove the relevance and appropriateness of ESP for students studying Linguistics in tertiary education, design possible formats of its implementation and check its effectiveness by means of experiment. In the course of the research the experience and practice of leading universities of Great Britain, the USA, Canada and France have been analyzed, peculiarities and specificity of Applied Linguistics curriculum have been studied and the place of ESP in educational process has been defined. In the result of the conducted analysis a completely new approach to ESP in Applied Linguistics curriculum has been suggested. It has been defined that ESP course for linguists must be focused on the tasks corresponding to the types of professional tasks that linguists may perform in their future professional life. The idea of developing an ESP revision course has been outlined. Tasks within it are supposed to cover the main skills of professional linguists – doing research in linguistics, doing linguistic analysis of texts, processing information using IT and working with machine translation; translating and interpreting; editing and proofreading. 20 Bachelor's degree students of Khmelnytskyi National University (Ukraine) studying linguistics professionally in Applied Linguistics specialty took part in this research. The experiment took place in 2018-2019 and 2019-2020 academic years. The results of the experiment indicated significant dynamics in increase of students' academic performance (proficiency) in the experimental group. During the experiment, the students of the experimental group significantly improved their knowledge and developed ESP skills. At the beginning of the experiment only 5 students (17 %) had a high level of professional knowledge and skills whereas at the end of the experiment the number of students reached 6 (50 %). The originality and the value of the study lies in a new approach to ESP for future linguists (branch that has never been included to the list of ESL branches before). The value of the ESP revision course has not only been substantiated but demonstrated on the basis of designed lessons and samples of tasks that can be included into them.

Keywords: English for Specific Purposes (ESP); Applied Linguistics; professional training; professional needs; foreign language; curriculum.

АНОТАЦІЯ

Мета статті полягає в обґрунтуванні доцільності впровадження курсу спеціалізованої англійської мови для студентів, які вивчають лінгвістику у закладах



вищої освіти, розробці формату її впровадження та перевірки ефективності шляхом експерименту. У процесі дослідження було вивчено відповідний досвід провідних університетів Великої Британії, США, Канади та Франції, вивчено особливості та специфіку побудови навчальних планів зі спеціальності «Прикладна лінгвістика», а також з'ясовано роль спеціалізованої англійської мови в освітньому процесі. У результаті проведеного дослідження запропоновано принципово новий підхід до впровадження курсу спеціалізованої англійської мови для лінгвістів. З'ясовано, що він має базуватися на завданнях, які імітують професійні завдання, з якими лінгвістам доведеться зіштовхнутися у їхньому професійному житті. Окреслено ідею розробки узагальнювального курсу спеціалізованої англійської мови, завдання якого відповідають основним компетентностям професійних лінгвістів – здійснення дослідження в галузі лінгвістики, лінгвістичний аналіз текстів, обробка текстової інформації з використанням інформаційних технологій, робота з машинним перекладом, письмовий та усний переклад, вчитування та редагування текстів. У дослідженні взяли участь 20 студентів Хмельницького національного університету спеціальності «Філологія. Прикладна лінгвістика» освітнього рівня «Бакалавр». Експеримент відбувався у 2018–2019 та 2019–2020 н.р. Результати експерименту показали значну динаміку зростання навчальної успішності та компетентності студентів експериментальної групи. На початку експерименту лише 2 студентів (17%) демонстрували високий рівень професійних знань та навичок використання мови, тоді як на завершення експерименту цей показник зріс до 6 (50 %). Новизна та наукова цінність дослідження полягає у принципово новому підході до спеціалізованої англійської мови для лінгвістів (галузі, яка раніше ніколи не відносилася до переліку галузей спеціалізованої англійської мови). Важливість дослідження полягає в обґрунтуванні та наочній демонстрації доцільності впровадження узагальнювального курсу спеціалізованої англійської мови для лінгвістів на основі розроблених уроків та зразків завдань для них.

Ключові слова: спеціалізована англійська мова, прикладна лінгвістика, професійна підготовка, професійні потреби, іноземна мова, навчальний план.

INTRODUCTION

Teaching English to students in tertiary education presupposes understanding that learners are adults who already have substantial knowledge of English and are learning the language in order to communicate a set of professional skills and to perform particular job-related functions that are connected with the qualifications they get upon graduation (Johns et al., 2010). Thus, it is clear that the whole academic study is focused not on a general course of English, but on English for Specific Purposes (ESP).

ESP is a part of a larger movement within language teaching away from a concentration on teaching grammar and language structures to an emphasis on language in context. The ESP focus means that English is not taught as a subject separated from the students' real world; instead, it is integrated into a subject matter area important to the learners (Belcher, 2010). It is highly motivating because students are able to apply what they learn in their English classes to their major field of study, whether it be computer science, accounting, business management, economics, or tourism. Being able to use the vocabulary and structures that they learn in a meaningful context reinforces what is taught and increases students' motivation (Hyland, 2007).



THE AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of the paper is to prove the relevance and appropriateness of ESP for students studying Linguistics in tertiary education, design possible formats of its implementation and check its effectiveness by means of experiment.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH METHODS

The issue of ESP is not new in scientific literature and is widely covered in general aspects. Quite a lot of attention is paid to history of ESP (A. Johns (2010), B. Paltridge (2011). Theory and practice, methodology of ESP teaching are presented in works of D. Belcher (2010; 2013), J. Bloch (2013), A. Cheng (2011), A. Coxhead (2013), C. Feak (2013), K. Hyland (2007). An indispensable part of ESP teaching is the phase of needs analysis that is described in detail by D. Belcher (2011), L. Flowerdew (2011), L. Lukkarila (2011) and others. Numerous authors outline recommendations for teaching and academic courses development, e.g. H. Basturkmen (2010), L. Flowerdew (2013), D. Mohammed (2012), B. Patridge (2013), K. Schubert (2011)). Needless to mention the number of publications and researches related to definite branches of science, such as accounting, tourism, business management, banking, economics, social studies, psychology, ICT, medicine, PR, engineering, law and others. Nevertheless, little research has been done to explore the issue of ESP for professional linguists.

In the research we have used a range of general scientific methods (including study, analysis and synthesis of reference, scientific educational print and on-line sources), as well as systematization and generalization. Our research is qualitative (descriptive) and includes observation and narrative inquiry, as well as an experiment to test the effectiveness of the ESP revision course, mathematical methods of experimental data to determine the reliability of the obtained results, as well as to conduct qualitative and quantitative analyses of the obtained results.

RESULTS

ESP for each branch of knowledge has specific requirements to its teaching and learning. But still there is one branch that needs special attention when dealing with ESP. This is linguistics itself. Students studying linguistics professionally face double demands. They must have good command of English in general to be able to deal with texts and information in different branches of science. At the same time, they also work with specific “professional linguistic” English, which is necessary to study the language itself, be able to do research in linguistics, analyze diverse texts from different linguistic approaches, translate and interpret, proofread and edit etc. To perform this range of professional activities students definitely need substantial knowledge of English for specific job-related purposes. But there arises one question: What form should it have? Do students need to have a separate academic subject of ESP when they have a number of specialized academic subjects which they study in the course of their training (Stylistics, Lexicology, Fundamentals of Applied Linguistics, Linguistic Analysis of Texts, Communicative Linguistics, Text Editing, Pragmatics, Sociolinguistics, Translation, Corpus Linguistics etc.)? All these subjects are an ESP course themselves. They are full of special vocabulary and terminology necessary for linguists in their future work.

So, is it appropriate to single out an ESP for linguists? To answer this question, we should analyze the definition of ESP.

Collins Dictionary defines ESP as the teaching of English to students whose first language is not English but who need it for a particular job, activity, or purpose (Collins Dictionary, 2019).



According to University of Winnipeg, ESP is a learner-centered approach to teaching English, which focuses on developing communicative competence in a specific discipline and meets the specific needs of learners that focus on developing special language skills needed for success on the job (University of Winnipeg, 2018).

A. Johns states that ESP course is designed to meet learners' specific needs within their purpose for learning English (Johns, 1991).

We have cited definitions of ESP from a dictionary, university providing training in ESP and a researcher. All of them have one common idea that is related to the word "needs" – "need for a particular job, activity or purpose", "special language skills needed for success on the job", "specific needs within the purpose for learning English".

Students studying Linguistics in tertiary education have their needs directly related to the qualifications and competencies they obtain in the result of their study. So, to talk about appropriateness of ESP for linguists and possible formats it may have, it is reasonable to hold a needs assessment for students undergoing educational program in Linguistics, to analyze their curriculum, to carefully consider the qualifications that students obtain in the result of their study.

Our research (namely, needs assessment) is conducted in Khmelnytskyi National University (Ukraine), which provides professional training of future linguists in "Applied Linguistics" speciality. According to their educational program, students will become bachelors of Arts with qualification in Applied Linguistics. This qualification presupposes the development of a number of competencies:

- having special knowledge of linguistic theories, applied linguistics, different branches of philological research;
- being able to use language in different communicative contexts, do linguistic analysis of texts, annotate scientific, publicistic, fictional and business language texts;
- being capable of processing language used in media;
- performing functions of a translator and interpreter; being able to perform translation in different branches of science;
- being able to work with electronic dictionaries and use different computer programs for translation and text processing;
- being able to edit texts;
- working with official documents and their translation;
- conducting research in linguistics and applying its results in professional activity;
- proofreading and editing;
- dealing with machine translation and information technologies in translation (Standart vyshchoyi osvity Ukrainy, 2019).

These competencies give a better understanding of the "Applied Linguistics" students' needs as English learners. Surely enough, they have specific needs in language and have to develop special language skills. Therefore, it is quite reasonable to talk about ESP for linguists. But how to integrate it into their academic study? What form should it have? It is clear that the focus should not be on the grammar, lexis or comprehension of the language, but on how it is used in the academic or professional context. It is obvious that ESP course for linguists cannot be built on four main aspects of academic activity that is reading, writing, listening and speaking, as they are substantial for them anyway. It should be focused on the types of professional tasks that they may perform in their future



professional life and correspond to their needs or competencies. To be more specific and precise about these needs, we have to outline basic skills of future linguists on the ground of their competencies. Upon careful consideration of the latter we have outlined the main skills that must be covered in ESP for linguists:

- 1) doing research in linguistics,
- 2) doing linguistic analysis of texts,
- 3) processing information using IT and working with machine translation;
- 4) translating and interpreting;
- 5) editing and proofreading.

At the same time, it is clear that these skills cannot be provided with only one course (academic subject) of ESP as there must be a range of academic subjects to cover all these needs. Having analyzed the curriculum of “Applied Linguistics” we defined a range of specialized academic subjects corresponding to the needs of students (Table 1):

Table 1

Specialized Academic Subjects Corresponding to the Needs of Students

Specialized academic subjects	Knowledge and skills acquired
Fundamentals of Applied Linguistics	History, development and modern trends in Applied Linguistics as a science
Communicative Linguistics	Analysis of different communicative situations and providing appropriate communication in different contexts
Theory and Practice of Translation	Knowledge of translation means and devices, translation process, its analysis and editing
Machine Translation	Processing machine translation
Linguistic Analysis of Texts	Analysis of texts in terms of standards of textuality, coherence, cohesion, linguistic devices etc.
Lexicology of English	Knowledge of types of lexical units, ability to analyze them.
Stylistics of English	Analysis of stylistic devices and their appropriate use in communication
Pragmatics	Knowledge of communication contexts
IT Provision of Linguistic Activity	Using IT to work with texts and translation
Editing and Proofreading of Translation	Editing and proofreading original and translation texts
Contemporary English	General skills in reading, listening, speaking and writing in different branches of contemporary English
Corpus Linguistics	Using corpora to analyze texts and apply their functions in professional activity
Fundamentals of Scientific Research	Knowledge of methodology of scientific research and main principles of its conduction

Thus, linguists have a set of different specialized academic subjects (curriculum) which fully correspond to their professional needs and are studied at different stages of bachelor’s degree program. But in fact, till the end of study, knowledge acquired at earlier stages of professional training may be partially forgotten and lost. That is why our idea is to



work out a special ESP revision course at the final year of students' study to enliven the professional knowledge and intensify the skills at the very threshold of graduation.

Designing and implementation of ESP course for linguists

We have come up with the idea that ESP revision course should include tasks that will cover the main skills – doing research in linguistics, doing linguistic analysis of texts, processing information using IT and working with machine translation; translating and interpreting; editing and proofreading. Each skill is provided with definite disciplines:

1. Skills in doing research in Linguistics are developed within Fundamentals of Applied Linguistics and Fundamentals of Scientific Research.

2. Skills in doing linguistic analysis of texts are developed within Linguistic Analysis of Texts, Lexicology of English, Stylistics of English, Pragmatics, Communicative Linguistics, Corpus Linguistics.

3. Skills in processing information using IT and working with machine translation are developed within Machine Translation, IT Provision of Linguistic Activity, Corpus Linguistics.

4. Skills in translating and interpreting are developed within Theory and Practice of Translation, Contemporary English, Corpus Linguistics.

5. Skills in editing and proofreading are developed within Editing and Proofreading of Translation, Stylistics of English, Communicative Linguistics.

Development of these skills within one academic subject or course is very demanding in terms of teaching (as different specialists develop different skills). Our idea is that it must be carried out with the use of co-teaching that will help to combine different kinds of activities within one ESP course. Here the role of the teacher or lecturer (developer of the course) is a crucial one. This person has to:

1. Organize programs and lessons, that is set goals for the students and then translate those goals into an instructional program with hourly, daily, and weekly activities; manage, select and organize course materials, support the students in their efforts, and provide them with feedback on their progress.

2. Set goals and objectives, that is arrange the conditions for learning in the classroom and set long-term goals and short-term objectives for student achievements; be aware of students' capabilities while designing a program with realistic goals that take into account students' contribution to the learning situation.

3. Establish a positive learning environment, that is to use communication skills in establishing the classroom atmosphere, provide interaction of students, model good communication skills in the classroom, support them and build their confidence.

4. Evaluate students' progress, that is to help students identify their language-learning problems and find solutions to them; identify the skills that students need to focus on, and take responsibility for making choices which determine what and how the students learn; serve as a source of information for the students about how they are progressing in their language learning (English for Specific Purposes, 1986).

Having outlined the skills which are to be developed within the ESP course and the role of its developer, it's the right time to design the program itself. It includes the process of setting goals, designing units, and preparing lesson plans (English for Specific Purposes, 1986). Setting goals is the first step in the development of the instructional program. These goals will reflect what a teacher intends for the students to be able to do at the end of the course of instruction. These goals encompass the skills needed for academic study in an ESP situation. In formulating the goals, it is necessary to set priorities for the development of language skills, and in doing so it is useful to bear in mind that reception



precedes production in language learning. In other words, students cannot learn something that they cannot understand. A manageable initial objective, then, is to improve the students' receptive competence. Having set long-term goals, teachers are ready to select materials and classroom exercises that lead to the development of appropriate skills (Basturkmen, 2010).

It is impractical to think of designing the entire semester or a year-long ESP syllabus in advance. It is impossible, at the beginning of the course, to know how quickly students will progress. Instead, it is better to try to outline one or two units of instruction before classes begin and then be flexible in adapting or modifying the syllabus. A unit in this ESP course cannot be developed by identifying a major theme or selecting a topic (due to the fact that one unit will include tasks from different academic subjects) but only by setting appropriate instructional objectives according to the skills defined. Activities can then be selected to develop the skills having been identified as needed by the students (Hyland, 2007).

Appropriate objectives for instruction should be identified not only to know the skills that are planned to be taught in each unit, but for the students themselves. Objectives should be written for each unit of instruction to address the specific skills that must be developed. It is necessary to evaluate the syllabus of ESP to determine whether the goals and objectives are met, and then make adjustments to it based on this evaluation (Johns, 2011).

Table 2

Schematic ESP Lesson Designs

Lesson 1		Lesson 2	
Skills to be developed	Tasks	Skills to be developed	Tasks
Doing scientific research in Linguistics	Define and describe linguistic competences and their connection with “non-language” disciplines	Doing linguistic analysis of texts	Students are given a sample of a text to be analyzed according to seven standards of textuality and a sample of text to be analyzed as to its coherence and cohesion
Processing information using IT	Using Prompt program create a list of words from a given text to further compile a thematic thesaurus and users' dictionary	Working with machine translation	Translate a text from English into Ukrainian using Prompt and Pragma. Then do comparative analysis of the quality of two translations
Translating	Some students translate from English and then other learners back translate; then they compare original and translated versions and discuss the differences	Interpreting	Using a recorded text of some conference delivery dramatize an interpreting practice for a pair of students (one reads an original text, the other one – interprets). The rest of the group should note mistakes and then make a group discussion
Editing	Students are given samples of some thematic blog texts. They have to imagine that the text of the blog is to be published in a magazine. They have to edit it to be ready for publishing	Proofreading	Proofread samples of CVs, application letters, formal requests, a piece of unpublished essay etc.



Students will feel most comfortable and secure in their learning situation if the designed program is well structured and when expectations for the students are clear. Extra time must be taken in the initial class to explain how each exercise should be approached and why it should be done (Mohammad, 2014). Lessons cannot be organized in such a way as to cover all skills, but these skills should be practiced at regular intervals in a “cycle” format, which is recommended to provide review and reinforcement of skills.

Here we are going to suggest two approximate schematic ESP lesson designs. The first type is aimed at one set of skills and the other one is aimed at the other set of skills. All skills are covered within these two sets (types) of lessons. So, these lessons must alternate each other. The tasks may vary but they are aimed at practising and developing the defined skills (Table 2):

These two types of lessons should alternate each other all the time providing diversity of activities at the lessons but ensuring the regular development of all the outlined skills (“cycle” of skills). If in the course of the work, a teacher understands that there is not enough time to do 4 tasks during a lesson, then the skills (and tasks correspondingly) can be divided into a cycle of three or even four types of lessons (with three or two skills to be trained during a lesson accordingly).

To check the appropriateness and practicality, as well as effectiveness of such an ESP course, we carried out an experiment.

Experimental verification of relevance and effectiveness of ESP course for linguists

Experiment methodology

Participants

23 Bachelor’s degree students of Khmelnytskyi National University studying linguistics professionally in Applied Linguistics specialty took part in this research. The experiment took place in 2018-2019/2019-2020 academic years. The participants were divided into two groups (experimental and control).

Apparatus and materials

The experimental teaching resources and materials consisted of 1) tests to assess students’ academic performance and professional skills in ESP revision course; 2) the syllabus of ESP revision course.

Procedure

The research comprised studying, analysis and generalization of scientific literature dedicated to the problem; collecting, organizing, and evaluating data; making deductions and reaching conclusions; testing the conclusions to determine whether they fit the formulated hypotheses. Comparison and analysis of previous theoretical studies, monitoring of the educational process allowed formulating primary and secondary research hypotheses.

Primarily, it was hypothesized that the use of ESP revision course can increase the development of skills needed to increase the level of students’ academic performance in general. To further explore the primary hypothesis, the researchers assumed that the development/improvement of skills influences the level of students’ proficiency in Linguistics necessary for successful taking of certification exam.

The stages of the experiment were as follows: 1) hypotheses formulation, 2) ESP program (syllabus) design, 3) experimental groups selection, 4) experimental studying, 5) research data analysis.

The levels of students’ professional performance and skills development among the participants were measured by the formula $K=A/N$ where K is learning outcomes index, A is the number of scores received for correct answers, and N is a maximal number of scores assigned for correct answers (Bespalko, 1968). The learning outcomes index of 0.7



and higher was considered acceptable according to Cronbach's alpha coefficient of reliability (Cronbach, 1951).

The experiment was conducted at Khmelnytskyi National University. During the experiment, two assessments were made in control (11 students) and experimental (12 students) groups. The first assessment in the control and experimental groups was made at the beginning of the semester to identify the levels of students' academic performance and skills development. The second assessment was made at the final stage of the experiment, at the end of the semester, to determine the dynamics of students' skills development and the level of their academic performance in control and experimental groups. In our research students' academic performance has been characterized as low (poor identification of skills), medium (sufficient) and high (highly developed skills). The results of students' assessments at the beginning and at the end of experiment as well as dynamics of formation of skills that must be developed within the course of ESP for linguists are presented in table 3.

Table 3

The Results of Students' Assessments at the Beginning and at the End of Experiment

Skills	Levels	CG				Difference, %	EG				Difference, %
		Beginning of experiment		End of experiment			Beginning of experiment		End of experiment		
		total num.	%	total num.	%		total num.	%	total num.	%	
Doing research in linguistics	Low	6	55	5	46	-9	6	50	3	25	-25
	Medium	3	27	3	27	0	4	33	5	42	+9
	High	2	18	3	27	+9	2	17	4	33	+16
Processing information using IT and editing machine translation	Low	5	46	4	36	+10	5	42	2	17	-25
	Medium	5	46	5	46	0	5	42	4	33	-9
	High	1	8	2	18	+10	2	8	6	50	+42
Doing linguistic analysis of texts	Low	5	46	4	36	+10	5	42	1	8	-34
	Medium	5	46	5	46	0	6	50	6	60	+10
	High	1	8	2	18	+10	1	8	5	42	+34
Translating and interpreting	Low	5	46	3	27	-19	5	42	0	0	-42
	Medium	3	27	4	36	+9	4	33	7	56	+23
	High	3	27	4	36	+9	3	25	5	42	+17
Editing and proofreading original and translated texts	Low	6	55	5	46	-9	6	50	1	8	-42
	Medium	3	27	3	27	0	6	50	5	42	-8
	High	2	18	3	27	+9	0	0	6	50	+50



The data available show that at the beginning of the experiment the level of development of students' skills in EG and CG is almost identical, but after the experimental studying the number of students with high level of skills development in EG is higher. Consequently, the comparative analysis of the levels of skills at the beginning and at the end of the experiment shows a positive increase of the index in both the experimental and control groups after the experiment.

Besides, correlation analysis revealed that there is a close functional interrelation between these ESP skills and the level of students' academic performance. So, we can claim that the development of any of these skills will increase the level of students' proficiency in general (Table 4).

Table 4

Dynamics of Students' Performance Level

Levels	CG				EG			
	Beginning of experiment		End of experiment		Beginning of experiment		End of experiment	
	quant.	%	quant.	%	quant.	%	quant.	%
High	2	18	3	37	2	17	6	50
Medium	3	27	3	37	3	25	4	33
Low	6	55	5	46	7	58	2	17
Total	11	100	11	100	12	100	12	100

The results of the experiment indicated some significant dynamics in increase of student' academic performance and professional skills in the experimental group. During the experiment, the students of the experimental group significantly improved their academic performance and developed their professional skills. In particular, at the beginning, only 2 students (17 %) had a high level of academic performance and professional skills, at the end of the experiment the number of students reached 6 (50 %).

To confirm the results obtained during the experiment, we have compared the average grades and the learning outcomes index in control and experimental groups (Table 5).

Table 5

Difference in Average Grade and Learning Outcomes Index of EG and CG

Groups	Beginning of experiment		End of experiment		Difference	
	Average grade	Learning outcomes index	Average grade	Learning outcomes index	Average grade	Learning outcomes index
EG	3,16	0,6	4,16	0,83	1	0,23
CG	3,27	0,66	3,45	0,69	0,18	0,03

The experimental data from the table indicate that the level of academic performance and professional skills of EG and CG students at the beginning of the experiment is insufficient. For example, the learning outcomes index in EG was 0,6, in CG – 0,66. After conducting the experimental studying, EG students reached and exceeded the minimum level of learning outcomes index – 0,83, while the students of CG hardly reached the minimum level – 0,69. The increase of learning outcomes index in the EG was 0,23 (the average grade of the group increased by 1), and in CG – 0,03 (the average grade of the group increased by 0,18). So, students of EG are more prepared to taking the certification exam than the students of CG. This leads to the conclusion that the difference in the indexes



of the experimental and control groups is not accidental but caused by effective experimental studying. In the control group no significant results were obtained. Therefore, the effectiveness of the designed course of ESP for linguists has been proved. This is confirmed by the positive changes in the level of students' professional skills that must be developed within the course of ESP.

CONCLUSIONS

The conducted experiment testifies that ESP for linguists proves to be effective in terms of the level of students' academic performance and skills development as well as in terms of their preparedness to taking a certification exam aimed at giving a Bachelor's degree in Applied Linguistics.

It has been substantiated that ESP for linguists can be implemented into the study of students with consideration of skills that have to be developed, not aspects of learning activity (reading, writing, listening, speaking). This course presupposes the use of co-teaching that provides effectiveness of ESP. Besides, the outlined course can be effective provided it has good designing and syllabus. The role of the teacher of the ESP course is crucial as this person is a developer, organizer and evaluator.

The prospects of further research include teacher professional development for teaching ESP for applied linguists as well as the development of skills for co-teaching in ESP.

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**A CASE STUDY OF ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE
AND ATTENDANCE BETWEEN REASONAL ADJUSTMENT
AND FOUNDATION YEAR STUDENTS IN LANGUAGE CLASSES**

ABSTRACT

This research examines the study of students with low academic ability and mental health, namely Reasonable Adjustment (RA) students in language classes and compares it with Foundation Year (FY) students. It also considers challenges language teachers at this university may have with their students. At the university where this study was conducted, an increasing number of Reasonable Adjustment (RA) students and Foundation Year (FY) students are studying Japanese as an elective module of their degree program. RA refers to those who suffer from mental disabilities such as anxiety and depression. The aim of this study is to examine if there are any significant differences or similarities in academic performance and attendance between RA and FY students in the language studies. The study was carried out with the help of quantitative method using a final test called Unseen Exam (UEX) and students' attendance percentage. The duration of this study was over two semesters (Autumn and Spring terms) in the 2018/19 academic year at a British university in the South of England. The participants were 16 students who learn Japanese Beginners' level through the Institution Wide Language Program (IWLP). Among 16 students, 6 were RA students and 10 were FY students. The quantitative data were analysed using the IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Statistical (SPSS) 25 and descriptive and analytical statistics were conducted. The results of datasets showed that there was a statistically significant difference in both UEX and attendance between FY and RAs. Also the average of FY was higher in both UEX and attendance. Furthermore, the findings of correlation showed that UEX and attendance are correlated and statistically significant. There was also a statistically significant relationship between the UEX and the students and also between the attendance and the students.

Keywords: attendance, academic performance, higher education, Foundation Year (FY) Students, language learning, Reasonable Adjustment (RA) Students.

АНОТАЦІЯ

У статті досліджено процес навчання студентів з поганими навчальними здібностями та розумовими (психологічними) проблемами, які навчаються за корекційною мовною програмою в університетах Великої Британії. Здійснено порівняльний аналіз процесу їх навчання зі студентами, які навчаються за базовою мовною програмою. Також окреслено проблеми, з якими зіштовхуються викладачі таких студентів. В університеті, де проводилося дослідження, все більша кількість студентів, які навчаються за базовою або корекційною мовною програмою, вивчають японську мову як вибіркову дисципліну освітньої програми. Корекційна програма розрахована на студентів, які мають певні розумові або психологічні проблеми і страждають на депресію тощо. Мета дослідження – з'ясувати, чи є суттєві відмінності або спільні риси в навчальній успішності та відвідуваності мовних занять студентами, які



навчаються за корекційною або базовою мовною програмою. У дослідженні було застосовано метод кількісного аналізу для підрахунку результатів підсумкового тесту та відсотку відвідуваності занять студентами. Дослідження тривало два семестри (осінній і весняний) у 2018–2019 н.р. у британському університеті на півдні Англії. Участь брали 16 студентів, які вивчають японську на початковому рівні в рамках мовної програми *Institution Wide Language Program*. Серед 16 студентів 10 навчалися за базовою програмою і 6 – за корекційною. Було проаналізовано кількісні дані, а також зібрано описову та аналітичну статистику. Результати даних свідчать про значну статистичну відмінність між студентами, які навчаються за базовою або корекційною програмою як за результатами тесту, так і за відсотком відвідуваності мовних занять. Середній показник студентів, які займаються за базовою програмою, є вищим за двома показниками. Дослідження показало статистично важливе співвідношення між результатами тесту, відсотком відвідуваності занять та самими студентами.

Ключові слова: відвідуваність, навчальна успішність, вища освіта, базова програма навчання іноземної мови, вивчення мови, корекційна програма навчання іноземної мови.

INTRODUCTION

Globalisation brings the university classrooms a diversity of learners in various cultural backgrounds, academic abilities, physical and mental health. This study examines the students with low academic ability and mental health. The language teachers at this university may have two challenges with their students. The first challenge is the fact that this university welcomes and encourages mental health students as follows in the university website, namely: “This university offers a free counselling services and confidential therapy to students, offering a range of therapeutic approaches for individuals and group counselling, as well as workshops. Counselling sessions are 50 minutes long. In addition to counselling service, Student Support Unit (SSU) offers specialist advice and guidance to any student with a physical disability, mental health disability and dyslexia or dyspraxia. All students with a disability or long-term health condition who register with the SSU will be allocated a Disability Advisor.”

Mental health students at this university are told to call “Reasonable Adjustments (RAs)” among the language staff because they require reasonable adjustments in the assessment. RAs in assessment include: 1) 25 % extra time is given; 2) sitting in the exam in small group and 3) 15-minute rest break. RAs during the classroom include: 1) leaving the seminar/lecture and one-to-one presentation with the lecturer instead of presentation in the classroom; 2) even though students are absent from the class, lecturers have to make his/her attendance to Absent Notified; 3) do not ask the student academic questions in front of the class; 4) coursework extension for the deadline (7 days) can be requested.

As RAs include various psychological illnesses, specifically students with depression, anxiety and learning disability. RAs also include aspects of learning disability, which are characterised by significant limitations in intellectual function, reasoning, learning, problem solving and in adaptive behaviour’ (Adibersshki et al., 2015).

The second challenge is that this university has FY programs. FY programmes offer “unqualified people to upgrade their knowledge sufficiently to qualify them to enter tertiary programmes” (Fraser et al., 1990). The majorities of the foundation courses seem to agree that foundation year study provides the preparation for the undergraduate studies. The focus of current FY programs at British universities seems to include at least the following two: a) to “gain the subject-specific knowledge and skills required to move onto degree-level studies” (University A) and b) “practice-based with opportunities to develop academic skills and abilities” (University B). Although the university in this study does not clearly



indicate the focus of its FY program, considering that FY students in this study are allowed to take language courses as one of their learning options, the focus of FY may be considered as “practice-based”.

THE AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study is to explore the relationship between students’ Unseen Exam (UEX) test results and their attendance in the Japanese classes. Japanese is offered as a part of their degree through Institution Wide Language Programme (IWLP). Previous studies find that attendance has positive effect on students’ grades. Considering “the vicious cycle between poor attendance and poor performances” (Kwak, Sherwood & Tang, 2018), the results of this study may be anticipated. This paper was guided by the following Research Question (RQ):

Is there any significant difference in academic performance and attendance participation between RAs and FY students?

This RQ has two specific sub-questions:

- Does the average UEX marks differ between RAs and FY students?
- Does the average attendance differ between RAs and FY students?

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH METHODS

Various factors may be associated with the cause of RAs. Psychological research indicates that children of highly dysfunctional families are at risk for mental health problem (Lipman, Offord & Boyle, 1994). Family dysfunction is defined as “the attendance of mutually supportive, trusting and respectful family relationships” (Strohschein, 2005). For example, individuals lacking the necessary encouragement at home may not be predisposed to participation and sense of belonging (Finn, 1989). Parental attachment among college freshmen has also been linked to lower level of psychological distress (Bradford & Lyddon, 1993) and better psychological adjustment (Holmbeck & Wandrei, 1993; Kenny & Donaldson, 1991). Whether the student is the “first- or second- generation college student” is also an important factor. According to Pittman & Richmond (2007), first-generation college students are those who entered university without guidance of parents who have already completed a university education. The first-generation college students appear to have more problems adapting to the university environment than second-generation college students (Shields, 2002), such as difficulty of self-regulating the learning process, meeting deadlines and concentrating on subject (Hellman & Harbeck, 1997). Remarriage may have negative effects on children (Chase-Lansdale, 1994; Cherilin & Furstenberg, 1994; Heatherington & Clingempeel, 1992; Kernan, 1992). Several large-scale surveys with nationally representative samples find modest long-term negative effects of divorce in childhood or adolescence (Amato & Booth, 1991; Furstenberg & Teiler, 1994; Kessler & Magee, 1994). The study of parental divorce and child mental health trajectories indicates that in comparison to children in intact households, children whose parents divorce over the course of the survey exhibit slightly higher levels of anxiety/depression prior to divorce and there is a further increase in anxiety/depression in response to the divorce itself (Strohschein, 2005). The ability and motivation of one or both parents to invest time, effort and resources into the lives of their children may become increasingly compromised (Sun & Li, 2001) and “failure to make these investments overtime...exact a mental health cost on children” (Stohshein, 2005).

The following research methods have been used:

1. Sample

The total number of students is 16, of which 10 students are FY and RA is 6 students. Among 6 RAs students who registered with SSU, four students suffer from both



anxiety and depression, one suffers from dyslexia, one student suffers from autism and OCD and one student suffers from the combination of depressions, anxiety and OCD. This study also includes some FY students who show the similar attendance and exam marks but they prefer not to disclose their RA status. Students attend the classes twice a week for 12 weeks per term. The duration of this study was two terms (Autumn and Spring terms).

2. Data collection and reliability

Two sets of quantitative data are: 1) results of students' UEX score and 2) their attendance in percentage. Attendance data were recorded and collected for the two semesters a year. UEX is one of five assessments in Autumn and Spring term: Autumn term has two Assignments (each value 50 %) and spring term has two Assignments (each value 25 %) and the UEX (50 %). The reason why UEX was chosen is because this is the only assessment which was timed (90 minutes) and administered by invigilators. In addition, a previous study (Winch, 2013) suggests that the assessment which is timed and administered by invigilators is more statistically significant than the coursework which students can submit on line or take home and submit them. The Unseen exam consists of three parts: Grammar, Reading and Writing. Grammar and Reading consists of a mixture of closed and open-ended questions. Reliability is defined as "consistency with which we measure something". Considering the reliability of the UEX, it is possible to say that marking and grading can be considered fairly reliable, as it was consistently marked and graded for the two groups by one teacher (who was also the researcher). UEX was also double-checked by another teaching staff for quality check which increases the reliability.

3. Data analysis

IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Statistics 25 was used for the descriptive statistics and statistical analyses. "Descriptive statistics include the mean, standard deviation (SD), range of scores, skewness and kurtosis". Statistical analyses include *t*-test and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), correlation. Correlation is used to explore the association or relationship between pairs of variables and for non-experimental research designs. ANOVA is used to explore differences among three- (or more) groups (Pallant, 2013), the Chi-square test evaluates changes in a single-group (Robson, 2011) and a *t*-test is a test for two-groups or two sets of data (before or after). To address RQ2, descriptive statistics, *t*-test and correlation were considered suitable to be used. Correlation was considered suitable to examine if UEX and attendance are statistically correlated. As for *t*-tests, there are several different types of *t*-tests available such as paired-sample *t*-tests and independent sample *t*-tests. Paired-samples *t*-tests compare scores on two different variables but for the *same* group of cases whereas independent-samples *t*-tests compare scores on the same variable but for two different groups of cases. In this study, independent-sample *t*-test is also used as it addresses the two sub-RQs of the RQ2. Independent-sample *t*-test is "used when you want to compare the mean scores of two different groups of people or conditions" (Pallant, 2013). In this study, 16 students were split into two groups, that is, RAs as one group and FY as a second group. The aim was to see if the means of FY are statistically significantly different than the means for RAs in UEX and attendance. Two groups are measured one time. As each of the group is independent of each other, we can use an independent sample *t*-test. Two groups (RAs and FY) are measured in variables of UEX scores and attendance percentage. Two sub-questions to the RQ2 were given: if there are any significant differences in UEX scores between RAs and FY students (sub question 1 to the RQ2) and if the average attendance differs between RAs and FY students (sub question 2 to the RQ2). So, two variables of UEX scores and absence percentage are compared between RAs and FY students.



RESULTS

Descriptive statistics of UEX scores for FY and RAs

The mean (std deviation) score for all students (sixteen) was 34.56 (27.06), scores ranged from 0 to 82. Comparing the means and standard deviation for FY and RA student for UEX scores, the breakdown of eleven students were seven FY students and four RA students. The mean (Std Deviation) score for FY was 46.90 (27.74) whereas the mean (Std Deviation) score for RAs was 14.00 (16.82).

These descriptive statistics indicate two different academic ability groups which can be summarised using Stem-and-leaf plots. It shows that the means of FY students are higher (46.9 %) those of RA students (14 %).

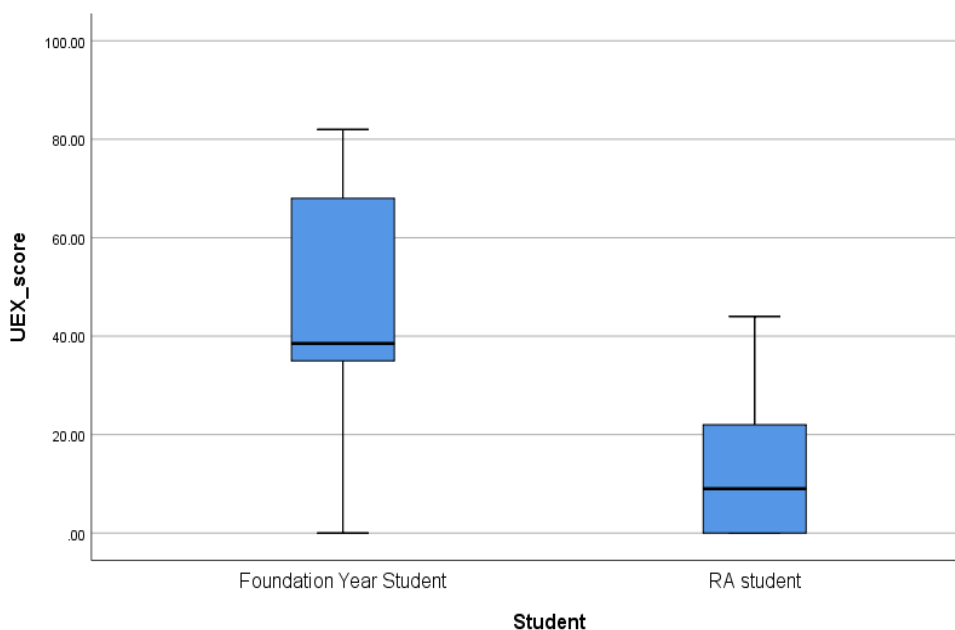


Figure 1. Stem-and-leaf plots for UEX score to compare FY and RA students

Descriptive statistics of attendance for FY and RAs

We will now focus on a different variable – attendance. The mean (std deviation) score for all students (sixteen students) was 69.63 (25.97), scores ranged from 8 to 100. Comparing the means and standard deviation for FY and RA student for attendance, the breakdown of sixteen students were ten FY students and six RA students. The mean (Std Deviation) score for FY was 81.20 (16.67) whereas the mean (std deviation) score for RAs was 49.67 (27.70).

The above stem-leaf-plots indicate that distributions for FY and RA students are also different. The means of FY students are higher (81.2 %) than those of RA students (49.7 %). Since this study was conducted over two semesters, next section considers each semester (Autumn and Spring term).

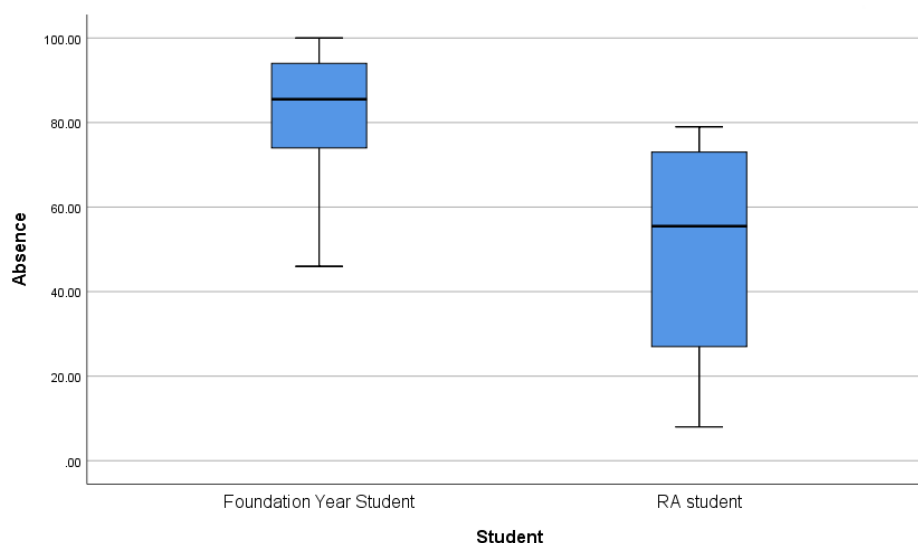


Figure 2. Stem-and-leaf plots for Attendance percent to compare FY and RA students

Analysis of Independent sample t-test

There are three ways to determine statistical significance. The first is to compare the t -value to a critical value for the t distribution. For 14 degrees of freedom, the critical value is 2.145. This will be the same critical value for both of these t -tests (i.e. UEX and attendance). For UEX score, t -value is 2.865, which is larger than the critical value of 2.145. When the t -value is larger than the critical value, the means are statistically significantly different. The t -value for attendance is 2.871, which is also larger than the critical value of 2.145. Therefore, by this determinant of significance the attendance means are statistically significant.

Secondly, the probability values are smaller than 0.05. The p -value for UEX is 0.01 which is smaller. The p -value for attendance is also 0.01 which is smaller than 0.05. Thirdly, we look at confident interval if it crosses zero. For UEX, both lower and upper value are positive (do not cross zero). For attendance, both lower and upper values are also positive (do not cross zero).

The UEX mean score of FY students is 46.90 and that of RA is 14.00. Therefore, the performance of FY students in UEX score was significantly better than that of RAs. The Attendance mean score of FY students is 81.20% and that of RA is 49.67%. Therefore, the FY students' attendance to the class was significantly better than that of RAs. We should also note about the effect size.

Correlation between UEX and Attendance

We can see correlation coefficient between two variables of UEX score and attendance. Correlation coefficient between UEX and attendance is 0.660, which is pretty high. As the significant level is 0.005, it is smaller than 0.05. UEX and Attendance are correlated and statistically significant. The biserial correlation between UEX and students (-0.608*) has an asterisk. This means that we can see that this correlation is significant at the 0.005 level. In fact, the p -value is 0.012. Therefore, there is a statistically significant relationship between the UEX and students. Similarly, the biserial correlation between



attendance and students (-0.609^*) has an asterisk. This means that we can see that this correlation is significant at the 0.005 level. In fact, the p-value is 0.012. So there is a statistically significant relationship between the attendance and student.

CONCLUSIONS

A review of the RQ enabled us to summarise key conclusions of this study. RQ was if there is any significant difference in academic performance and attendance participation between RAs and FY students. The results of the descriptive statistics and statistical analysis of the datasets showed that there was statistically significantly difference in both UEX and attendance between FY and RAs. They also showed that the means of FY were both higher in UEX and attendance.

In the result of the study we managed to answer two sub-questions:

1. Does the average UEX marks differ between RAs and FY students? The answer is: as for UEX scores, the FY students ($Mean = 46.90, SD = 24.74; t [16] = 2.865, p = 0.012$) had statistically significantly better marks than RA ($Mean = 14.00, SD = 16.82$). The mean score of UEX for the FY was 32.9 points higher than that of RAs.

2. Does the average attendance differ between RAs and FY students? The answer is: attendance of FY students is $M = 81.20, SD = 16.67$ and of RAs it is $M = 49.67, SD = 27.70; t (16) = 2.87, p = 0.012$. The mean score of attendance for the FY was 30.87 percent higher than that of RAs, which indicates that FY's attendance is much better than that of RA.

To discuss suggestions of further research, the limitation of this study should be acknowledged. The limitation of this study was to consider FYs and RAs as nominal values, which means considering FYs and RAs as completely independent each other. However, the reality of the students cannot be clearly separated FYs and RAs, as some RAs may be also FYs whereas some RAs may be undergraduate first-year students. Therefore, suggested further studies include addressing this point, that is, separating RAs into two groups (Group 1: FY RAs; Group2: first-year RAs), and comparing the means of UEX and attendance between these two groups for further investigation.

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ACADEMIC DIALOGUE IN THE NARRATIONS OF STUDENTS OF PEDAGOGY IN THE YEARS FROM 2006 TO 2016

ABSTRACT

In this article the author proposes to reflect on the phenomenon of dialogue, indicating its special importance for the process of higher education. The author is interested in academic dialogue, recognizing that changes in the way it is understood and implemented reflect transformation in the higher education system as well as on wider scale – in culture and social life. The question about what understanding of academic dialogue is presented by students I pose in the context of expressed doubts about the situation of higher education in the 21st century (the mass and egalitarian nature of studies, lowering the quality, professionalization and marketization of academic education, weakening academic communities and personal distance of members of the academic community). The author tries to extract and read based on 27 student narratives, which are the material collected during qualitative research (in-depth individual interviews (IDI) with students completing their Master's degree studies: fifteen – in 2006 and twelve – in 2016), the prospects for understanding dialogue and the ways it is understood by successive generations of the youth. The analysis of the obtained narratives of the students led to the conclusion that the dialogue was understood by them from two perspectives that I defined: pragmatic and humanistic, perspectives interpenetrating each other but separable. I established that the dominant perspective – both among students graduating in 2006 and 2016 – was the pragmatic perspective and I brought out the types of understanding of dialogue that fall within its scope. I described the humanistic perspective, which was still clearly present in the statements of the students in 2006 but which disappeared in the statements of 2016. Thinking about the directions of noticed changes in understanding of dialogue, including strengthening of thinking about academic dialogue in terms of effective communication, taking place in a friendly and pleasant atmosphere and reducing expectations of personal dialogue, deepening existential understanding, the author sees confirmation for the thesis that changes in understanding of the academic dialogue reflect changes in understanding of the meaning of studies and the state of personalization / depersonalization of contemporary universities.

Keywords: *dialogue, academic dialogue, understanding of dialogue, Polish students of pedagogy, academic community.*

АНОТАЦІЯ

Стаття пропонує замислитися над явищем діалогу, вказуючи на його особливе значення для вищої освіти. Автора статті цікавить академічний діалог, оскільки зміни в його розумінні та здійсненні відображають трансформацію як у системі вищої освіти, так і в культурі та суспільному житті. Питання про те, як саме розуміють академічний діалог студенти, автор ставить у контексті висловлених сумнівів щодо вищої освіти у XXI столітті (масовий та егалітарний характер навчання, зниження якості, професіоналізація та маркетизація академічної освіти,



ослаблення академічних спільнот та особиста віддаленість членів академічної спільноти). Аналіз розповідей учнів вказує на те, що вони зрозуміли діалог у контексті двох перспектив: прагматичної та гуманістичної, що проникають одна в одну, але відокремлюються. Зазначено, що домінуюча перспектива серед студентів, які закінчили у 2006 та 2016 роках, – це прагматична перспектива, і автор статті визначила типи розуміння діалогу, що підпадають під його рамки. Автор описала гуманістичну перспективу, яка все ще чітко присутня у висловлюваннях студентів у 2006 році, але зникла у висловлюваннях 2016 р. Роздумуючи про напрями помічених змін у розумінні діалогу, включаючи посилення мислення про академічний діалог з точки зору ефективного спілкування, що відбувається в дружній та приємній атмосфері, та зменшення очікувань щодо особистого діалогу, поглиблення екзистенційного розуміння, автор бачить підтвердження тези, що зміни в розумінні академічного діалогу відображають зміни в розумінні сенсу навчання та стану персоналізації / знеособлення сучасних університетів.

Ключові слова: діалог, академічний діалог, розуміння діалогу, студенти педагогічних ЗВО у Польщі, академічна спільнота.

INTRODUCTION

For centuries the academic dialogue has been a permanent and constitutive element. It was a standard and condition for high quality education, a feature of academic education. The specific relationship between dialogue and academic education may lead to perceive them in an almost inseparable connection (Horowski, 2009; Czerepaniak-Walczak, 2013; Jankowska, 2017). The perception of academic dialogue in relation to the ongoing process of education (and vice versa: the statement that the process of academic education can be reduced to a broadly understood range of dialogue experiences) is conditioned by the adoption of a humanistic perspective, having its references in different ways of thinking, which is, after all, linked by the assumption that the development of human personality is achieved through dialogue, which is a meaningful and educating experience. This assumption can be found in the thoughts of the dialogues, assuming that the primary experience of a man, which develops self-awareness and identity, is the personal relationship between the Self and personal dialogue (Buber, 1992; Levinas, 2002; Rosenzweig, 1998, Tischner 1990) as well as concepts of the hermeneutical paradigm, perceiving in the man the historical understanding of the individual, striving for self-actualization, shaping and exceeding oneself in the experience of hermeneutical dialogue (Ricoeur 1989, Gadamer, 1993; 1993b (actuality of beauty) 2001; Milerski, 2011). The links between dialogue and education also expose constructivist approaches, indicating that the man is a being who participates in the intersubjective world of meanings and that his development takes place in symbolic interactions, in an engaging dialogue with the sign systems that reach him, leading in consequence to their mutual reading and valorisation (cf. Vygotsky, 1989; Bruner 1964, 1978). The concepts of the critical-emancipation trend, on the other hand, emphasize the special importance of dialogue for the training of critical abilities of the man and his maturing to accept communicative rationality (Habermas, 1999, 2002; Czerepaniak-Walczak, 2006, 2013).

All the above approaches, exposing the role of dialogue in the processes of education, assume that the man remains in a relationship with others in the common and co-created world throughout his life. If he manages to establish dialogue links – he will have a chance to broaden the spheres of his cognition, deepen his understanding of himself and the



surrounding reality. These dialogical bonds are respect and trust towards the adversary, a willingness to listen and understand his position and, at the same time, a courageous presentation of one's own thoughts, openness to seeking the truth and readiness to verify the views presented (Bińczycka 1985; Tarnowski 1992, Tyburski, 2000; Śnieżyński, 2008). It is worth stressing out that the dialogue takes place in the conditions of discerning an inspiring, perceived in terms of the value, difference in positions, in honest confrontation whose aim is not to push one's own position but to come closer to the truth. Hence, its natural presence in scientific life, which develops thanks to intellectual tension, born out of a situation where different perceptions of reality come into contact. From the very beginning, the forges of science, which are universities, have been a place of academic disputes and polarization of views (Jaskot, 1984; Goćkowski, 1997; Heller, 2009; Denek, 2013, Sajdak, 2013). Traditionally, academic education has consisted in involving students in the process of dialogue taking place within the university walls. It requires dialogue, because it is not a one-way transmission of knowledge, but it is carried out in a communication that will make knowledge understandable for the recipient and which will open up to deepening, questioning and posing new questions. The dialogue, in order to bring expected results, requires maturity of participants. Traditionally, academic education has consisted in involving the students, who had that maturity, in the process of dialogue taking place within the university walls. Are these traditions still maintained? Is and what dialogue is present in the process of academic education?

THE AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of the article is to liberate reflection on the changes in the understanding of the value of dialogue and universities as a place of dialogue by successive generations of young people studying in Poland. The understanding of the value of dialogue by students, their descriptions of its manifestations and forms together with the assessment of its presence within the walls of universities can be considered as indirect indicators of the quality of the academic education process and, more broadly, of the life of academic communities. Does the fact of revolutionary changes in the system of academic education in Poland, which have been taking place for over a dozen years, and which are part of the global directions of development of higher education constitute an answer to wide socio-cultural trends (globalisation and integration, marketization of culture, capitalisation of knowledge and consumerism, media and computerisation, egalitarianism and mass education at the higher level, practicability and professionalization of education) affect the way the dialogue is understood by young people?

The author is particularly interested in how the dialogue is understood by new generations of pedagogical students coming to the university, who in the future will shape the face of education themselves. After all, it can be assumed that they will move to their workplaces (schools or care and educational institutions) models of communication corresponding to those they themselves experienced during their education. Experiencing dialogue during studies and appreciation of its value by the students of pedagogy gives hope for the development of dialogue at school. It remains a question: how is the dialogue understood? And it is the question of understanding the dialogue by young people who are preparing themselves to work as teachers-educators that is the main problem of my research in this article.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH METHODS

When considering the state of contemporary higher education in the context of the role of dialogue in it, it should be noted that its current shape has been significantly influenced by the phenomena in the culture of the 20th century, which changed the social



mentality, influenced the ways of thinking and valuing, promoting individualism, entrepreneurship and arousing the consumption needs of citizens of countries of the knowledge-based economy. Successive raising of the standard of living of the representatives of European countries in the second half of the 20th century developed the educational aspirations of their citizens, who, pragmatically minded, enrolled themselves in their studies, seeing them as primarily tool for their own professional careers (McMillan, Cheney, 1996; Bok, 2004; Delucchi, Korgen, 2002). In Poland these phenomena occurred with redoubled strength after the political transformation, when at the turn of the 20th and 21st century everyone who wanted to gain or maintain an attractive job took up studies in the avalanche of the growing system of higher education (Śliz, Szczepański, 2014, p. 28; Górniewicz, 2012, Bauman, Zalewska, 2008, Thieme, 2009). In the conditions of the mass scale of studies, the quality of academic education has significantly decreased (Thieme, 2009, p. 297; Bieliński, Bujas et al., 2007). The studies started to be perceived as a simple and undemanding way of obtaining a diploma, which was supposed to increase the attractiveness of its holder in the labour market (Czerepaniak-Walczak, 2013; Jankowska, 2017).

The recognition of academic education was deepened by the Bologna Process, which – although enthusiastically received by many as a strategy for making European higher education competitive (Kraśniewski, 2009; Chmielecka, 2013) – was a political project primarily responding to the economic needs of Europe, which highlighted the practical dimension of studies, indirectly increasing narrowly utilitarian expectations of students (Klimczak, 2010). By linking academic education to the labour market and promoting a pragmatic concept of knowledge, he strengthened the neoliberal discourse of thinking about education in economic categories. The implementation of the Bologna Process as well as the introduction of solutions for the drafting of curricula in accordance with the Qualification Framework synchronised in Europe, aimed at the comparability of diplomas and mobility, resulted in both bureaucratic and formalised studies.

Higher education institutions have found themselves in a situation of change and transformation into market and managerial models (Malewski, 2012; Kobylarek, 2016). Harnessed in market mechanisms they present an attitude towards the struggle: for the position on the educational market, the position in the rankings, for the number and “lucrative” of the grants received. They become institutions providing educational services, focused on effective acquisition of student-consumers (Welskop, 2019). Trying to attract them, they increase their efforts to make the educational process more attractive, mainly by making it more multimedia but also by reducing the content considered too demanding for young people expecting specifics. This often leads to understating the level of education and infantilising students who cease to be perceived as partners in academic life.

The analysis of the academic reality convinces me that today the dialogue forms of communication are being reduced rather than stimulated. Today we can talk about weakening academic communities and perceiving others (professors, students) as important for themselves for strictly utilitarian reasons, as useful for the realization of personal interests. Of course, these “others” may also become cooperating partners in the activities undertaken (if the parties consider it mutually beneficial), which does not change the fact that this type of partnership does not create special chances for personal closeness (Jankowska, 2019a).

In this context, the question of how contemporary students understand dialogue and experience its importance is particularly important, which justifies the value of the purpose of the article and the research I have undertaken. An attempt to deepen reflection



on this issue was initiated by the project "Understanding the essence and meaning of the process of academic education and the role that dialogue with an academic teacher plays in it by the students of pedagogy of state universities", carried out in the years 2006-2009. The threads of reflection on dialogue, which have been brought out in the course of the project, have been deepened with research in 2016 (individual interviews focused on the problem: IDI with students graduating from pedagogical studies). The research procedure took the form of semantic reconstruction of students' statements obtained during in-depth interviews (IDI): 15 interviews conducted in 2006 and 12 interviews in 2016. The interviews conducted in 2016, in order to obtain the value of comparative material, were conducted in accordance with the procedures of a decade ago. The interviews of both editions (2006, 2016) were conducted at The Maria Grzegorzewska University in Warsaw, among students of the same field (pedagogy), time of study (last semester, just before the defence of the thesis), according to the same scenario. The author conducted all the interviews in person, lasting on average about 4 hours (from 3 to 5 hours – during two or three meetings). The author kept the same principle of inviting for research (mailing) and the principle of full voluntary participation in it. The persons expressing their willingness to participate in the research were aware of its expected time and effort of this experience, so in 2006 and 2016 the persons from the elite group of students, the most engaged and intellectually aroused, applied for the research [it is such a constant element, it is in other articles, hence in red colour].

RESULTS

The ways of understanding academic dialogue by students graduating from pedagogical studies in 2006 – 2016

The interviews conducted among the students were aimed at researching the understanding of the educational process and probably for this reason the threads concerning the academic dialogue appeared in the context of evaluation of the relations between academic teachers and students, less frequently between students (in their specialization group) as well as in the context of the quality of conducted classes (opening or closing to mutual communication). The analysis of the students' narrations led to the conclusion that the dialogue was perceived from two perspectives, which I would define: **pragmatic and humanistic**. In the students' narratives, these perspectives permeated each other although it was possible to read which one dominated.

The dialogue was **pragmatically** depicted mainly by the students presenting the so-called practical type, action-oriented, appreciating effectiveness and resourcefulness in the situation when a problem occurs. This pragmatic perspective of perceiving the dialogue correlated with the understanding of studies as a way of professional preparation, including the acquisition of specialist knowledge, acquisition of experience connected with pedagogical work, development of competences needed in the teaching profession as well as development of personality and social experience. On the other hand, the **humanistic** perspective of the description of the dialogue was adopted mainly by students presenting the reflexive type, speaking about studies as a process of gaining knowledge about the man and the processes governing his development, also about himself and as a process of developing his personality.

Understanding dialogue from the pragmatic perspective in the years of 2006 and 2016

The perspective of pragmatic approach to dialogue dominated both the 2006 and 2016 student narratives. The students indicated the values of dialogue for the construction of knowledge (dialogue as: pragmatic exchange of information, leading to operational



understanding and use of knowledge), solving various problems related to the process of education of social nature (negotiation in the organization and course of education) as well as directly for the didactics of academic education (method of conducting classes).

Dialogue as a pragmatic exchange of information is in the shortest sense a conversation conducted in connection with classes between the teacher and the students, sometimes in student groups, aimed at sharing information and exchanging knowledge on the subject, assessed as valuable for the parties. It is a communication of interlocutors with different potential (more and less experienced), bringing synergy effects in the conditions of cooperation. It aims at achieving useful knowledge and its operational understanding by the parties.

The majority of students graduating in 2006 combined dialogue with conversation, during which the information is shared and the knowledge about the subject assessed as valuable for the parties is exchanged. It is a communication of interlocutors with different potential (more and less experienced), bringing synergy effects in the conditions of cooperation. This pragmatic dialogue aims at achieving useful knowledge and operational understanding by the parties. What distinguishes a dialogue understood in such a way from a simple transfer of knowledge by a knowledgeable person (academic teacher) to the audience (students) listening to it is the fact that it is perceived in terms of a partnership conversation, with an exchangeability of roles, inspiring both parties to seek new solutions, although most of the responses pointed to the special role of teachers.

I associate academic dialogue with the provision of information by professors, that is, the academic teachers with the reaction of students to this information by professors and with the reflection of these professors on feedback. But then this reflection can be seen in the way information is passed on, that this reaction of the students is taken into account, that the teacher is conducting a kind of conversation (06K1).

In general, I understand the dialogue as the exchange of experience, the acquisition of information, one of the most valuable things is information. I am a pragmatist and I know that dialogue inspires. From my mentors I could learn different techniques, but not only. It was an exchange. It is like this that when someone is taught something, the feedback is received. (...) It's like an exchange of information, if somebody teaches me something, I can also give him an answer when I think otherwise. And then one can change something, when there is a dialogue something is changed. Only very little changes because there is not enough feedback (06 M2).

Speaking of such an academic dialogue, most students in 2006 emphasized its informative and pragmatic value, indicating that it leads to making knowledge operational, in the sense – fully understandable and in this context important for practice (06K4, 06M2, 06K1, 06K11, 06K12). Students of teaching specialties expected that the dialogue will bring closer and brighten up the problems connected with the practice of the future profession, they emphasized the importance of dialogue communication with methodologists, having direct contact with educational institutions (06K) Students of non-teaching specialties more often pointed out issues connected with practice understood broadly – they pointed out the value of dialogue on the issues of life practice important for them (06M1; 06K4). When assessing the presence of pragmatic dialogue within the walls of the university, students admitted that the atmosphere at the studies serves it, because it is generally good, although there were also threads about the change in the functioning of the university in connection with the quantitative growth observed by students and the progressing mass of studies. They also positively assessed the staff, indicating that many academic teachers present an



attitude of kindness and openness. No less dominant was the conviction that the situation of dialogue as a pragmatic exchange of information during studies is definitely not enough. The reasons for the lack of dialogue were, on the one hand, seen in the attitude of superiority over the student and the lack of interest in the student presented by some academic teachers (especially older ones), and on the other hand, they pointed to the lack of courage, immaturity or laziness of students to undertake the effort of dialogue.

Openness to dialogue among academic teachers - very different, it depends on which lecturer, which subject. There are those who repeat very much and want the students to say what they think and want to change the way the classes look like, and there are those who keep 'chattering' the same and are unreformable. (06K10). "Teachers are very open to dialogue, willing to talk and pure human help, although of course there are cases: End of class, I thank you and I'm not here. But there are exceptions (06K13).

As I am now trying to remind myself, this ability to liberate dialogue is also related to age, that the younger one is much better at establishing some kind of contact, and the older one, I mean, now I think that the older one is, the worse... Because when for five years of studying one meets with a great kindness of people younger than the older ones, mostly already professors, with such reluctance or such treatment on principle: "Why are you here for God's sake!" and other such people, because with different attitudes towards each other I have met here, it's just that when we see each other we really close ourselves in (06K8).

Students admit that for a pragmatic dialogue to exist, a lot depends on the choice of the student group and the climate that will be built in it, and sometimes it varies. The representatives of the psychopedagogy of creativity spoke particularly positively about the opening climate of the group, emphasizing that getting into the specialization was a success and fulfilment of their aspirations, and the very process of education directed at workshop and training methods of work integrated the group, engaged in the search for new knowledge and taught to speak (06K4, 06M1). The potential inherent in the group was evaluated differently by a special education student. The threads of lowering the quality of education due to the attitude of group closure and lack of involvement (in the student's interpretation caused by the fact of "falling for this speciality when you did not get into another one". (06K13) appeared several times in her narrative:

We were also told more than once by the lecturers that the work with us was difficult and that we did nothing. Maybe it is not appropriate to talk about your own group in the 5th year but as an exercise or lecture group I feel very sorry for all the lecturers who had some classes with us and wanted to do something, because when 20 people sit in front of them, only 4 or 5 of them express any willingness to do something because if there are 20 people sitting in front of them, of which only 4 or 5 are willing to do anything, I wouldn't want to come and try to talk to anyone after conducting three classes. The chance to engage in a committed pursue of the problem is zero. Zero" (06 K13).

During the interviews, the students discovered that they reach the dialogue understood as pragmatic exchange of information as they grow up in the course of their study when enter into adult life. When they graduate, they are different from the young people starting their studies and the academic teachers are also more of a partner with them. The students carry out their own research related to their Master's thesis, think about starting a family (or already have formal relationships), make choices about where they will work in the future, have professional experience gained during internships, and all this brings



them closer to the academic teachers. The possibility of dialogue with teachers is becoming more and more clearly seen as an opportunity to deepen and organize their knowledge (let us add: an opportunity that is ending and one that is often assessed as not fully grasped) (06K11, 06K7, 06K13). If they consider that the teacher present in the classroom has such important knowledge, they cease to resist asking for it, hence the dialogue as a pragmatic exchange of information is much more present in the last semesters (06K11, 06K7).

Also among the twelve IDIs from 2016, the dominant profile is the pragmatic one, which, after all, can be described as less “demanding” than a decade ago. When asked about the existence of a dialogue, they stated its presence in a short consultation after class (16K3, 16K10), asking students about something that was not understood (16K3, 16K7, 16M2). These situations (quite epidermal contact) are indicated as positive experiences of dialogue – as it happens and as it is expected. Save the exception (16K1), there were no situations of expressing disappointment with its limited form.

Well, it is known that after the class you can approach the teacher and this dialogue also occurs normally, yes? If there are any problems or something like that but I think that it is also very important during the class. Although during the exercises it is always this dialogue, but with the lectures, I have to say that it's not always like that. Although some people know this, they also go with a microphone during the lecture and are happy to say that if somebody wants to speak, it is also possible, but not always (16K9).

Dialogue takes place on duty, then the exchange is more of a partnership. The students take advantage of the on-call duty rather when they have to, most of my friends take advantage of it when they have to, right? They go for consultations to explain, to make up for some absence. (...). I didn't go to see a lecturer on their duty but sometimes I stayed after the class and there were 2-3 people who were expecting some additional information and in fact, a few minutes after the lecture or the exercises the consultation took place (16K7).

The dialogues that develop a little bit more broadly and delve a little deeper into the subject have their place mainly during the classes that deal with the problems directly related to the pedagogical practice. The content presented by the teacher and questions addressed to the students are often willingly taken up by those who have concrete experiences in this area. Due to the introduction of the Bologna Process, the two-stage study programme, students obtain a formal professional qualification already in their undergraduate studies, hence the professional work in the final stage of the second-degree programme is common. The working (not infrequently full-time) students experience various educational problems on a daily basis, so there are a lot of such situations of partnership communication on practically presented topics and known from experience (16K2, 16K3, 16K7). This pragmatic dialogue, after all, has more of a form of asking an expert how he interprets this or that situation than a joint search for knowledge. It seems that in 2016 the feature of pragmatic dialogue, which was the exchangeability of roles, starts to lose its importance and the dialogue starts to be combined with a one-way communication. Its aim is to obtain useful and yet strictly practical knowledge, to ask about it (usually an academic teacher, sometimes other students), and not a process of joint consideration of various, also theoretical issues in order to achieve their operational understanding.

It is worth adding that in the light of the 2016 narrative, a quite unique opportunity for dialogue is created by the talks with the placement supervisors (both at the stage of consultation preparing for the practice as well as during discussion on credits granting). The



value of internships was also pointed out by students graduating in 2006, not less so in the context of dialogue with the tutors of internships. It seems that students from 2016, when asked about the academic dialogue, cited situations of “diadiotic” conversations: students and academic teachers meeting in a certain seclusion. Discussing the internship was a rare example of just such a contact: conversations on a topic close to students because they experienced it during the meeting face-to-face. And it is precisely this feeling of being one of many students who is not noticed and recognized by the academic teachers, and lost in the mass – it appears in many narratives from 2016:

One can discern that the lecturer is an open-minded person and he encourages through his demeanour to establish any contact or dialogue with him. But I think that most of the lecturers here, not all of them, I have had contact with, are willing to help and will be happy to establish relationships here. Even if it's only for a moment and then the lecturer will certainly forget. He has so many students. I sometimes get the impression that I say “good morning” to the lecturers, and he doesn't even know who I am. Well, this is how it is. There are so many people around here that the lecturer can't remember every face (16K3).

In this context, it is worth adding that the students in 2016 highly appreciated the atmosphere in the university and the attitudes of the academic teachers who open up to dialogue and encourage students to express their opinions. The student narratives (of course, at times critical of individual situations or persons) are more likely to express satisfaction with the relationships the students have built with university staff than the narratives of their colleagues graduating ten years earlier. Today's young people have less time to study and they squeeze in the university classes between other activities in their tight schedules. The students come (or “call in”) for the classes, do not stay in the university (which was the case ten years ago). In this situation, the contacts with the academic teachers, although anonymous and limited to those resulting from the implementation of the programme as well as temporary/fragmentary since they are perceived as friendly – are satisfactory (16K5, 16K6, 16K8, 16K10, 16M1, 16M2). The students of the academic year of 2016 appreciate the consideration and “straightforwardness towards students” of the academic teachers, they are happy to admit that the meetings in the class can be “fun” and “entertaining” (16K5, 16M1). It seems that the atmosphere of the university is more relaxed and academic teachers not only care about good relations with students but also adjust themselves to their expectations to make the educational process more attractive.

In their statements, however, they more often encounter critical words addressed to their colleagues. They perceive blockades destroying the atmosphere of dialogue (16K3, 16K7, 16M1 in their colleagues' disrespectful, reluctant attitude towards studies (“not giving a damn about the study”), also lack of personal culture and dishonesty (“cunning attitude”), rather than fear of academic teachers (although it is also experienced by some of them)/

Mr dr F. certainly tried to talk to us, he tried that good word because there was simply no response from us, which was a pity. During the lectures the students were more active because there were many more people. During the exercises it's hard to make us do anything at the beginning, but later, when we talk, we activate ourselves (16M1).

It wasn't cool, there was no atmosphere. We were a group of 4 people. There were two such guys in my group. First, there were three of us, then the second friend joined us. And we wanted to get something out of it. We answered the lecturers, had some questions, there were some discussions. And very quickly it was felt that we were not really liked. That, “Oh, dear, they're smart, smarting off geeks”. (...) We became such



a pack of people because we found out that... the teachers very quickly understood that... and we got some more ambitious tasks, we got some proposals outside the university. We worked in a sociotherapeutic day care centre, the doctor, who was my promoter, also invited us to participate in her research projects. This was appreciated by the teaching community but not necessarily by our colleagues. Maybe also the specificity of the place, because where I was in O. [name of the city – comment of DJ] It was completely different here, when I came to Warsaw for my master's degree, there were really people who wanted to be active. (...) Maybe it was also a matter of age, that there were people a little more mature, they already had experience and knew what they were studying for (16K7).

Dialogue as a negotiation in the educational process in the narratives of the students is less frequent and what is characteristic in the narratives of the students of the above-mentioned specialization of psychopedagogy of creativity (06K, 06.K4, 06M1). The negotiation dialogue occurs when the arrangements are made for formal issues or verification of the level of implementation of those arrangements (organization of classes, credit issues, determining the mandatory content, etc.) (06K4, 06M2). It is worth noting that in the 2006 narratives, the negotiation dialogue combines pragmatic interests (finding a solution that takes account of one's own interest) with an attitude of sensitivity to the needs of the other party. It is therefore based on reciprocity, honesty and respect. The students distinguish it from cunning negotiations aimed at pushing their interests forward.

It seems to me that this is how it works in the academy, that there are two sides and there is a program above them and this is something that you don't discuss because you can't change them or you can't change some classes, there are things that you absolutely can't change and there's no point in discussing them and tackling them. And all the others, like whether you can drink coffee during the classes, whether you will move the classes or credits for the subject of such things, I think it's worth discussing them. Because just like everyone else, it seems like a very cool idea to do a project in the groups to get a credit from the subject and they all ask us to do so. And dr. L., too. It was us who begged the lecturer for the colloquium since we have been doing projects for four years and we no longer want projects. The group presents its opinion: "let's try the colloquium, such a nice thing!" and if there wasn't this discussion, if we didn't convince her, there would be another project. So here it is, that the lecturer is inventing this topic and is happy because she thinks it's definitely something very interesting. And we don't take it with heart because we are already tired of projects. And if we had to do them, we would do anything. And then she might feel offended by it or not know what's wrong. She might think that there was something wrong with her classes. And with dialogue, it's all clear and it's okay (06K4).

In the 2016 narratives there are also threads concerning the negotiation dialogue but rather as side effects (i.e. not in the context of asking about the experience of dialogue during studies but rather when discussing some events related to the studies). The negotiation dialogues usually concern small strictly organizational issues, rarely problems related to the content of the programme. For students completing their studies in 2016, getting along with the teachers (or students among themselves) on issues related to the organisation of the studies is, on the one hand, something obvious and does not evoke greater emotions (which is connected with a good assessment of the atmosphere and the expected obtaining of agreement). There is also the phenomenon of the identification of certain representatives to negotiate during the course of the studies as well as – which was



not noticed in the 2006 narrations – cases of conscious work on the development of their communication skills.

The dialogue means boldly addressing others and agreeing. The girls from the group call me and ask me, listen, you'll know for sure" because I don't have any problem to approach and find out, to approach Mr Dean, you or the teacher. I don't want to take credit for this because there are still 2-3 persons in our group who wouldn't have a problem with it either but the rest is like "I won't go because I don't know, I'm ashamed or something else. Or rather out of convenience (...). I don't have to make friends with everyone but I should get along with everyone. Maybe I take these things too seriously but it seems to me that just a person who is here at the university, who is twenty or so years old, who is already an adult, has to work out this courage because if you don't start to work out your own openness towards Madam doctor, someone else.

What can be noticed is the fact that in this description of a negotiation dialogue its feature of openness to the needs of the other party does not sound. A dialogue is simply understood as a negotiation, whose art of conducting is seen in its boldness, the ability to convince one's own right, to deal with the adversary and not the desire to find a solution that would secure the needs of the other party.

From a pragmatic perspective, there are also positions that identify **academic dialogue with the method of conducting classes** (06K3, 06K4). The students presenting it (from the group of creativity psychopedagogy) indicated that the specificity of their specialization is based, among other things, on the dialogue methods of work. They drew attention to the teachers who use the dialogue method. They pointed out that they stand out positively from others. They shorten the distance towards students and are close to them but their ability to base their classes entirely on dialogue and the art of conducting them decides that they remain natural leaders. They conduct a dialogue in the sense of directing a discussion, asking original, opening questions and at the same time consistently pursue these goals and bring closer the content that they have previously established and selected.

We are more open to dialogue than other students because the specifics of their classes are very open. They are close to us and are supposed to be close to us because they conduct trainings also interpersonal training. So that the dialogue is inscribed in the realization of the classes. They can't conduct these classes differently and it feels like that. That is why we, as a group, are used to be involved in the classes and it is difficult for us to accept such classes that the lecturer is for themselves and the student is to sit and listen (06K3).

We had a different form of work, we sat in a circle and all of us took part in the classes and often Ms W. also took part in the exercises, if it was possible and the fact that we always address each other informally "you" during the trainings, they were so... We knew that she was always in control of what she was conducting but at times we felt so perfectly and so comfortable (...). At that time it was such first uncontrolled situation that she had no authority because she was at the desk, only because she was conducting those classes, being with us in the group, in the very middle of the group and does not differ at all, neither in dress, nor in appearance, nor in the place of standing, nor in anything, but she has to control our group because she is conducting these classes and has a plan and has to teach us this and not anything or we can't just have a nice time (06K4).



The students highly appreciate the value of the dialogue method in education, indicating that if properly implemented, it bases knowledge, allows building the skeleton of the information system, serves the development of various competences, thus arguing the value of dialogue as a method – its pragmatism. They are aware that in order to take full advantage of its values, the students must be properly prepared. In the narration (06K3) there are thoughts that for the success of basing the educational process on dialogue as a method it is necessary to “*have factual knowledge on the discussed subject and not only to be based on emotional assessment and intuitive opinions whether I like it or not, seems right or wrong*”. Thus, it indicates that the value of the dialogue as a method of conducting classes does not consist in creating a nice atmosphere in which one can simply talk. What is important here is cognitive motivation to conduct a dialogue, most often provoked by conscious questions asked by the instructor, which are read as important or interesting by students, which in turn triggers an authentic search for answers to them. Systematically conducted dialogue during classes is a way of discovering the insufficiency of one's knowledge and awakening the attitude of active searching for it. In this sense, understanding dialogue as a method of conducting classes seems to be close to the Socratic approach.

The student narrations from 2016 confirmed the high evaluation of classes conducted using the dialogue method. In this context, the statement stands out that has already been pointed out as being outstanding in many fields of 16K1. It has made a strong criticism of the dialogue as an educational method.

There is a conviction that there was once such an important person in pedagogy, I absolutely do not remember all those names and that the role of students is to learn all this piously and to repeat it. And this dialogue boils down to the fact that they are supposed to come to all those important truths which are written there, everyone thinks that this dialogue consists in coming to this enlightened truth. Iii... that's why this discussion never happened because for me it's not an enlightened truth, it's something that generations have come to and what changed all the time and... uh... just repeating what was there is pointless. (...) There are also experiences in literature that mix and create something unique and new and this is how it should look like, and here the dialogue would be advisable to create these ... unique new worlds in the minds of every student, and in the classes where we were theoretically just discussing it, was always one enlightened truth that we were supposed to reach, so it cannot be called a discussion. I can discuss it with myself for my own use and that's it (16K1).

Understanding academic dialogue in a humanist perspective in 2006 and 2016

The dialogue from humanistic perspective was understood in terms of personal dialogue, which is an existential experience – non-existing in the walls of the university as well as a conversation that brings closer and thus opens to knowledge. The students who accepted this perspective saw dialogue as an opportunity to express themselves, to make their thoughts known in the atmosphere of understanding and the presence of an open and close interlocutor. Dialogue was understood as a special communication, based on trust and openness and help towards the other person, whose aim was to bring the interlocutors closer and get to know each other and support each other. This humanistic, the author would also say personalistic, perspective remained close to the philosophers of dialogue.

Among the interlocutors from 2006 there were students whose narratives are the threads of referring to dialogue in terms of personal conversation. They were impressed by the idea of personal dialogue of the meeting, which they met during their academic education and in which power they believed. The acceptance of the idea of dialogue was



based on intuition but it was also confirmed by the personal and private experience of life (the experience of the meeting in a marriage and religious community – 06K9).

Dialogue is communication in which there must be empathy, in which there is no division between you and I, only there is a community. And then one is happy and sees everything clearly". (06K12). "The dialogue is a topic from the upbringing theory. I remember it, although I don't remember much of the subject. The dialogue is the understanding of both sides, understanding, respect, with this very exchange of thoughts... that is the first thing that comes to my mind" (06K9). The dialogue is talking with people, I don't know, the loved ones, such where we meet, there is also such trust, interest in what's with me, what's with you, I listen to your problems, you listen to mine, I advise you, you advise me, there is information there is listening, closeness and there is a feedback, I think that's what it is about. This is very valuable because thanks to this I get to know the other person, what he thinks about, what his desires and dreams are, I just get to know him (06K7).

Combining the understanding of dialogue with the existential experience, when asked about the dialogue in the space of studies and universities, they stated its absence. The personal dialogue requires an informal community and intimacy, which is not present in the university. The academic dialogue is understood in a different way but developing from the academic perspective it takes over certain values of the dialogue understood as a personalized and close communication. It takes place in a community where there is a certain division of roles but in the dialogue these roles complement each other and teachers as well as the students remain open to each other, their thoughts and needs. The representatives of the humanist perspective, while presenting a particular sensitivity to the issues of interpersonal relations, referred more clearly and emotionally to the fact of changes taking place before their eyes in the university, related to the mass nature of the studies, technologicalisation and anonymity. They drew attention to the distance between academic teachers and students, anti-dialogical attitudes of the academic teachers, withdrawal of the student from communication.

However, when it comes to the dialogue between students and academic teachers, these are rare situations. It takes place in such a way that we come to classes and the "dialogue". [sarcasm] is, for example, a form of checking the attendance list, but it's not that full dialogue I would possibly refer to. Then, there is no more that dialogue because it is in such a way that the teacher says something about something, sometimes he asks a question and we answer these questions, but in my opinion it is not a form of such full dialogue, it is rather a question-answer, question-answer, and that is the end of that dialogue, that conversation. I mean, there are classes that are conducted in the form of a conversation, that the subject is given and we talk about it, I admit that I attend now one subject conducted in this way by Dr P., concerning conversations with parents, various educational problems are raised and how we will solve them, and each of us expresses his or her own opinion on a given subject. But this is also not always a full dialogue because I also sometimes refrain from some statements, consciously or less consciously, that for example, I will say something stupid, that this person will criticize in advance, and I do not always feel like listening to this criticism, when I know, for example, that my opinion is different from that of other people and I do not always feel like it. For me, this is not exactly a dialogue, rather a form of discussion, exchanging observations, my own opinion, but, I mean, there it is also supposed to be that I am listening, commenting and giving feedback, but it is probably not such a full dialogue, because we do not get to know ourselves, we



only get to know some information, what we think about a given subject, but it is probably not aimed at some kind of deeper knowledge of a given person (06K7).

Now I have such classes where every exchange of arguments is a forced conversation, it's not even a conversation, it's something more like that, something more like that... it's like I'm gonna say something, the lecturer will say something as if he wasn't listening to me, sometimes I feel like he's not even looking at me or I'm saying something and he knows what he's going to say anyway. For me it's incredible that there are people who say that they want the students to speak and still say something that they had prepared before. They are not able to reorganize themselves, take into account what the students have said before. And how can we talk about dialogue here, there is no dialogue, and there is no conversation either (06K10).

The narratives of students graduating in 2016 reveal that the humanistic approach to dialogue is actually non-existing. The students are less sensitive to the ideas of the philosophy of dialogue and less interested in them than their peers from a decade ago. The issues of dialogue have been addressed mainly in terms of describing what is really happening in the area of information exchange through language. In two cases, the dialogue was also considered as “cooperation communication”, a conversation naturally undertaken in conditions of cooperation. However, there is a lack of references to dialogue, typical for the science of dialogue of the idea of personal dialogue. In the programmes they are implementing, the science of dialogue is still not being tackled, leaving no permanent traces in their language. The students use the language of practice, evoking quite superficial connotations of the dialogue, reduced to the process of the flow of messages.) *“The dialogue is that when you catch a topic and say one sentence, the other person and the third person are immediately involved and in a moment everyone starts talking. This leads to the fact that it's interesting, that is, we come to some common goal and the one who thought at the beginning what the other will think at the end of this conversation and starts to wonder if he had right thoughts all his life. It's cool (16M1).*

Sometimes they define dialogue with the language of communication theory: *“Exchange of information between two people, flow of messages, transmitting, receiving, interpreting” (16K6)* but the language of dialogue is missing. In statements about dialogue there are hardly any terms (however, appearing in the statements from a decade ago), such as: trust, respect, closeness (only in one IDI 16K8: respect), but there are new expressions “overeager”, “not overeager” (meaning an initiator, not an initiator of the communication: 16M1, 16M2, 16K9) “prostudent” (meaning: friendly, interested in the student's voice: 16K6, 16K10), “has an open mind” (daunting and creating an atmosphere for conversation: 16K3). This re-education of the humanist perspective is the main difference between the statements.

CONCLUSIONS

The research on the understanding of dialogue identified the fields of meaning given to it by young people graduating from pedagogical studies and, in the comparative thread, interpreted the perceived otherness of the perspectives of approaches to it by the representatives of two groups of students from academic years far away from each other by a decade. The described shift in the meanings assigned to dialogue, which took place between 2006 and 2016, can be described as a departure from the understanding of the dialogue in humanistic and existential terms and a shift towards a pragmatic view of subjective, but at the same time factual, focused on the concrete and practical effect, communication. The direction of these shifts can be interpreted as a reflection of the direction of the signalled changes taking place in contemporary universities, which are connected with the mass scale of studies and the lack of appropriate selection of candidates,



the practical character and professionalization of academic education, reducing the “unnecessary” theory, the adaptation of universities to the low expectations of attractive and pleasant studies presented by the contemporary youth, shaped by a culture of immediacy, fun and consumption, and exposed to a levelling ability to reflect or to think critically. The way of understanding the dialogue between an academic teacher and a student not only reveals the consciousness of the students, but also – indirectly – illustrates the state of personalization/depersonalization of the contemporary universities.

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EDUCATION OF THE THIRD AGE PEOPLE AS IMPORTANT COMPONENT OF ADULT EDUCATION IN THE USA AND CANADA

ABSTRACT

The article deals with peculiarities of the education of third age people in the USA and Canada. The definition of lifelong education is analysed. Lifelong education is viewed as human development through a process of continued support, which encourages and enables individual to acquire knowledge, values, skills and understanding he will need throughout his career, and creative use of all public roles, circumstances and environments. Legislative basis of education of people of the third age are singled out. Mondale Lifelong Learning Act, created a legal basis for lifelong opportunities for personal development and providing conditions for a person to fulfill his potential in society in any age. Lifelong Education Act opened wider opportunities for education sphere, including the integration of education in business, industry and public life. Benefits of economic, political, social and cultural nature of adult education are analysed. It is important that the degree of involvement of this segment of population in educational activity essentially determines such characteristics of social development as unemployment, country's ability to adapt to social, economic and cultural changes, the rate of development of society in socio-economic terms, the level of independence (financial, functional, social) of adults. Thus, the development of adult education can be seen as a means of achievement of performance characteristics of social development at necessary level. Functions of educational programs for seniors are singled out: professional (acquiring new competencies or improving previously acquired); training (continuous personal development and self-realization of the individual); adaptation (increases a person's ability to adapt to rapidly changing social, economic, technological and cultural conditions of life).

Keywords: USA, Canada, third age people, education, lifelong education, function, Mondale Lifelong Learning Act, Lifelong Education Act.

АНОТАЦІЯ

У статті розглядаються особливості освіти людей третього віку у США і Канаді. Проаналізовано сутність поняття «освіта впродовж життя». Освіта впродовж життя розглядається як розвиток особистості завдяки процесу постійної підтримки, що заохочує та надає можливість особистості здобувати знання, цінності, уміння та розуміння, що є необхідними для кар'єри, творчого виконання соціальних ролей. Виділено законодавчі засади освіти людей третього віку. Мондальський акт неперервної освіти заклав основи для неперервного розвитку особистості та реалізації її потенціалу у суспільстві у будь-якому віці. Акт неперервної освіти сприяв створенню додаткових можливостей для освітньої сфери завдяки інтеграції освіти у бізнес, промисловість та суспільне життя. Проаналізовано позитивний вплив освіти дорослих у економічній, політичній, соціальній та культурній сферах.



Ступінь залучення населення у освіту дорослих нерозривно пов'язаний з такими характеристиками соціального розвитку як безробіття, здатність країни адаптуватися до соціальних, економічних і культурних змін, ступінь соціально-економічного розвитку країни, ступінь фінансової, функціональної та соціальної незалежності дорослих. Розвиток освіти дорослих розглянуто як засіб досягнення показників соціального розвитку на необхідному рівні. Виокремлено функції освітніх програм для людей третього віку: професійна (здобуття нових компетенцій та удосконалення наявних); підготовча (постійний особистісний розвиток та самореалізація особистості); адаптивна (підвищення здатності особистості адаптуватися до постійних змін у соціальній, економічній, технологічній і культурній сферах).

***Ключові слова:** США, Канада, люди третього віку, освіта, неперервна освіта, функція, Мондельський акт неперервної освіти, Акт неперервної освіти.*

INTRODUCTION

At the beginning of the 21 century all characteristics of American and Canadian society are largely determined by relevant indicators of the age cohort of elderly people, because they are more educated, active and financially secure (compared to previous generations of this age group) and this social group is an important segment of users of economic, social, educational services, and therefore influences political and cultural life. It is obvious that seniors increase access to education, creating an effective learning environment and educational programs based on their experience in order to increase personal and professional development, has a positive impact on improving the quality of all indicators of social development.

THE AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study is to analyse peculiarities of the third age people education in the USA and Canada.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH METHODS

The analysis of scientific literature suggests that the US education system has always been in the field of Ukrainian researchers such as N. Bidyuk (2009), O. Ogienko (2014). The problem of adult education was researched by such Ukrainian scientists as N. Bidyuk (2009), O. Ogienko (2014). Specifics of seniors education was analysed by M. Hunt (2004) and S. Jacoby (2011). Peculiarities of the functioning of the university of the third age were systematized by K. James (2018). Procedural and content peculiarities of seniors learning are presented in the works of R. Kahn (2013) and S. Katz (2006).

However, analysis of scientific literature makes it possible to peculiarities of the third age people education in the USA and Canada has not been the subject of systematic study and special analysis. To fulfill the aim of our research we will apply the following methods: analysis, synthesis, induction, deduction, analogy, comparative historical method, genetic method, problem-chronological method.

RESULTS

The definition of lifelong education was formulated in accordance with the European Initiatives on Lifelong Learning and American Council on Education. Lifelong education is viewed as human development through a process of continued support, which encourages and enables individual to acquire knowledge, values, skills and understanding he will need throughout his career, and creative use of all public roles, circumstances and environments (Keith, 2002). This definition includes several basic ideas of the concept of lifelong education: a) making a lifelong human potential and the possibility of its



implementation throughout life; b) permanent acquisition or improvement of knowledge and skills necessary for a successful life; c) recognition that learning can occur in different forms and media: formal, informal and non-formal; g) the need for an integrated support system for people, that can provide acquisition of critical competencies.

In the USA the concept of lifelong education was crystallized in 1976 with the adoption of Mondale Lifelong Learning Act, which included a section on education of adults and pensioners. This document has declared maintenance of American society of relevant capacity for lifelong education for all citizens, regardless of previous education, gender, age, ethnicity, social and economic situation. In fact, the Act created a legal basis for lifelong opportunities for personal development and providing conditions for a person to fulfill his potential in society in any age. The main principles, forms and methods of lifelong learning due to rapid technological changes significantly affect society's views on education. In the United States, "Lifelong Education Act: opened wider opportunities for education sphere, including the integration of education in business, industry and public life. Bussines sector and industry use educational resources to train their future professionals, maintain a high professional level of employees and their retraining for new professional challenges in the rapid technical and technological development. On the other hand, higher education institutions expand the scope of activities involving training seniors through development of programs of informal education (Keith, 2002).

Interest in lifelong education both in Europe, Canada and in the USA increased rapidly in the early 1990s. A new direction of research in this area actively promoted the idea of lifelong education, and it became part of the state policy, particularly toward global competition and economic restructuring, as the company, based on knowledge gained prevalence. Accordingly, due to these circumstances the need to maintain professional competence of experts by investing in human capital formation arose. Lifelong education is one of the main factors of social development. Therefore, adult education in the USA and Canada is considered in the context of the concept of "human capital", according to which the costs of education are considered as investment in the future of social development. Accordingly, it is necessary to draw attention to the benefits of economic, political, social and cultural nature of adult education. It is important that the degree of involvement of this segment of population in educational activity essentially determines such characteristics of social development as unemployment, country's ability to adapt to social, economic and cultural changes, the rate of development of society in socio-economic terms, the level of independence (financial, functional, social) of adults. Thus, the development of adult education can be seen as a means of achievement of performance characteristics of social development at necessary level.

Rapid technological development in the USA and Canada led to awareness of the need to create conditions for education of people of all ages. It is obvious that in the learning society adults are one of the largest segments of citizens in the population of the USA and Canada, who require services of educational institutions in various forms. Educational programs that are worked out for socio-demographic group have appropriate physical and temporal resource for learning, and secondly, presuppose usage of experience and competence for professional and life goals. Most of these programs are focused on support and assistance to adults in solving problems in professional, social and personal spheres with which man is faced entering retirement phase of life. That is, education of seniors in the USA and Canada combines two main areas of activity – professional and leisure, and occurs in two forms – formal and informal (Jacoby, 2011).



Formal education is aimed a relatively small portion of adults who want to acquire new qualifications or improve already existing to continue their professional careers. The basic form of education is informal education. According to the International Standard Classification of Education, informal education is any organized educational activity that may take place in schools and beyond, has different duration and includes people of all ages. Informal education is the most common form of education for seniors because of the specially selected program of study (according to interests and taking into account the previous experience of a person), flexible organization and combination of different forms of educational activities, which, in turn, motivates people to further personal development while maintaining its cognitive capacity, intellectual capacity and psychological stability. Also cognitive activity of people in senior age is a way of self-realization, in terms of demographic aging it hinders society from destructive social processes. So, the main functions of educational programs for seniors are: professional (acquiring new competencies or improveing previously acquired); training (continuous personal development and self-realization of the individual); adaptation (increases a person's ability to adapt to rapidly changing social, economic, technological and cultural conditions of life) (Keith, 2002).

It is important to stress that the second half of the 20th century in the United States of America is characterized by future democratization of education since it has expanded access to education for different age and social groups of American citizens. This was due to rapid technological and socio-economic progress of the country, which helped to expand access to adult and senior Americans in higher education institutions. A number of government documents have declared support for educational programs for population. In particular, Civil Rights Act of 1964 initiated a program of financial aid to attract adults and seniors in public colleges and universities; Higher Education Act of 1965 provided increased expenditures on programs that have contributed to the accessibility of higher education to different age categories of Americans. Thirdly, 1960s–1980s is a period of community colleges in the United States. The main objective of community colleges – fulfill educational needs of people living in a particular area. Adult education has taken an important place in the activities of colleges. They have established cooperation with universities and provided students transfer training, developed the so-called “mission access”, that is the possibility of learning to all ages and social groups. This situation contributed to a significant increase in the number of educational programs for seniors in university campuses. The main purpose of these programs was the socialization of seniors (James, 2018).

The most common form of informal education of seniors in Europe, Canada, Australia and New Zealand are university of the third age, which began in 1973 in France. In the United States of America, by contrast, the basic form of education of seniors are lifelong education programs, which are implemented at the lifelong learning institutes, which operate at higher education institutions and comprise about 800 institutions throughout the country; Osher lifelong learning institutes, operating in more than 100 university campuses in almost all states, and Elderhostel, from 2004 – Road Scholar – educational pensions for seniors in campuses. They cover a wide range of educational programs, courses at universities or colleges, evening classes, humanitarian education program for seniors organized by trade unions. Establishment of the institutional model of education of seniors in the United States occurred in 1962, when Institute for Retired Professionals at the New School for Social Research was organized (James, 2018).

It is important that this cohort of people had a high capacity for self-organization and self-government, as being participants in educational programs they planned course



taking into account their knowledge, competence and experience. In general, the study of seniors in the United States of America and Canada is based on segregation model that is separate from other age groups, and provides independent functioning of the institution from college or university. However, it should be noted that the issue of segregation study of seniors began in 1960s, with the occurrence of this age group in colleges and universities. Seniors reject the idea of a separate study, arguing the possibility of exchanging experience between generations. However, seniors prefer individual training, because they want to communicate more with their peers. Analysis of the organization of training activities for lifelong education institutions shows that learning occurs mainly on the basis of segregation model using integrative studies. It is implemented in particular through joint lectures, workshops, discussion clubs and excursions. The characteristic feature of the activities of these institutions is its own self-organization and self-management: the students make their own curriculum and manage educational process. Funding of these programs is provided by university funds, partly by the participants. There are also government programs supporting seniors education.

It is necessary to pay attention to the fact that that different approaches to aging and old age lead to diverse, sometimes polar approaches to education of seniors in American cultural and educational environment. American gerontologist J. Keith (2002) classified them into four categories: a) abandonment of seniors; b) provision of social services for people dependent on it; c) to encourage seniors to participate in core activities for the purpose of self-improvement; d) providing conditions for self-fulfilment and personal development of older persons.

Over the past decade the United States of America the number and variety of educational programs for the seniors has significantly increased. Colleges and universities offer programs of continuing education, lifelong education, training, volunteering at campus tours and tourist programs. With the appearance of more socially active and educated generation of pensioners there is a growing request for new programs related to professional development. Accordingly, institutions of higher education faced the task of expanding the range of programs offered – from informal to formal vocational guidance. Among the leaders in providing education of seniors in the USA is lifelong learning institutes. The purpose of the Institute of Education is to implement lifelong learning opportunities of adults and seniors (elderly).

Higher education institutions offer more formal educational programs, including such forms of training as lectures, seminars and workshops, but without the typical forms of control (tests, examinations and so on). Regarding the organization of the learning process, training is based on the principles of self-organization and mutual experience exchange of participants. The curriculum is formed on the basis of cognitive needs and desires of the audience. However, creation and development of such programs would not be possible without an interest in education of seniors. It is obvious that American retirees are concerned about policies and legislation that is related to their lives. American Association for Retired People is one of the most influential non-profit organizations protecting and lobbying interests of seniors in the USA. It is aimed at people aged 50 years and over. Although the organization is not a direct organizer of educational programs for seniors, it sponsors them, as well as research and educational grants in the field of gerontology. As for government officials and politicians, their interest presupposes not only support of the electorate, but also has an economic justification: healthy, educated and socially active people in this age segment of Americans contributing to the economic stability of the country, especially in a situation of demographic aging of American population. Generally accepted point of view



among scientists in the field of gerontology and among gerontologists practitioners and educators is the idea of successful aging, which provides meaningful conscious aging and full of meaning life in its post-pension phase. Education in old age is one of the main factors of successful aging, not only because of the possibility of professional activity and, therefore, social and economic status of the person, but that continuing education and training activities significantly affect the health and behavioral repertoire of the individual throughout life (Kahn, 2013).

Integration is the main motivation for seniors to take part in educational programs. Higher education for seniors has been available in the USA since the second half of the 20th century, however, the increasing number of people in this age group extended learning opportunities and a number of educational programs has increased. Colleges and universities ensure the implementation of education for seniors – from uncredited programs that combine learning and travelling to credited programs that provide a certificate or degree. Since the second half of the 20th century educational programs targeted toward seniors began to grow rapidly in response to technological advances in the USA and Canada: universities and colleges offer courses free of charge, community colleges develop cooperation with the centers for seniors, conducting training both in schools and remotely. It is important to emphasize the role of information technology in the organization of education of seniors. They make it possible to create distance learning courses and reach a larger audience of students, including those who for some reason – physical, financial, technical – are unable to attend classes in campus (Keith, 2002).

Seniors are also involved in social welfare through volunteer activities and social service. Projects related to training for volunteer work in the service sector, offering courses in partnership with local agencies, where older people acquire new knowledge and skills that would later be able to apply to volunteer work. Such cooperation is carried out in all types of public organizations (public schools, hospitals, historic community and others.) The maintenance of social capital is provided by inclusion of each individual resource in the system (school, community, government) for the benefit of the general public purpose. This idea is particularly effectively fulfilled in the so-called programs of inter-generations education involving representatives of different age groups for joint training courses. It is important to stress the fact that welfare of the community depends on the status of seniors, as conditions of demographic aging of population the greatest burden on the social and economic sphere of the country. Studies show that the more seniors are healthy, active and socially integrated, the lower the strain on resources and social services. Thus, seniors access to education is a step towards the fulfillment of their potential for the welfare of the community. The concept of lifelong education recognizes basic human rights, including the right to education, regardless of age, is “the basis of universal understanding of humanism” (Jacoby, 2011).

CONCLUSIONS

Lifelong education is human development through a process of continued support, which encourages and enables individual to acquire knowledge, values, skills and understanding he will need throughout his career, and creative use of all public roles, circumstances and environments. Basic ideas of the concept of lifelong education are: a) making a lifelong human potential and the possibility of its implementation throughout life; b) permanent acquisition or improvement of knowledge and skills necessary for a successful life; c) recognition that learning can occur in different forms and media: formal, informal and non-formal; g) the need for an integrated support system for people, that can provide acquisition of critical competencies.



Colleges and universities ensure the implementation of education for seniors - from uncredited programs that combine learning and travelling to credited programs that provide a certificate or degree.

The main functions of educational programs for seniors are professional (acquiring new competencies or improving previously acquired); training (continuous personal development and self-realization of the individual); adaptation (increases a person's ability to adapt to rapidly changing social, economic, technological and cultural conditions of life).

Future research work will be aimed at analysis of peculiarities of the third age university functioning in Europe.

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SOME ASPECTS OF PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF BACHELORS IN HUMAN SERVICES IN THE USA

ABSTRACT

The paper deals with the analysis of professional training for Bachelors in Human Services in the USA. It shows that there is no universal standard for terms of organization of theoretical and practical training for human services specialists in the USA. It specifies that every higher education institution is entitled to develop degree programmes on human services independently and, therefore, such degree programmes in human services implement a flexible curriculum with many electives, which allows taking into account abilities and interests of every student, types of activities that he or she intends to carry out in the future, as well as differentiating professional training of human services specialists in terms of their functional focus. It clarifies that bachelor programmes on human services provide students with fundamental knowledge about such areas as human services administration, family and minority issues, advocacy, case management, substance abuse and prepare them to meet the needs of their clients. They also combine traditional study with internships, placements, practical experiences so that students can balance theoretical and practical knowledge and skills and apply them in practice successfully. They help students to do the following: systematize and link together the knowledge gained from different courses; correlate gained knowledge with the chosen professional field; realize themselves as future specialists; master a wide range of practical methods. It indicates that BSc programmes on Human services focus on aspects of human services such as administration and healthcare management, whereas BA programmes on human services cover ethics and abnormal psychology. It proves that the most common job titles of human services specialists are outreach workers, advocates, behaviour changers, counsellors, caregivers, administrators and assistants to specialists.

Keywords: human services, bachelor's degree, university, the USA, professional training.

АНОТАЦІЯ

У статті проаналізовано професійну підготовку бакалаврів з соціального забезпечення у США. Зазначено, що в США не існує єдиного стандарту щодо організації теоретичної та практичної підготовки фахівців з соціального забезпечення. Відтак, кожен заклад вищої освіти уповноважений самостійно розробляти програми освітні програми з соціального забезпечення. Такі освітні програми уможливають гнучку підготовку майбутніх фахівців за допомогою предметів за вибором, що дозволяє враховувати здібності та інтереси кожного студента, а також диференціювати таку підготовку з точки зору їхньої функціональної спрямованості. Визначено, що освітні програми з соціального забезпечення першого (бакалаврського) рівня вищої освіти забезпечують майбутніх фахівців ґрунтовними актуальними знаннями про галузь соціального забезпечення. Вони також поєднують традиційне



навчання зі стажуваннями, практичною підготовкою, щоб студенти успішно застосовували теоретичні та практичні знання, вміння та навички на практиці. Крім того, освітні програми з соціального забезпечення першого (бакалаврського) рівня вищої освіти вчать студентів систематизувати та співвідносити здобуті знання з обраною професійною діяльністю; реалізувати себе як майбутніх фахівців; оволодіти широким спектром практичних методів. Обґрунтовано, що освітні програми з соціального забезпечення для бакалаврів наук зосереджені на таких аспектах соціального забезпечення як управління охороною здоров'я, тоді як освітні програми для бакалаврів гуманітарних наук в галузі соціального забезпечення охоплюють етику та патопсихологію.

Ключові слова: послуги для населення, бакалавр, університет, США, професійна підготовка.

INTRODUCTION

The strategy for developing Ukrainian higher education covers a consistent transition from the existing model of selective and concentrated education and training to the accessible system of life-long learning, as well as a transition to a diversified and flexible model of education in line with global education systems and rapidly changing requirements of the labour market. The vital changes in the organization of the educational process are caused by new goals, which include building a new content adjusted to rapidly changing conditions, retaining fundamental foundations and basing on the development of professional competencies; developing and implementing new educational programmes in the context of a competency-based approach; creating relevant conditions for professional and personal realization of specialists because of life-long learning.

Today, it is becoming increasingly apparent that only highly qualified specialists can ensure the survival of society, provide a way out of a deep crisis and foster a return to national cultural traditions. Such aspects as changes in human practice, theoretical and methodological understanding of issues regarding human services, as well as an emergence of new technologies have caused the need to train modern human services specialists with a sense of public and social justice and integrity and teach them to work with people, think creatively and apply innovative technologies in practice.

Human services as an innovative field of Ukrainian education is international by its nature since it acts as an international social institute. Therefore, when establishing a system of professional training for human services specialists, particular attention to international experience in training these specialists can be explained by striving for professional interaction, exchange scientific information and implementation of some positive achievements of international colleagues in the system of higher education in modern Ukraine.

THE AIM OF THE STUDY

The paper aims to analyze the professional training of Bachelors in Human Services in the USA.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH METHODS

In the USA, Mary Richmond is considered to be the founder of the systematic training of human services specialists. In 1897, she highlighted the need to establish a training school in applied philanthropy at the annual conference of charities and correction.

Despite the fact the field of human services has been existing for hundreds of years, first professional degrees in the field of human services emerged only in the 1960s.



Their emergence can be explained by an increasing sense of social responsibility for minorities, poor population, women and persons with mental illnesses. Such social awareness becomes one of the factors in Great Society initiatives by President Johnson. Besides, it led to the creation of federal grants for various programmes on social welfare. At the same time, the network of social safety was rapidly growing which made it impossible for graduate programmes on counselling, psychology and social work to cope with the need to prepare specialists in mental health. It marked the evolution of degrees in human services. Such programmes did exist at that time, but they focused on rather different areas. Indeed, the then-existing bachelor's degrees were broader and more professional than associate's degrees which were more oriented towards training mental health aides.

Thus, degree programmes on the field of human services rather expanded and began to incorporate certain aspects from related fields, yet train specialists in human services in a rather unique way. Therefore, one can conclude that human services as a profession has come into existence since the 1960s.

In general, the human service specialist has a bachelor's degree in the field of human services or some other related fields. It must be noted that the specifics of coursework can vary. At the same time, the content of degree programmes on human services mostly covers such areas as family/group guidance or counselling; counselling theories; the history of human services; human, policy and career development; interpersonal relationships; leadership and administration; special populations; social, cultural, ethical, professional and legal issues; crisis intervention; research activities; interviewing skills; field placement.

However, it is essential to clarify the differences between human services and social work. Thus, human services specialists work at large-scale settings, whereas social workers work at small-scale settings. Although human services and social work are much related, these fields work in different ways. Providing certain assistance to people, they use different methods and reach for different goals. Social work is somewhat individual by its nature and operates at the level of meeting clients' needs. Besides, social workers aim to realize different social programmes and sometimes act as counsellors.

The field of human service is broader and creates relevant programmes to meet the needs of a specific population. In turn, human service specialists perform an administrative role, which covers research activities, planning and supervision, to provide individuals and communities with access to some basic needs. Sometimes they act as people's advocates and, thus, influence funding and policy to make the necessary resources more available to them. Therefore, human service specialists are generalists, who have interdisciplinary knowledge, perform various roles and cooperate with other specialists. Besides, they can foster clients' personal and professional development.

Given the scope of the paper, research methods include analysis, synthesis, generalization and systematization.

RESULTS

Thus, human services specialists intend to provide a multidisciplinary system of human support and public protection services. Depending on their specializations, human services specialists can work directly at schools, clinics, leisure centres, social welfare departments, rehabilitation centres and psychological counselling centres. Professional duties of human services specialists extend to various age categories of the population and involve the activation of sociocultural and socio-pedagogical functions of society, families and individuals.



Based on the practical experience of human services, one can distinguish the following most common (basic) characteristics of human services specialists, regardless of their specializations:

1. Ability to ensure acceptable and appropriate cooperation between individual, family, on the one hand, and society, various public structures, on the other hand.
2. Ability to link individual and environment, children and adults, family and society.
3. Ability to influence communication and relationships between individuals, as well as encourage clients towards one or another activity.
4. Ability to work under the conditions of informal communication and act as an informal leader, assistant, counsellor, thus contributing to the initiative and active subjective position of clients.
5. Ability to empathize with the client's reality.
6. Ability to build relationships based on dialogues (Austin, 2002; Levinson, 2002; Reamer, 2012; Rosenthal, 2012; Woodside, & McClam, 2014).

Given that the main goal of human services is to take care of the well-being and reveal the personal and professional capabilities of individuals, families and society, human services can be considered as personal assistance. According to the Community Support Skills Standards, these 12 competencies are required by future human services specialists:

- 1) participant empowerment;
- 2) communication;
- 3) assessment;
- 4) community and service networking;
- 5) facilitation of services;
- 6) community and living skills and support;
- 7) education, training and self-development;
- 8) advocacy;
- 9) vocational, educational and career support;
- 10) crisis intervention;
- 11) organization participation;
- 12) documentation (Taylor, Bradley, & Warren, 1996).

In the USA, a bachelor's degree in human services is a degree that teaches students to meet the needs of their clients. It provides fundamental knowledge about such areas as human services administration, family and minority issues, advocacy, case management, substance abuse and others. Most importantly, it combines traditional study with internships, placements, practical experiences to teach students to balance theoretical and practical knowledge and skills and apply them in practice.

US universities offering degree programmes in human services implement a flexible curriculum with many electives. In senior years of study, the share of electives can be equal to two-third of study load. As a rule, with few exceptions, US universities do not work following ready curricula. Every student prepares his or her individual study plan following the study scheme adopted by the university, as well as under the guidance of university teachers. Such an approach takes into account the abilities and interests of every student, as well as types of activities that he or she intends to carry out in the future. The widespread use of flexible curricula allows one to differentiate professional training of human services specialists in terms of their functional focus. Besides, they help to quickly update the content of such training without increasing the total amount of compulsory classroom studies and make students more responsible for the quality of knowledge they



gain. Also, students can attend lectures related to other fields. In addition to compulsory courses, students can attend special seminars and work individually with their supervisors. It helps them to do the following:

- 1) systematize and link together the knowledge gained from different courses;
- 2) correlate gained knowledge with the chosen professional field;
- 3) realize themselves as future specialists;
- 4) master a wide range of practical methods.

Many US universities offer a Bachelor of Science in Human Services. Such a programme focuses on aspects of human services such as administration and healthcare management. A Bachelor of Arts in Human Services is rather similar to that of a BS and, yet, it often covers such topics as ethics and abnormal psychology. Most employers do not have a preference for either degree type, as long as an educational institution is accredited, which one can check with the U.S. Department of Education or the Council for Standards in Human Service Education (CSHSE) (All Psychology Schools, 2020).

This paper also intends to analyze professional training human services specialists in its practical aspects, namely on the example of the leading higher education institutions in the USA.

LeTourneau University Longview, Texas offers several options for those who wish to study human services. It must be noted that all programmes integrate Christian values following the mission of the university. Thus, students can engage in the interdisciplinary study of human services through a Bachelor of Human Services degree programme, which covers sociology and psychology, criminal justice and counselling. Also, the degree programme prepares students for entry-level positions in both the public and private sectors. It covers the following core courses (124 credit hours): Abnormal Psychology; Addiction; Grant Writing; Introduction to Criminal Justice; Introduction to Human Services; Personal and Professional Ethics; Social Psychology; Theories and Techniques of Counseling. Each class in the programme lasts five weeks (The Best Schools, 2020).

University of Wisconsin – Oshkosh offers an online Bachelor of Science in Human Services Leadership degree programme. It combines crucial theoretical and practical aspects of human services (intervention; social, legal and ethical issues; non-profit operation). It covers the following core courses (120 credit hours): Current Issues in Human Services; Financial Sustainability in Non-Profit Organizations; Globalization in Human Services; Human Behavior and Strategies for Intervention; Interpersonal Relations in the Helping Profession; Introduction to Human Services Legal and Ethical Aspects of Human Services; Social Issues and Solutions in Human Services. Within the programme, students are to complete two internships (The Best Schools, 2020).

Colorado State University Global offers an online Bachelor of Science in Human Services degree programme with fundamental theoretical knowledge about the field of human services and includes certain specializations, including Public Relations, Organizational Leadership and Criminology. It covers the following core courses (120 credit hours): Applying Leadership Principles; Case Management in Human Services; Community Development; Grant Writing; Human Development; Intervention Methods in Human Services; Legal and Ethical Issues in Human Services; Race, Gender, and Ethnic Relations in the U.S. (The Best Schools, 2020). Also, students must complete a practicum and a capstone project, which is “a multi-faceted project that serves as a culminating academic and intellectual experience for students” (Best Value Schools, 2020).

St. Joseph’s College New York offers an online Bachelor of Science in Human Services degree programme that highlights key aspects of human services practice.



Students gain the necessary theoretical and practical knowledge about human services administration, group dynamics, counselling, case management. It covers the following core courses (120 credit hours): Academic Writing and Research; Group Dynamics and Communication; Human Services; Human Services Administration; Human Services Delivery System; Introduction to Case Management; Principles of Counseling. Students must also complete a capstone project and a practicum (The Best Schools, 2020).

Clients of human services specialists can be individuals, couples, groups, organizations, entire communities or population groups in particular areas. Such specialists are trained to perform various roles in human services. Thus, they can be lawyers, case managers, counsellors or psychotherapists, group organizers, human services brokers or intermediaries between clients and human assistance institutions, fund-raisers, social analysts, researchers.

According to the National of Organization of Human Services and United States Department of Labor, the most common job titles of human services specialists are presented in Table 1:

Table 1

The most common job titles of human services specialists

Adult Day Care Worker	Crisis Intervention Counsellor	Neighbourhood worker
Alcohol Counsellor	Drug Abuse Counsellor	Parole Officer
Assistant Care Manager	Eligibility Counsellor	Probation Officer
Behavioural Management Aide	Family Support Worker	Psychological Aide
Case Manager	Gerontology Aide	Rehabilitation Case Worker
Case Monitor	Group Activities Aide	Residential Counsellor
Case Worker	Group Home Worker	Residential Manager
Child Abuse Worker	Halfway House Counsellor	Social Service Aide
Child Advocate	Home Health Aide	Social Service Liaison
Client Advocate	Intake Interviewer	Social Service Technician
Community Action Worker	Juvenile Court Liaison	Social Work Assistant
Community Organizer	Life Skills Instructor	Therapeutic Assistant
Community Outreach Worker	Mental Health Aide	Youth Worker

Source: Neukrug, E. (2013). *Theory, practice and trends in human services: an introduction* (5th ed.). Belmont, CA: Brooks/Cole.

CONCLUSIONS

Thus, there is no universal standard for terms of organization of theoretical and practical training for human services specialists in the USA. Every higher education institution is entitled to develop degree programmes on human services independently. Such degree programmes in human services implement a flexible curriculum with many electives, which allows taking into account abilities and interests of every student, types of activities that he or she intends to carry out in the future, as well as differentiating professional training of human services specialists in terms of their functional focus. Bachelor programmes on human services provide students with fundamental knowledge about such areas as human services administration, family and minority issues, advocacy, case management, substance abuse and prepare them to meet the needs of their clients. They also combine traditional study with internships, placements, practical experiences so that students can balance theoretical and practical knowledge and skills and apply them in



practice successfully. It must be noted that BSc programmes on Human services focus on aspects of human services such as administration and healthcare management, whereas BA programmes on human services cover ethics and abnormal psychology. The most common job titles of human services specialists are outreach workers, advocates, behaviour changers, counsellors, caregivers, administrators and assistants to specialists.

Further research should study the peculiarities of research activities of future human services specialists in the developed countries.

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PECULIARITIES OF TRAINING OFFICERS FOR THE NEEDS OF THE BORDER AGENCY OF CHINA

ABSTRACT

The article deals with the peculiarities of training officers for the needs of the border agency of China. Attention is focused on the complexity of different sections of the border. The structure, subordination, and main tasks of the Chinese border police are highlighted. Special attention is paid to the training of border guard officers at the bachelor's level of higher education. It is determined that the main specialty for the Chinese border police is "Frontier Defense Management" specialty, which is analogous to "State Border Security" specialty in Ukraine. The purpose, basic professional courses, training requirements and professional competences of future border guard officers of China are revealed. Attention is focused on the disciplines of training that develop the professional competences of border guard officers. It was found out that higher education institutions in China adapt to the needs of public security reform and socio-economic development of the state, constantly adjust and improve the content of training programs and academic disciplines, introduce new academic disciplines and improve existing ones according to the needs of public security. The main features of the training of Chinese border guards officers are revealed: considerable physical and psychological load on cadets, limited number of educational establishments, presence of two directions of training (border protection management and border inspection), involvement of international specialists in educational activities. The study concluded that the training of border guard officers in China is based on a combination of the classical model of university education with personal experience and national characteristics.

Keywords: training officers, border agency, border guard officer, border police, border protection, specialty.

АНОТАЦІЯ

У статті розглянуто особливості навчання офіцерських кадрів для потреб прикордонного відомства Китаю. Зосереджено увагу на складності різних ділянок кордону. Висвітлено структуру, підпорядкованість, основні завдання прикордонної поліції Китаю. Особливу увагу приділено навчанню офіцерів-прикордонників за бакалаврським рівнем вищої освіти. Встановлено, що основною спеціальністю для прикордонної поліції Китаю є спеціальність «Управління охороною кордонів», яка є аналогом спеціальності «Безпека державного кордону» в Україні. Розкрито мету, основні професійні курси, вимоги до підготовки та професійні компетентності майбутніх офіцерів-прикордонників Китаю. Акцентовано увагу на предметах навчання, які формують професійні компетентності охоронців кордону. З'ясовано, що вищі навчальні заклади Китаю адаптуються до потреб реформування громадської безпеки та соціально-економічного розвитку держави, постійно корегують та удосконалюють змістовне наповнення програм підготовки та навчальних дисциплін,



вводять нові навчальні дисципліни та удосконалюють існуючі у відповідності до потреб забезпечення громадської безпеки. Виявлено основні особливості навчання офіцерів-прикордонників Китаю: значне фізичне та психологічне навантаження на курсантів, обмежена кількість навчальних закладів, наявність двох напрямків підготовки (управління прикордонним захистом і прикордонна інспекція), залучення до освітньої діяльності міжнародних фахівців. За результатами дослідження зроблено висновок, що навчання прикордонників в Китаї здійснюється на основі поєднання класичної моделі університетської освіти з власним досвідом та національними особливостями.

Ключові слова: *навчання офіцерських кадрів, прикордонне відомство, офіцер-прикордонник, прикордонна поліція, охорона кордону, спеціальність.*

INTRODUCTION

The People's Republic of China (PRC), as one of the countries with rapid development, pays considerable attention to the protection of territorial sovereignty, national security and economic interests at the state border. With the deepening of reforms in the fields of education, defense, technology, etc. and openness to the outside world, the need for highly qualified specialists to protect China's borders is constantly increasing.

Over the last decade, Chinese education has made a huge leap forward completely reviewing specialist training programs. Therefore, the study of the features of training officers in China for the needs of the border agency is of considerable interest in order to analyze it and identify the main directions for improving the national education system.

THE AIM OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the article is to characterize the Chinese experience of training officers for the needs of the border Agency for its implementation in the national education system.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH METHODS

The issue of training police personnel in China is studied in the works of A. Kalugin (2013), A. Mantsurov (2012), Z. Yang (2015), and others. The features of distance learning of border guard officers in Asian countries were studied by I. Bloshchynskyi (2016). Some aspects of the reform of the defense and public security forces, as well as the education system of the PRC, were considered by M. Taylor Frevel (2007), J. Wuthnow (2019), Ch. Zhaoming (2011). However, the training of future officers for the needs of the Chinese border agency has not yet been the subject of scientific research.

During the study, we used theoretical and empirical research methods, the study of regulatory documents, educational standards, training programs that regulate the training of officers, Internet resources (The State Council Information Office of the People's Republic of China, 2019; Ministry of Public Security (China), 2020; National Immigration Administration, 2020; Ministry Of National Defense The People's Republic Of China, 2020; Border Defense Management, 2020; etc.) to characterize the features of training of border guard officers in China and formulate relevant conclusions.

RESULTS

The People's Republic of China is the largest country by population and the third largest one by territory in the world. China has a land border of more than 22,000 km and the coastline of over 18,000 km, which is one of the largest borders in the world. China surpasses most countries in the number of neighboring countries, the length of the land border, and the complexity of maritime security (The State Council Information Office of the People's Republic of China, 2019). Therefore, it is a difficult task for China to protect its territorial sovereignty, maritime rights and interests, as well as national unity.



Despite relatively good neighborly relations with neighboring countries, there are still security threats on the state border of China related to the existence of disputed territories. Although China has settled almost all of its territorial disputes at the border, the borders with India and Bhutan remain conflicting (M. Taylor Fravel, 2007). The considerable number and political diversity of neighboring countries creates potential threats that may arise in different parts of the border. In addition, the number of passengers and the volume of cargoes crossing borders are constantly increasing, facilitating trade, investment and tourism. At the same time, the movement of smuggled goods and illegal migration is increasing. The problem of ensuring public security at the borders of the PRC is actualized by the fight against terrorism as a worldwide problem (The State Council Information Office of the PRC, 2019).

Considering the complexity of the situation, the Border Defense Forces of the People's Liberation Army (PLA) of China, the Border Forces of the People's Police and the Coast Guard are involved in protecting the external and internal borders of China (Joel Wuthnow, 2019; National Immigration Administration, 2020). Each agency has its own specific activity, and therefore, differences in the system of personnel training. Since the traditional tasks of protecting the state border and border control inherent in the border agency of Ukraine are assigned to the border police, our study will be based on the generalization of the experience of the PRC in training future border police officers. To better understand the peculiarities of their training, we briefly review the main elements of the structure and the corresponding range of tasks of the Chinese border police.

It should be noted that as a result of institutional reforms of the units of the Public Security Forces of China, from January 1, 2019, the border guard officers were removed from the subordination of the People's Armed Police (analogous to the National Guard of Ukraine) and transferred to the People's Police (analogous to the National Police of Ukraine). The General management of the border police is carried out by the Ministry of Public Security of China (MPS), which, in addition to border guard officers, manages the public security police, criminal police, customs police, air police, etc. (Mantsurov, 2012; Ministry of Public Security (China), 2020).

The border police are directly managed by the National Immigration Administration of the MPS, which is also known as the Exit-Entry Administration of the PRC. As a unit within the MPS, the border police have a system of dual subordination: vertically it is subordinate to the National Immigration Administration of the MPS, and horizontally to local authorities (provinces, autonomous regions and counties) (Kalugin, 2013; National Immigration Administration, 2020).

The staff of the Chinese Border Police is about 100,000 people. Public security border units comprise 30 public security border teams in provinces (autonomous regions or municipalities directly subordinated to the central government, with the exception of Beijing), 110 border detachments in border and coastal prefectures (prefecture-level cities, autonomous regions, counties), and 20 marine police detachments in coastal prefectures. There are 207 sea border crossing points in open ports and 46 border crossing points in border areas. 1,691 border police sections have been deployed in border and coastal settlements and 113 mobile teams have been deployed in important sectors of border areas (Ministry Of National Defense The PRC, 2020).

The main tasks of the border police of the PRC are to counter illegal migration, combat smuggling and illegal drug trafficking, and ensure public security and law and order at the state border and in the border area (Ministry Of National Defense The PRC, 2020). However, there are no police stations in settlements in some remote areas of China.



Therefore, in addition to the tasks of the border service, the border police section is entrusted with the functions of traditional police: investigation of criminal crimes and administrative offenses, conducting initial investigative actions, searches, etc.

Thus, compared to Ukrainian border guard officers, Chinese ones fulfill tasks that are more extensive. Accordingly, this requires much broader knowledge in the field of law, intelligence activity, special disciplines, etc. that enables them to perform universal law enforcement functions. On the other hand, this leads to a considerable physical and psychological strain on the cadets, which characterizes one of the features of training Chinese border officers.

The system of training of border guard officers is based on the general system of higher education in the PRC. It consists of a bachelor's degree – 4 years and a master's degree – 3 years. Also, the postgraduate education system is developed: higher doctorate and advanced training system. Analysis of open sources concerning bachelor education of future officers of the Chinese border agency allows us to define that their main specialty is 030603K “Frontier Defense Management” specialty, which is analogous to “State Border Security” specialty in Ukraine. The term of study is 4 years, and the graduates receive “Bachelor of Law” degree.

The specialty “Frontier Defense Management” is open in only a few educational institutions, so the number of students compared to other specialties is relatively small. Girls are enrolled in a limited number. Among the most famous educational institutions offering training in this specialty are: Zhongnan University of Economics and Law, East China University of Political Science and Law, Gansu Institute of Political Science and Law, Academy of the Armed Forces of the PLA of China.

The main professional courses of the specialty include: International Law, Criminal Law, Criminal Procedure Law, Modern Law of the World Political Economics, Border Legislation on State Security, Introduction to Public Security, Public Security Management, Criminal Investigation, Border Management, Border Protection, Border Protection Tactics, Border Protection Information, Passport Authentication Systems, Port Management, Introduction to International Immigration Management, Administrative Law, etc. (Border Defense Management, 2020).

There are two areas of preparation for “Frontier Defense Management” specialty: Border Protection Management and Border Inspection. Border Protection Management is mainly focused on ensuring the territorial integrity and security of the country, as well as public order and good-neighborly relations in border areas. And Border Inspection deals with border checks of passports, luggage and vehicles in accordance with the rules of the border inspection and current legislation (Border Defense Management, 2020).

In the system of training future border officers in China, physical training takes a leading place. Training in this discipline involves the movement of cadets through a complex landscape, their physical training includes a 5-kilometer march, a 400-meter obstacle course, mountaineering and swimming. Important components of border guard officers training in China are such disciplines as: psychological training; management skills; political work; bilingual knowledge; driving various types of military equipment; shooting training; boxing and mixed martial arts; negotiations in a crisis situation (Zi Yang, 2015). Professional competence in the subject matter is required for any border unit in China.

The “Frontier Defense Management” specialty profile provides internships in public security bodies during 6 weeks for cadets and at least 10 weeks for graduates. The purpose of the training is to train highly qualified specialists who have the knowledge and abilities of border management, troop management and entry-exit inspections, who are able



to perform tasks in border management inspections, as well as entry-exit at the border in public security sections, the border guard service and entry-exit. The requirements for the professional training of border guard officers include the study of basic theories and basic knowledge in the field of law, border and defense, military management, etc. Cadets study mainly the national border management, border service tactics, passport documents and vehicle inspection procedures. Border guard officers acquire basic skills of border protection, ceasing border incidents in accordance with the law, managing troops and verification of documents for the right to cross the border, as well as inspecting vehicles (Border Defense Management, 2020).

As a result of training in “Frontier Defense Management” specialty graduates must acquire the following competencies: 1. Master basic theories and basic knowledge in the field of law, management, and public safety. 2. Have skills to carry out duties on border protection, the legal settlement of the border incidents, verification of passport documents and inspection of vehicles. 3. Have the basic abilities of border management, subordinate management, border protection and border inspection. 4. Familiarize yourself with the basic principles, policies, and rules for managing border protection and public security. 5. Understand the domestic and international situation. 6. Master the basic methods of searching for documents and data queries, as well as have certain research skills and practical work ones (Border Defense Management, 2020).

We should also focus on the employment of graduates. After completing their training, border guard officers are assigned to the entry-exit units, as well as border and entry inspection units of the PLA, which are responsible for border and border inspection management. There are also jobs in government departments of foreign affairs, public security, customs, finance, taxation, higher education and research institutes. There is a prospect of career growth.

The Chinese leadership pays considerable attention to the quality of educational programs and the introduction of innovations in the educational process (Chen Zhaoming, 2011). World-renowned scientists are invited to give lectures. Attracting international experts to educational activities is one of China's leading and long-term goals. Educational institutions of the PRC adapt to the needs of public security reform and socio-economic development of the state, constantly adjust and improve the substantive content of training programs and academic disciplines, introduce new academic disciplines and improve existing ones in accordance with the needs of ensuring public security. It should be noted that the ability to successfully adapt the positive foreign experience to national characteristics is one of the distinctive features of education in China.

There are also many programs for training, retraining and advanced training of border police officers (Bloschinsky, 2016). In addition, China is expanding contacts and exchange of cadets with border services in Western Asia, Africa and Latin America. Chinese border guard officers regularly visit countries in Europe and North America on business, and it enhances the officer training system for the needs of the Chinese border agency.

CONCLUSIONS

The wide range of tasks of the Chinese border agency and the complexity of the situation at the borders require high-quality training of border guard officers in “Frontier Defense Management” specialty. In general, their education is based on the combination of the classical model of university education with personal experience and national specifics. The main features of the training the Chinese border guard officers are the considerable physical and psychological strain on cadets, a limited number of educational establishments, two training areas (Border Protection Management and Border Inspection),



involvement of international experts in educational activities, exchange of cadets with foreign countries' ones, etc. This makes it possible to train highly qualified officers for the needs of the Chinese border police in the context of expanding the range of tasks mandated by public security authorities.

We see prospects for further research in generalizing the content of training border guard officers abroad and determining the main directions of designing the content of training specialists in the domestic education system.

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A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS ON TRAINING SYSTEMS OF QUALIFIED WORKERS OF RESCUE UNITS

ABSTRACT

The article describes the peculiarities of professional training of firefighters in the Republic of Lithuania, Hungary, France, the USA and the United Kingdom. The conditions of professional activity of personnel of operational subdivisions of rescue units, components of vocational training and postgraduate education of personnel of the units of the Operational and Rescue Service of Civil Protection; the system of departmental education of the civil protection sphere of Ukraine is characterized. It includes an educational management body, higher education institutions, vocational schools, educational and training centers and a civil defense lyceum. It is noted that the modern professional education in the system of the State Emergency Service of Ukraine provides for the training of a fundamentally new skilled worker who is not only executing orders of the manager during the service, extinguishing fires and eliminating the consequences of emergencies, but is, in his own competence, organizer and professional performer. In the professional training of skilled workers of rescue units there is a primary professional training (vocational training) and training directly in the unit (at the workplace). Training in primary vocational training is carried out in vocational and technical educational institutions of civil protection (educational centers, training centers and the Higher Vocational School of Lviv State University of Life Safety (Vinnitsa). practical and special physical training for the qualitative training of working personnel in the structural units of the Operative Rescue Service of Civil Protection there is a system of learning - self and service training. The modern system of training of skilled workers for structural units of Operational and Rescue Service of Ukraine is characterized by the lack of scientific research, science and technology, innovative teaching methods that are prospects for further scientific studies.

Keywords: primary vocational training, skilled workers, civil protection operational and rescue service, operational calculation, independent training, official training.

АНОТАЦІЯ

У статті описано особливості професійної підготовки пожежних-рятувальників у Литовській Республіці, Угорщині, Франції, США та Великобританії. Схарактеризовано умови професійної діяльності особового складу оперативних



розрахунків рятувальних підрозділів, компоненти професійної підготовки та післядипломної освіти особового складу підрозділів Оперативно-рятувальної служби цивільного захисту. До складу відомчої освіти сфери цивільного захисту входить орган управління освітою, заклади вищої освіти, професійно-технічні навчальні заклади, навчально-методичні центри та ліцей цивільного захисту. Зазначено, що сучасна професійна освіта в системі Державної служби України з надзвичайних ситуацій передбачає підготовку принципово нового працівника кваліфікованої праці, який є не тільки виконавцем наказів керівника під час служби, гасіння пожеж та ліквідації наслідків надзвичайних ситуацій, а сам, відповідно своєї компетенції, є її організатором і виконавцем-професіоналом. В фаховій підготовці кваліфікованих робітників рятувальних підрозділів має місце первинна професійна підготовка (професійно-технічне навчання) та навчання безпосередньо в підрозділі (на робочому місці). Навчання з первинної професійної підготовки (професійно-технічного навчання) здійснюється в професійно-технічних навчальних закладах цивільного захисту (навчальних пунктах, навчальних центрах та Вищому професійному училищі Львівського державного університету безпеки життєдіяльності (м. Вінниця). Навчання складається з професійно-теоретичної, професійно-практичної та спеціальної фізичної підготовки. Для якісної підготовки робітничих кадрів в структурних підрозділах Оперативно-рятувальної служби цивільного захисту існує система навчання – самостійна та службова підготовки. Сучасна система професійної підготовки кваліфікованих робітників для структурних підрозділів Оперативно-рятувальної служби цивільного захисту України характеризується відсутністю результатів наукових досліджень, науково-технічних досягнень, інноваційних методик навчання, що є перспективою подальших наукових розвідок.

Ключові слова: первинна професійна підготовка, професійно-технічне навчання, кваліфіковані робітники, оперативно-рятувальна служба цивільного захисту, оперативний розрахунок, самостійна підготовка, службова підготовка.

INTRODUCTION

Over the last decade, there has been a trend towards an increase in the annual number of fires and emergencies in the territory of Ukraine and of the world in general (New legislation to strengthen European policy on disaster management. European Commission), which proves the utmost importance of the emergency response operations, their readiness to perform their assigned tasks.

When extinguishing fires, eliminating emergencies and their consequences, the activity of specialists of the units of the Operational and Rescue Service of Civil Protection of Ukraine is connected with negative factors, dangerous for their life and health, the need to perform professional tasks in the conditions of neuro-mental, emotional stress. This requires mobilization of both physical and psychophysiological reserves of the body.

The professional activity of rescuers at the present stage is characterized by an increase in the scope of their tasks, an extension of the range of work performed and the improvement of methods of their implementation, due to professional mobility of specialists and improving the quality of work performed.

In this regard, the fulfillment of new increased tasks requires an objective consideration of the higher qualification requirements for the skilled workers of the structural units of Operational and Rescue Service of Civil Protection of Ukraine, who are directly involved in the implementation of operative actions: extinguishing fires, elimination of emergencies and their consequences, carrying out other urgent works,



rendering assistance to the affected population, etc. To ensure that a large amount of work is performed during fire fighting, emergency management and their consequences in different territories and facilities, it is necessary to improve the quality of professional training of the personnel of the operational subdivisions of the rescue units.

THE AIM OF THE STUDY

To characterize the peculiarities of the training of workers for the rescue units of the Republic of Lithuania, Hungary, France, USA and Ukraine.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH METHODS

Contemporary professional education in the system of the State Emergency Service of Ukraine envisages the preparation of a fundamentally new skilled worker who is not only executing orders of the manager during the service, extinguishing fires and eliminating the consequences of emergencies, but himself, according to his competence, is an organizer and a professional executor of tasks.

Despite the considerable amount of scientific research on the issues of professional training of personnel for rescue units, the issue of training skilled workers (personnel of operational subdivisions) in the units of the Civil Rescue Service of Ukraine is not well understood.

A significant contribution to the improvement of the professional training process for the specialists of Operational and Rescue Service of Civil Protection of Ukraine was made by scientists V. Arkhyenko, O. Bykova (2001), V. But (2008), V. Buzko, V. Varenyk, N. Vovchasta, V. Hora, L. Didukh, A. Demchenko, O. Diachkova, O. Ivashchenko, L. Ishyckina, M. Koval, I. Koval, M. Kozziar (2005), M. Kryshtal, M. Kusii, L. Mokhnar, Yu. Nenko (2018), O. Parubok, K. Pasynchuk, O. Povstyn (2019), V. Rotar, V. Solntsev, M. Severin (2013), T. Tkachenko, O. Uzun (2011), M. Shkarabura et al. Research methods are as follows: theoretical methods – analysis and synthesis of scientific data for substantiation of the components of professional training of personnel of guards of structural divisions of Operational and Rescue Service of Civil Protection of Ukraine; empirical methods – observations, a study of results of lifeguard activity.

RESULTS

The training system for the Lithuanian Fire and Rescue Service consists of two levels.

The first level of training - training of ordinary members of the fire and rescue service. The learning process can be divided into two main parts: basic training, advanced training and retraining.

Basic training should be conducted taking into account the structure of the Lithuanian Fire and Rescue Service and the future workplace of the cadet. The following training programs have been developed for specialist training:

- fire-rescuer of the state fire-rescue service;
- specialist of the Center of the single help phone 112;
- fire-rescuer of the municipal fire-rescue service;
- assistant firefighter-rescuer (volunteer).

All basic training courses are held at the School of Fire Rescuers of the Department of Fire Protection and Rescue at the Ministry of Internal Affairs of the Republic of Lithuania.

After completing the basic training course, further training and acquisition of new specialties depends on the profile of the fire and rescue unit. Typically, retraining and refresher training courses are organized at the Fire Rescue School and other educational institutions and are conducted for firefighters by the Federal Fire and Rescue Service.



The second level of training is the preparation of officers for the Lithuanian Fire and Rescue Service. In 1992, the Vilnius Technical University named after Gadiminas opened the Chair of Occupational and Fire Safety. A new discipline for this university - Fire Safety (bachelor's studios) was created. Since 2002 the program of Master of Engineering has been approved.

In Hungary, the training of firefighters is carried out at three levels: initial / basic training (first degree), secondary (second degree) and higher education (third degree). The personnel of operational subdivisions of rescue units undergo professional initial (basic) training courses. The total amount of teaching time is 650 hours, 75 percent of which is practical training on sites, training grounds, etc.

In France, firefighting units are organized on a professional basis in major cities and volunteers are employed in provinces. There is also the principle of mixed manning of units - in fire and rescue units volunteers together with professional firefighters rescuers serve in duty guards. All volunteers receive 260-hour vocational training, take an exam, and then sign contracts. The professional duties of volunteers, in addition to extinguishing fires, include the elimination of emergencies and their consequences.

The peculiarity of the organization of training of employees of fire and rescue services in the USA is conditioned by the form of the state system. The United States is a federal country and each state of it has a great deal of autonomy. Each state has its own constitution and legislation, including regulating the organization and activities of the fire department. Thus, in the United States there are state fire protection service and fire protection service of every state. That is the reason of diversity in the organization of training firefighters. Each state has the right to organize the training and refresher training of local fire and rescue personnel at their discretion.

In all states, there is a minimum educational qualification for admission to the US municipal fire department. However, in most states, firefighting candidates require additional training. For example, in Florida, a candidate in a municipal fire department must have a diploma of a Firefighter and Emergency Nursing. Each state has its own specialist training system. Trainings are delivered by instructors directly in fire departments or in training centers created and funded by the local budget.

The principle of fire protection in the UK is the same as in the US. Professional fire protection and voluntary fire protection are also operating in the UK. Professional firefighting is staffed by full-time employees with cash support. Volunteer Fire Departments are formed from citizens who have special training, they have a service free of charge. The Fire and Rescue Service often uses volunteers to ensure the safety of the population and to check the fire safety of the living quarters. Large cities are served by a professional fire department. In cities with small populations, suburbs, and rural areas, fire units are formed by part-time employees who work part-time in their free time and are ready to eliminate fires 120 hours a week. Volunteer fire units are formed in remote and inaccessible areas, mainly in small islands. Purely voluntary fire brigades are only available in Scotland and Northern Ireland. The Peterborough Volunteer Fire Department is known not only in England but also beyond.

Most US and UK firefighters have college and university diplomas where they study for a future profession for 2 or 4 years. The UK Fire College is considered one of the world's largest training firefighting centers, offering a range of courses from ordinary firefighters and officers, to garrison and department commanders. Future firefighters are trained in extinguishing fires on ships, planes, helicopters, power stations, cars, freight and high-speed trains, as well as industrial buildings (Carroll, 2009).



Those wishing to become a fireman pass the entrance tests, only candidates over the age of 18 who have a document of complete general secondary education with positive marks in mathematics, physics and other exact sciences can be admitted. They must have a valid driver's license, be a U.S. citizen or have a residence permit in that country. It is desirable to have additional skills and a sufficient level of physical fitness.

Candidates undergo compulsory training, called Fire Service Training, which includes theory and practice. In the course of theory teaching, medicine, the fundamentals of architecture and construction are studied, with particular emphasis on the study of ventilation and the resistance of materials. In the course of the practical exercises, the endurance in assessing the situation and the speed of making adequate decisions are checked. Candidates are invited to work, sign a contract and become a full-fledged firefighter after having successfully passed an interview, a background check on criminal inclinations, all psychological, written and physical tests (Lautner, 1998; Squeglia, 2012; Shchablov, 2015).

As we can see, the structure of rescue training in European countries is somewhat similar to the structure of rescue training in our country. The training of skilled workers and the training of officers can be traced. Compared to Ukraine, there are significant differences in rescue training in the United States.

One of the important tasks for ensuring the constant readiness of the units of the Operational and Rescue Service of the Civil Protection of Ukraine for their intended actions is the appropriate level of professional readiness of their working personnel.

The Law of Ukraine «On Higher Education» states that professional training is the formation of a system of professional knowledge and skills, as well as professionally important and socially significant personality traits, the acquisition of experience in solving typical professional problems, the formation of a professional personality orientation (About higher education, 1556–VII, 2014).

Vocational training is an organized and purposeful process of mastering the members of the ordinary and commanding bodies of civil protection bodies and units with the knowledge and skills necessary for the fulfillment of professional tasks (On approval of the Instruction on the organization of vocational training and postgraduate education of persons of the rank and command staff of the bodies and divisions of civil protection № 444, 2009).

The professional training of the personnel of the structural divisions of the Operational and Rescue Service of Civil Protection of Ukraine includes (On approval of the Instruction on the organization of vocational training and postgraduate education of persons of the rank and command staff of the bodies and divisions of civil protection № 444, 2009):

- initial professional training of persons on the educational and qualification level “skilled worker”;
- preparation of persons for the educational and professional degree “professional junior bachelor”;
- training of specialists with higher education in Bachelor’s and Master’s degrees;
- training of scientific and scientific and pedagogical personnel of higher qualification.

Postgraduate education of the personnel of the structural units of the Operational and Rescue Service of Civil Protection of Ukraine includes retraining, advanced training and specialization.

Vocational training and postgraduate education are carried out in the departmental education system, which consists of educational management bodies within the central apparatus of the State Emergency Service of Ukraine, higher education institutions,



vocational schools; educational and methodological centers; the Lyceum of Civil Protection. On the basis of the analysis of the governing documents (Code of Civil Protection № 5403-V, 2012; On approval of the Order of organization of official training of persons of ordinary and command staff of civil protection service № 511, 2017; On approval of the Instruction on the organization of vocational training and postgraduate education of persons of the rank and command staff of the bodies and divisions of civil protection № 444, 2009) and empirical data in the structure of the professional training of the personnel of the guards of the structural units of Operational and Rescue Service of Civil Protection of Ukraine, we have distinguished two components:

- initial professional training (vocational training) of staff in departmental vocational schools;
- training of personnel directly in the unit (at the place of service).

Training in primary vocational training is carried out in vocational and technical educational institutions of civil protection (educational centers, training centers and the Higher Vocational School of Lviv State University of Life Safety (Vinnitsa). The training consists of vocational-theoretical, vocational-practical and special physical training.

In order to develop professional knowledge, skills and abilities of personnel, to maintain a high level of operational readiness of duty guards, there is a continuous, year-round system of training - independent and professional training in the structural units of Civil Protection Service of Ukraine.

Self study (On approval of the Instruction on the organization of vocational training and postgraduate education of persons of the rank and command staff of the bodies and divisions of civil protection № 444, 2009) is a continuous process of independent work of the personnel in acquiring, deepening and updating the knowledge, skills and abilities necessary for the successful fulfillment of their functional duties, defined by the job descriptions in certain positions.

Self-study includes:

- study of legislative and regulatory documents;
- constant acquaintance with new legal, economic, special and other literature in accordance with the line of activity;
- study of provisions, orders, instructions and other normative documents on operation of firefighting, emergency-rescue, special equipment, engineering-technical equipment, and rules of safety when using them;
- preparation for classes, tests, exams in the course of initial vocational training in the working professions, training, retraining, specialization and advanced training;
- preparation for meetings of management staff, training courses, exercises, trainings, inspections, etc;
- practical work with special technical means, communication and transport means;
- study the area of possible emergency response and operational and tactical features of the most important and potentially dangerous objects;
- constant maintenance and improvement of physical fitness.

Service training is a system of activities aimed at securing, updating and acquiring the necessary knowledge, skills, and professional qualities with the staff to ensure successful completion of assigned tasks (On approval of the Order of organization of official training of persons of ordinary and command staff of civil protection service № 511, 2017).

The main tasks of service training are: to increase the level of knowledge, skills, and professional qualities of the personnel in order to ensure his / her ability to perform the



tasks on purpose, taking into account the peculiarities and profile of the service; improvement of the management of bodies and divisions of civil protection of personnel management skills; study of legal acts regulating the activity of civil protection bodies and divisions.

Types of service training (On approval of the Order of organization of official training of persons of ordinary and command staff of civil protection service № 511, 2017):

– functional training – a set of measures aimed at acquiring and improving the personnel of knowledge, skills in the field of regulatory legal support of official activities necessary for the successful completion of professional tasks and job descriptions in certain positions;

– profile preparation – a set of measures aimed at acquiring and improving the ability of practical using of theoretical knowledge regarding the formation of preparedness for intended actions;

– tactical preparation – a set of measures aimed at acquiring and improving the skills of practical application of theoretical knowledge of emergency rescue and other urgent works, extinguishing fires, demining and clearing territories from explosive objects, managing forces and means during emergency situations and dangerous events;

– general physical training – a set of measures aimed at general physical improvement of personnel to ensure the successful completion of tasks on purpose;

– special physical training – a set of measures aimed at the formation and improvement of physical qualities and skills of the personnel required for professional activity;

– premedical assistance training – a set of measures aimed at acquiring and improving the knowledge of the personnel on the procedure for providing domestic assistance in the event of fires, emergencies and dangerous events;

– humanitarian training – a set of activities aimed at forming a sense of patriotism, love for Ukraine and its people, culture, traditions and spiritual values, dignity, honor, national consciousness, allegiance to the Oath;

– psychological training – a set of measures aimed at the formation, development and maintenance of psychological readiness of staff to professional activity, the fulfillment of tasks on purpose in difficult and extreme conditions.

Additional training sessions are scheduled and conducted during the calendar year at a time specified.

Additional classes include:

– working out of the standards for special physical training in the academic period in excess of the training plan established in the calendar plan, as well as in the summer period of the year;

– independent training of officials who are authorized to perform the duties of fire extinguisher independently;

– independent training of substitute radio telephonists;

– development of documents of rapid response (operational plans and fire fighting cards);

– night test practical exercises with the development of tactical tasks;

– analysis of operative actions for extinguishing fires and elimination of consequences of emergencies and dangerous events.

CONCLUSIONS

The article analyzes the professional training of personnel for the rescue units of the Republic of Lithuania, Hungary, France, the USA and Ukraine. On the basis of the analysis of the governing documents, empirical data in the structure of the professional training of the personnel of the guards of the structural units of the Operational and Rescue



Service of Civil Protection of Ukraine, we have distinguished two components: primary vocational training and training of the personnel directly in the unit. In order to develop the professional knowledge, skills and abilities of the personnel, to maintain a high level of operational readiness of duty guards, a continuous, year-round system of training – independent and professional training, exists in the structural units of Operational and Rescue Service of Civil Protection of Ukraine. At the same time, there is a contradiction between the objective necessity of the modern system of training of skilled workers for the structural units of Operational and Rescue Service of Civil Protection of Ukraine and the lack of a proactive approach, the results of scientific researches, scientific and technical achievements, insufficient attention to innovative methods and techniques. And it is a prospect of further scientific exploration.

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FOREIGN EXPERIENCE OF VOCATIONAL ART EDUCATION

ABSTRACT

The analysis of the vocational training of skilled workers in foreign countries is presented in the article. Foreign experience of vocational art education is considered. The role of employers in the educational process, the importance of skilled workers' training to meet labor market requirements are emphasized. The essence of the concept of «dual system» is revealed. According to German experience, which has shown the introduction of an effective educational system and effective enterprises' cooperation with educational establishments, there is a need to use foreign experience to integrate the dual system and its elements in the educational process of Ukraine, involvement of employers in the development of training programs and qualification requirements, which will allow to train skilled workers who will be able to compete in the labor market and improve Ukrainian industry. A detailed study of the Austrian education system demonstrates the effective organization of cooperation between partner companies and competence centers opened in vocational education establishments. The development of creativity, mastery of modern competencies, skills of middle management and enterprise work planning are important for the Ukrainian education system. Foreign experience of cooperation of educational establishments with partner organizations of the Netherlands indicates that Ukraine today requires the involvement of special and social partners in the organization of educational process and cooperation with business. Denmark's education system shows the effective organization of the educational process, therefore, priority should be given to Ukraine's modern preparation for higher education. Estonian practice confirms the necessity of expanding in Ukrainian educational system skilled workers' multilevel training and mastering modern art competences. The experience of the Japanese education system testifies to the presence of national traditions, that play a serious and positive role in the development of the creative personality and its talents. Education is aimed to form ideological orientations and competences, the need for creative self-realization and spiritual self-improvement in the skilled workers' training. Development of national culture and national traditions in the education system is important for the Ukrainian state. Experience of the Japanese education system demonstrates existence of national traditions, that play a serious and positive role in personal development and her talents. Education is directed to formation of world outlook orientations and competences, the needs for creative self-realization and spiritual self-improvement when training skilled workers. For Ukraine it is important to develop in the education system its national culture and traditions.

Keywords: vocational training, art education, foreign experience, skilled worker, dual system, cooperation, national traditions, creative personality.

АНОТАЦІЯ

У статті проаналізовано особливості професійної підготовки кваліфікованих працівників закордонних країн. Розглянуто зарубіжний досвід професійної художньої освіти. Підкреслюється роль роботодавців у освітньому процесі, важливість підготовки



висококваліфікованого робітника, який відповідає вимогам ринку праці. Розкрито суть поняття «дуальна система». На основі досвіду Німеччини, що показав впровадження ефективної освітньої системи та ефективну співпрацю підприємств із навчальними закладами, постає необхідність використання зарубіжного досвіду, щодо втілення дуальної системи та її елементів в освітній процес України, залучення роботодавців до розробки навчальних програм та кваліфікаційних вимог, що дозволить підготувати висококваліфікованих робітників, які зможуть бути конкурентоспроможними на ринку праці та покращити українське виробництво. Детальне вивчення австрійської системи освіти демонструє ефективну організацію співробітництва підприємств-партнерів із центрами компетентності відкритих при закладах професійної освіти. Розвиток творчого потенціалу, оволодіння сучасними компетенціями, навички середнього менеджменту та планування роботи підприємства є важливими для української системи освіти. Зарубіжний досвід співпраці навчальних закладів з партнерськими організаціями Нідерландів указує, що Україна сьогодні потребує залучення спеціальних та соціальних партнерів у організації освітнього процесу та співпраці з бізнесом. Освітня система Данії показує ефективну організацію освітнього процесу, тому для України пріоритетним має бути сучасна підготовка до вищої освіти. Естонська практика підтверджує необхідність розширення в системі освіти України багаторівневої підготовки кваліфікованих робітників та оволодіння сучасними художніми компетентностями. Досвід японської системи освіти свідчить про наявність народних традицій, що відіграють серйозну і позитивну роль у розвитку творчої особистості та її талантів. Освіта спрямована на формування світоглядних орієнтацій і компетенцій, потреби у творчій самореалізації та духовному самовдосконаленні при підготовці кваліфікованих робітників. Для української держави має важливе значення розвиток національної культури та народних традицій у системі освіти.

Ключові слова: професійна підготовка, художня освіта, зарубіжний досвід, кваліфікований робітник, дуальна система, співпраця, народні традиції творча особистість.

INTRODUCTION

At the present stage of vocational education development in Ukraine, attention is being paid to the problem of vocational training quality. The quality of qualified specialists' training is one of the leading places in Ukraine's educational policy. The educational process in vocational training is built on a competency basis. Today, Ukraine needs highly qualified art specialists, who meet the requirements of the labor market.

European production demands from the specialist modern professional knowledge, creativity, the developed competences and mobility.

Both the Ukrainian experts, and vocational training specialists of different countries of the world pay attention to problems of skilled workers' training. They confirm the importance of vocational training improvement and consider it necessary to approximate national vocational education standards to international ones.

THE AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study is to cover foreign experience of the future skilled workers' vocational training, to analyze the process of the future skilled workers' vocational training abroad.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH METHODS

Study of foreign experience of professional training of skilled workers of artistic profile were engaged by domestic and foreign scientists N. Al-Khalaf, N. Baseliuk, O. Baseliuk, V. Vasylychenko, L. Gerganov, A. Grynenko, O. Grishnova, L. Kerb, I. Kischko,



O. Komarovska, N. Korchynska, T. Krystopchuk, S. Leu, O. Maievska, L. Masol, V. Muromets, V. Ragozina, V. Radkevych, K. Reininga I. Savchenko, S. Sysoieva, R. Talvik, A. Tanzer, et al.

In the works of scientists, special attention is paid to the problem of vocational education and training systems' development in the countries of the European Union. The modern programs and directions of skilled workers' training in the countries of Western, Northern, Central, Eastern Europe and the countries of the East are characterized.

The organizational and legal basis of the vocational education and training development is analyzed. The importance of partnerships and collaboration between employers and educational establishments is emphasized. The problem of formation of creative thinking and abilities of future specialists is considered.

The researches of N. Al-Khalaf, I. Kischko, R. Talvik, A. Tanzer, K. Reininga substantiates the experience of such programs implementation as "Cultures of the Curatorial" and "Dual Academy", reveals the functioning of the dual education system.

The following methods were used to realize the aim of the study: analysis, synthesis, comparison and generalization.

RESULTS

Worldwide experience in the field of professional art education is heterogeneous and versatile. Let's consider the development and functioning of foreign professional art education, approaches and areas of vocational education in the example of Western European countries (Austria, Germany, the Netherlands); Nordic countries (Denmark); Central and Eastern Europe (Estonia) and Eastern countries (Japan).

Among the variety of vocational training forms and systems in Germany the most common is the dual system.

The term "dual system" (from Latin dualis – double) was introduced into pedagogical terminology in the mid-1960s in Germany as a new, more flexible form of vocational training organization.

Duality as a methodological characteristic of vocational education implies a coordinated interaction of the educational and industrial field with the certain type specialists' training in the framework of organizationally different training forms. (H. Baumann) (Savchenko, 2018).

Every 5th German company is engaged in vocational training. 2/3 of the system students are trained at medium and large companies. 2 students out of 3 who studies at the company stay working at it (Savchenko, 2018).

In Germany, the legal framework for vocational training in the workplace in industry and crafts is defined in the Vocational Training Act and the Trade and Crafts Code. (Gerganov, 2014, p.102). The basis for conducting vocational training on the dual system is the conclusion of a tripartite agreement on vocational training (enterprise, student, vocational school). The peculiarity of this form of education is that 70–80 % of the training is conducted at the enterprise – 3–4 days a week the student is training at the enterprise and 1–2 days at the educational institution.

The employer pays compensation to instructors who are distracted from the main job and do mentoring. The student who is trained at the enterprise is remunerated (an average student's salary is 80% of that of a qualified employee). After passing the exams, the graduate receives 3 certificates: vocational schools, enterprises and state-recognized profession certificate from the Chamber of Trades and Crafts, which control students' practical training at the enterprise (Savchenko, 2018).

In the dual system of Germany special place belongs to art education. The most famous art educational institution is the Dresden Academy of Fine Arts [URL: www.hfbk-



dresden.de] – one of the oldest educational institutions in Dresden. Art education is available at the academies and universities in Berlin, Munich, Stuttgart, Kassel, Kaiserslautern, Leipzig, Pforzheim, Karlsruhe, Frankfurt, Nuremberg, Düsseldorf, Hamburg, Erfurt, Weimar, Wiesbaden, Halle.

One of the art education areas in Germany is an educational program, introduced in specially developed courses, such as postgraduate Master of Art program «Cultures of the Curatorial» at the Academy of Visual Arts Leipzig (HGB) [URL: <http://www.hgb-leipzig.de/>], according to the program is provided studying of the Curatorial projects methodology and implementation and the analysis of exhibition concepts. The Hochschule für Gestaltung Diploma Course in Karlsruhe (HfG) [URL: www.hfg-karlsruhe.de] is called “Ausstellungsdesign”. The Curatorial can also be studied in Frankfurt am Main: “Critical and Curatorial Studies”. The Curatorial studios are part of the Master of Art programs at the State University of Fine Arts.

All training courses work in an interdisciplinary manner and try to put a significant part of the program into practice. “Curators are expected to recognize and analyze art and culture relevant topics, and then convert them into different formats, so that the audience can participate in the discourse” points out F. Nori, director of the Frankfurt Artists’ Union, who sets the requirements for graduates. Students must learn to use various forms of narration and presentation at the Museum of Contemporary Art, the Städel Museum, the History Museum, and the World Art Museum based on certain exhibitions. According to S. Heraeus «Each exhibition has its own way of argumentation. Students should be taught that they can develop various forms of argumentation in the exhibition context or work together with artists». The graduates will work in museums, galleries and art association: curators, collectors, exhibition designers. We agree with N. Al-Khalaf’s (2016) point of view that “Recently art education was understood primarily as a practical study of the fine arts or a theoretical study of art history and art sciences, the time passed and today the new subjects of media industry have joined the educational programs”.

Interesting is the organization of the educational process in Austria. A. Tanzer (2019) in the article “Dual Academy: A New Way to Become a Qualified Worker” reveals the essence of the educational program “Dual Academy” in Vienna, which enables secondary school leavers to undergo quick, individual skilled workers’ training.

The shortage of skilled workers is an ongoing issue in the economy, one of the ways to reduce this is to introduce the “Dual Academy” program into the educational process.

The concept was introduced in Upper Austria. Depending on the profession, the training takes 1,5 to 2,5 years. Training program consists of three areas. It includes practical training in a partner company (70 %), theoretical professional knowledge (20 %), and the future skills imparting (10 %) in three fields of innovation / digital technologies, social and self-competences, and also international competences. The professional theory is taught in competence centers in the vocational schools, the future skills are imparted both in the company and by educational partners. A part of the concept is also a mandatory stay abroad and a practice-oriented future project, in which the participants are accompanied by professional mentors. According to the program manager E. Schupfer, the graduates should also have medium management and the enterprise activity planning skills (According to the Vienna Chamber of Commerce, 2019).

We agree with I. Kischko’s (2019) point of view, who points out, that «the professional life is changing. Digital technologies introduction and globalization put more and more high requirements to professional life. The “Dual Academy” program can be an



interesting new training variant for school leavers, companies which offer this way of training also have to offer young people an opportunity for further development. “I think, young people choose a job not only because of their wages, but also because of the prospects they receive” emphasizes Kellner & Kunz AG CEO E. Wiesinger.

“We see the “Dual Academy” program as an attractive alternative to the University and vocational school. School education which is got by the school leaver, is combined with reliable vocational training and future skills, – that exactly meets the needs of the economy and offers graduates the best career opportunities” – pointed out Walter Ruck, President of the Vienna Chamber of Commerce, who introduced the educational program together with the Education Directorate Vienna (According to the Vienna Chamber of Commerce 2019).

Austrian universities have enormous variety in terms of both size and structure. Their educational offerings reflect this diversity. The study programmes at the traditional comprehensive universities in Vienna, Graz, Innsbruck, Klagenfurt, Linz and Salzburg cover a broad spectrum of academic subjects. Whether it is music, dramatic arts, fine arts or applied arts, Austria’s universities of the arts provide an ideal space to tap into the fascinating interaction of art and science and acquire an exquisite education.

The Academy of Fine Arts Vienna [URL: www.akbild.ac.at] is a public university with 1400 students and a faculty of 260 offering opportunities for study, artistic and scholarly research. Studio practice is balanced with a large variety of course offerings on art theory and history. Our faculty consists of distinguished artists and scholars whose teaching is based on their artistic practice and research experience. In addition to being an educational institution the Academy houses two internationally renowned art collections, the Picture Gallery and the Prints and Drawings Collection.

The University of Applied Arts Vienna [URL: <http://www.dieangewandte.at>] is a place for free artistic and academic expression and as a laboratory for artistic visions, which unfold creative potential. The broad spectrum of artistic disciplines, complemented by a large number of scientific subjects. Studies are not limited to the mere conveyance of artistic techniques and skills. Attention is focused on the development of individual artistic creativity and reflection upon one’s work on the basis of theories and concepts that are our foremost priorities.

The University of Art and Design Linz [URL: <http://www.ufg.ac.at>] started work as an art school, which was founded in 1947, assigned academy status in 1973 and finally made a fully-fledged university in 1998. Since the university has been defined as a «corporation» and enjoys far-reaching autonomy. Nowadays the University of Art and Design Linz is a future oriented place of study for over 1,200 students. Its diverse and varied range of curricula harmoniously combine free artistic creation, science and applied design (Using Study in Austria – highlight your future, 2020).

Another opportunity for young people to get a higher art education is to study at the Vienna Art School.

The Vienna Art School [URL: www.kunstschule.wien] is the only school in Austria that offers courses in Visual Arts and Applied Arts that can be attended without passing a previous entrance exam. The training lasts three years, and includes enough time for experimentation, communication, and the systematic acquisition of techniques, methods and media. Thanks to the involvement of important art and cultural institutions, the Vienna Art School is a vivid and communicative teaching institution of art in the Viennese art scene.

While the Vienna Art School is a private school, it is recognized by the state of Austria. So, students who graduate attain a degree in visual and applied arts. This degree qualifies the students for high level work in the art sector at an international level. (Using vienna art school, 2020).



Students who study at the Academy of Fine Arts Vienna, the University of Applied Arts Vienna, the University of Art and Design Linz and the Vienna Art School receive training in the following areas: Architecture, Fine Arts, Conservation and Restoration, Art & Science, Design, Stage Design, Art Education, Media Arts, Space & Design Strategies, Postgraduate and Doctoral Programmes.

The vocational education and training development in the Netherlands is governed by the Vocational Adult education Act, 1996. Vocational training is managed at national and regional levels with the involvement of social partners. At the national level the Government of the Netherlands issues legislative and regulatory acts and develops a common educational structure. At the regional level, vocational education and training providers and social partners are integrating into the Business Cooperation Organization. Their activity is aimed at qualifications' development, companies' accreditation that provide vocational training service at the enterprise. (Radkevich, 2018, pp. 79–80).

In order to continue their studies at academies and universities, secondary school pupils must complete a pre-university education course, with a duration of 6 years. The course can be divided in two layers: the first part of a course is called basic education. This takes the first 3 years. Years 4–5–6 belong to the second phase in secondary education, which is pre-university education.

In the Netherlands education system, great importance is attached to art education, which is compulsory for all pupils of primary school, laid down by the Dutch law. The Ministry of Education, Culture and Science is responsible for setting the aims of cultural and creative dimensions in formal education. Schools are free to choose from the following arts subjects: visual arts, music, drama, dance, media arts, crafts.

Through art education, children learn to open their minds: they observe paintings and sculptures, they listen to music, they enjoy language and movement. Art education also encourages them to appreciate cultural and artistic works of expression in the world around them. Furthermore, they learn to express themselves, using the means linked to the artistic domain: They learn to investigate the possibilities of various materials and different means of expression such as colour, form, space, texture and composition; they make drawings and three-dimensional works (Reininga, 2017).

At the end of primary school, there is a test that determines the type of future secondary school. Complete secondary education in the Netherlands is obtained at 12 through 18 years of age.

The Netherlands is considered to be innovators in both higher and secondary education. It was in school education in the Netherlands for the first time between non-English-speaking countries began to offer English-language programs not only for students, but also for pupils. In the schools of this country, you can study under the programs of different countries, especially the USA and Great Britain.

The secondary school type choice depends on the results of the tests in primary school and the teachers' recommendations. There are several types of secondary schools: senior general secondary education, pre-vocational secondary education, pre-university secondary education (Using Osvitniy konsaltnh, 2020).

The graduates who have completed a pre-university secondary education course and wish to receive an art education have the opportunity to enter higher education institutions in Amsterdam, Utrecht, and Eindhoven.

State Academy of Fine Arts in Amsterdam [URL: <https://rijksakademie.nl/>] is one of the leading and strong educational institutions in the Netherlands. The institution offers an art education based on national and international experiences and traditions.



The HKU University of the Arts Utrecht [URL: www.hku.nl] is a higher educational institution, that provides art training. The institution operates internationally and is involved in numerous international programs and projects. Students get the opportunity to study various subjects and disciplines, to conduct research work.

Design Academy Eindhoven [URL: www.designacademy.nl] is a higher private, autonomous educational institute for art, architecture and design. The Academy offers design training. The institution conducts research work and carries out researches on cultural and social problems, which allowed to gain the international recognition.

The Gerrit Rietveld Academy [URL: www.gerritrietveldacademie.nl] is a Dutch international independent higher education institution of higher vocational education. The institution is established in 1924, as an Institute of Applied Arts. The Academy was named after famous designer and architect Gerrit Rietveld in 1968. Today it is an Academy of contemporary fine arts and design. Training in art educational institutions is carried out on specialisations: Music, Film and Television, Theatre, Dance, Education in the Arts, Fine Arts, Architecture, Museology, Photography, Graphic Design, Illustration, Animation, VAV-Moving Image, Image and Language, Media and Management, Production and Stage Management, Theatre and Arts Management, TXT (Textile), Media, Fashion, Games and Interaction, Theatre Directing, Creative Media and Game Technologies, Sound Design, Jewellery, Scenography, Video Art, Cultural Heritage, Ceramics, Glass.

According to the law, education in Denmark is compulsory. After the termination 9 classes pupils decide whether to continue their education further. Year 10 is optional. Primary education in Denmark is divided into 3 general subject categories: humanistic, scientific and practical, art subjects: music, fine arts, crafts and design.

In 9 and 10 class children can choose one of the following education options, consisting of four programs: Gymnasium, Higher Preparatory Examination, Higher Technical Examination, Higher Commercial Examination. Program training provides preparation for entering academies and universities (Using Wikipedia, 2020).

Those who want to receive an art education can continue their studies in Copenhagen, Frederiksberg, Kolding, Odense, Århus, Ålborg after the programs of art educational institutions such as: Funen Art Academy [URL: www.detfynsekunstakademi.dk], Royal Danish Academy of Fine Arts [URL: <http://www.kunstakademiet.dk/>], Design School Kolding [URL: www.designskolenkolding.dk], Aarhus School of Architecture [URL: www.aarch.dk], Jutland Art Academy [URL: <http://www.djk.nu>], Copenhagen School of Design and Technology (KEA) [URL: www.kea.dk] (“Using Osvitniy konsaltnyh”, 2020).

Students who studies in art educational institutions receive training on specializations: Painting, Sculpture Graphics, Photography, Video, Architecture, Design, Conservation, Contemporary Visual Arts, New Media, Computer Science & IT, Business & Management, Engineering & Technology.

Vocational education and training in Estonia is the key to ensuring a skilled workforce capable of adapting to changes in the labour market. Skilled workers’ training is under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education and Research.

Art education in Estonia is represented by such educational institutions as Tartu Art School [URL: www.art.tartu.ee], Tartu Art College [URL: www.artcol.ee], and Estonian Academy of Arts [URL: www.artun.ee]. According to the Estonian qualifications framework vocational education and training is offered at second, third, fourth and fifth levels. Tartu Art School offers vocational training at levels four and five (R. Talvik, 2017). According to level four the skilled workers’ are trained in professions – Personal Stylist,



Graphic Designer, Decoration Designer, 3D Designer, (“Using Wikipedia”, 2019) level 5 programs offers Advanced Training for Artists and Designers. In order to provide artistic competencies, Tartu Art School studies are based on developing classical fine art skills along with technical knowledge of modern technologies. Tartu Art School study programs provides graduates with competence allowing them to act as independent artists and designer, work in the art and design industry or enter high educational institutions (Talvik, 2017).

Vocational education in Japan is quite peculiar. Japanese youth get acquainted with the basics of different professions at a secondary school. So, the secondary school program is clearly divided into educational and vocational one. The education program contains the academic and general courses which provide rather large general pupils’ training (Using Yevroosvita, 2020).

Education in Japan is a cult supported by the family, society and the state. The development of creative personality and its talents in a Japanese secondary school lies in the personal artistic and aesthetic pupils’ development (Maievska, 2017, p. 167).

Vocational oriented programs usually include courses in agriculture, industry, commerce, fishing and housekeeping. All vocational courses are taught by teachers, who are special trained for this activity and passed practical training. Such teachers are trained at the vocational department in pedagogical institutes, where possibilities are usually created for students to gain deep to gain deep scientific and applied knowledge and sufficiently stable professional skills. Thanks to these professional teachers, pupils master such a level of knowledge and practical skills that they are able to join the industry immediately after graduation. The 12-year school system graduates undergo a 4-6-week adaptation course at the enterprise, and during a certain period of time they are trained at the workplace (Using Yevroosvita, 2020).

The art education model in Japan is based on the idea of each person's ability to feel beauty. The pupil has to choose at least two of four proposed disciplines: music, hieroglyphics, fine art, design. Pupils are given freedom to express their ideas and abilities. Considerable attention in the Japanese art and aesthetic education system is paid to the colour vision development. It is considered that the subtle colours’ perception, the ability to combine them harmoniously contributes to the development of work culture “art” level in all areas. The close connection between philosophical and art search in Japanese fine art is represented by drawing nature and thematic subjects.

All traditional arts (traditional theatre, poetry, painting, calligraphy, music, ikebana, tea ceremony, rock garden, material arts) are connected by the unity of worldview, language expression, understanding of the act of creativity. Art and crafts classes develop observation, imagination, sensory abilities, form a person’s patience, diligence, balance, refined taste (Maievska, 2017, p. 168, 172–174).

The Japanese like to study long and in detail. The concept of «lifelong learning» is dominant among the Japanese, means the continuous self-education process and organized training in the course of practical activity. This concept is based on the deep cultural traditions of the Japanese nation, formed under the influence of Buddhist dogmas and Confucian teachings. So the master of any profession has never has the idea that, having learned his art, he can at least stop for a while, give himself a rest. Any break means skill degradation, loss of polished art. Having just entered the path of mastering an art or profession, the Japanese already knows that, this “mastery” it will last for him all his life. This vocational education system gives Japanese businesses the opportunity to conduct industrial production effectively, quickly introduce and master new equipment, receive a good trained stuff (Using Yevroosvita, 2020).



The general education curriculum is designed to prepare participants for entering universities. The pupil has the opportunity to continue art education in the capital of Japan.

Musashino Art University (MAU) is located in Tokyo. MAU was founded as a private art school and was officially designated as a university in 1962. The institution has one faculty, which is divided into several departments: Japanese Painting, Sculpture, Visual Communication Design, Creative Innovation, Scenography, Architecture, Arts Policy and Management and other. The University provides education in Master's and Doctoral Degree Program (Using Wikipedia, 2020).

CONCLUSIONS

The analysis of foreign experience of future skilled art workers' training showed differences in skilled personnel training abroad. The European countries have a much higher role for employers and their organizations in planning the development of vocational training. They participate in the development of qualification and standards, on-the-job training priorities; participation in the formation of state education policy.

Abroad, more attention is paid to the acquisition of practical skills and a significant number of hours' introduction into the educational process, designed for practical training in the workplace. In many developed countries, during training in art vocational institutions, a significant emphasis is placed on the development of future competencies. The most common form of training is the dual system in vocational education and «apprenticeships», during which the theoretical course alternates with on-the-job training at the enterprise with wages.

One of the areas of art education in Germany is a postgraduate part-time program “Cultures of the Curatorial”, which successfully implements the training of art professionals. The essence of the “Dual Academy” educational program in Vienna is revealed, which should enable school leavers to undergo quick, individual skilled workers' training and become an attractive alternative to the university and vocational school. The educational system of the Netherlands is analyzed, in which art education is compulsory in schools and is determined by the law. The directions of further education after the completion of primary school and the opportunity to study according to English-language programs are indicated.

The Danish education system is presented, which is divided into categories and provides the pupil with a choose of certain educational programs after completing secondary education.

The characteristics of the Estonian vocational education system, which has a level training, are given.

The art institutions of European countries and the list of specializations for the training of art specialists are considered.

The originality of vocational education in Japan, which is based on national traditions, is shown. Such system allows the country to run its business effectively and to receive well-trained staff.

After analyzing the experience of art vocational education in different countries of the world, we can conclude that the positive achievements of foreign experience in art vocational education can be used in planning modern reforms in our country and to be guided by them in the development of new curricula and programs.

The prospects for further scientific research are the introduction of some elements of the dual system of education into the national educational process and its improvement, which can significantly improve the quality of modern vocational education in the art professions.



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**FORMS AND METHODS OF TEACHING FUTURE MASTERS
IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE AND APPLIED LINGUISTICS
IN THE UNIVERSITIES OF CHINA**

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the paper is to show the main methods and forms of teaching used in the professional training of masters of Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics in China. All Chinese educational programs on Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics, teaching, learning and evaluation methods correspond to specific professional development goals of future professionals as well as the specificity of students' acquisition of academic and practical knowledge and skills during the learning process. Teaching and learning methods are clearly aligned by educational program developers with the requirements of the Ministry of Education in order to acquire the necessary competencies for future Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics professionals. The issue of the vocational training was raised in the works of such Chinese scholars, as Huang Fuquan (黄甫全), Gui Shichun (桂诗春), Li Bingde (李秉德), Yu Genyuan (于根元), Yu Min (余敏), and other scholars who dedicate their researches to education, skills and professionalism. Thus, the results of our paper shows that the methods used in Chinese universities are teaching methods, learning methods, methods of collecting data etc. In the process of teaching at the magistracy of Chinese higher education institutions in the field of "Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics", the widespread use of methods is based on modern information technologies. In the scientific works of Chinese scientists there determined common forms used during the professional education – lectures, seminars and different types of classes – group, individual, consultative, practical, independent and others. Thereby, the study of Chinese experience of creating and using various forms and methods of teaching undergraduates on Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics can be used for the optimization and reformation of educational process in domestic universities.

Keywords: Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics, masters, universities, China, forms and methods of teaching.

АНОТАЦІЯ

Мета статті полягає в аналізі основних методів та форм навчання, які використовуються у процесі професійної підготовки магістрів іноземної мови та прикладної лінгвістики у Китаї. Усі освітні програми з іноземної мови та прикладної лінгвістики та методи викладання, навчання й оцінювання відповідають конкретним цілям професійної підготовки майбутніх фахівців через набуття студентами академічних та практичних знань й навичок протягом процесу навчання. Методи викладання та навчання чітко узгоджені розробниками освітніх програм з вимогами Міністерства освіти з метою набуття потрібних компетентностей майбутніми



фахівцями з іноземної мови та прикладної лінгвістики. Питання професійної підготовки піднімалося в роботах таких китайських учених, як Гуй Шічунь (桂诗春), Лі Бінгде (李秉德), Хуан Фуцюань (皇甫全), Юй Геньюань (于根元), Юй Мін (余敏) та інших науковців, які досліджують питання освіти, вмінь та професіоналізму. Таким чином, результати нашої роботи показують, що методи, які застосовуються в китайських університетах, – це методи викладання, навчання, методи збору даних тощо. Під час викладання в магістратурі китайських університетів за напрямом підготовки «Іноземна мова та прикладна лінгвістика» широко використовуються методи, засновані на сучасних інформаційних технологіях. У роботах китайських вчених окреслено, що поширеними формами, які використовуються під час професійної освіти, є лекції, семінари та різні типи занять – групові, індивідуальні, консультативні, практичні, самостійні та інші. Таким чином, вивчення китайського досвіду створення та використання різних форм і методів навчання магістрантів з іноземної мови та прикладної лінгвістики може бути використано українськими фахівцями та дослідниками під час реформування навчального процесу у вітчизняних університетах.

Ключові слова: Іноземна мова та прикладна лінгвістика, магістратура, університет, Китай, форми й методи викладання.

INTRODUCTION

The modern Ukrainian education system is undergoing a stage of complex changes. These changes in the sphere of professional higher education are due, first of all, to the dependence of the modern society on the personality of the specialists, their professional competence. Requirements for education are changing, its content and forms are updating. The processes of global economic, political, cultural and scientific integration and unification lead to fundamental changes in the international educational space. Dissemination of advanced technologies updates the ways of professional training of specialists, which leads to the development of forms and methods of organization of educational activities. China is a country that learns quickly and adopts positive experiences of other countries around the world, simultaneously reforming that experience to meet the needs and requirements of Chinese people.

THE AIM OF THE STUDY

The purpose of our paper is to show the main methods and forms of teaching used in the process of the professional training of Masters in Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH METHODS

The issue of the vocational training was raised in the works of such Chinese scholars as Gui Shichun (桂诗春), Huang Fuquan (皇甫全), Li Bingde (李秉德), Yu Genyuan (于根元), Yu Min (余敏) and other scholars who dedicate their researches to education, skills and professionalism. At the same time, the question of the main methods and forms of teaching using in the process of the professional training of masters of Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics is not sufficiently developed in the psycho-pedagogical literature. In our research we used theoretical (generalization and analysis) and empirical (description and comparison) methods of scientific research.

RESULTS

Teaching and learning methods are clearly aligned by the developers of the educational programs with the requirements of the Ministry of Education in order to acquire



the necessary competencies for the future specialists in Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics (Zhonghua renmin gongheguo jiaoyubu yuyan wenzi yingyong yunajiusuo, 2019).

All Chinese educational programs on Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics, teaching, learning and evaluation methods correspond to the specific professional development goals of future professionals by means of students' acquisition of academic and practical knowledge and skills during the learning process.

Students are supported by the departments with all the necessary information about aims of studying, directions of the research, training methods, teaching plans and credit requirements, content of disciplines and other detailed information about the training of masters of Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics (Zhongguo jiaoyu kaoshiwang, 2019).

Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics educational programs evaluate students' ability to analyze linguistic data, apply various methods of collecting such data, as well as understand linguistic concepts, theories, methods, the relationship between these aspects of linguistic science and the solution of specific linguistic problems. Evaluation methods are coherent and systematic with the goals of the educational programs. They are also innovative in development of the evaluation methods because the educational standard in linguistics does not restrict the developers of the programs to specific methods. A creative approach to applying the latest pedagogical and technological innovations will provide new opportunities for assessing student's educational abilities (Yu Genyuan, 2003; Yu Min, 2015).

Because of historical events across eras, different social and cultural backgrounds, research problems and indirect differences, scholars involved in researching teaching theory at different times in China and abroad have different definitions of the concept of "teaching method".

Professor Li Bingde (李秉德) classifies teaching methods according to the external form of teaching methods and corresponding characteristics of the students' cognitive activity. According to his classification teaching methods commonly used in teaching Foreign Languages and Applied Linguistics in Chinese universities are divided into five categories:

1) methods of the transmission of the information with the help of language (they include lectures, conversations, discussions, readings, etc.);

2) methods based on the direct perception (methods of demonstration, excursions, etc.);

3) practical-based methods that include practice, experiment and internships;

4) teaching methods based on evaluation of the activity, such as formation etc.;

5) an in-depth research method, such as a query method etc. (Li Bingde, 2001).

The classification of teaching methods made by the professor Huang Fyquan (黄甫全) is very important for our paper. Professor Huang Fyquan believes that from concrete to abstract teaching methods consist of two levels.

The first level consists of the basic teaching methods. Solving the direct connection between the rules of teaching, teaching of thoughts, new concepts of theory of teaching, and teaching practice is the result of teaching consciousness in teaching practice (heuristics, method of discovery, project method of teaching, dogmatic method, etc.).

The second level consists of the technical teaching methods. First, the direction of the principle teaching method is accepted, and then it is combined with the content of teaching different disciplines to form a functional teaching methodology (for example, lectures, interview method, demonstration method, experiment, practice, discussion, reading instructions, internships, etc.) (Huang Fuquan, 2019).

In the process of teaching at the magistracy in Chinese universities for the majors of "Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics" widespread use of methods is based on modern information technologies. Depending on the sensory perception of information, they can be divided into visual, auditory, audio-visual and interactive.



Modern information technologies allow to achieve such educational functions as, for example, reproduction, integration, interactive or virtual function.

Also, in China “Foreign language and Applied linguistics” is complemented by innovative teaching methods. These are the following methods:

1. Webinar – an online seminar that demonstrates benchmarks, presentations, videos, and more. With the help of Internet technologies, webinars have retained the main feature of the seminar – interactivity, which provides a simulation of the functions of the speaker, the listener, who will interact actively, communicating together under the scenario of such a seminar.

2. Computer project – independent creative scientific and practical work, performed under the guidance of the teacher, focused not so much on the integration of actual knowledge, as on its application and acquisition of new ones. The computer project reveals the essence of the problem under investigation, different points of view, as well as their own views on it. The content of the explanatory note of the computer project should be logical; presentation of the material is problematic and thematic; the topic is usually determined by the teacher, but the student can take the initiative in defining the topic.

3. A web quest – a website or assignment on the Internet that students work on while performing a particular learning task. The peculiarity of educational web quests is that some or all of the information for students' self-study or group work with them is on different websites. But the main task of a web quest is to work with information, not to search for it. In addition, the result of working with a web quest is the publication of students' works in the form of web pages and web sites (locally or on the Internet) within the framework of the linguistic problems studied and is to be exchanged in collaboration with other students.

4. Multimedia presentations of a web page, site, application are the means by which information is transmitted through video, audio, 3D models, graphics, animation, navigation, etc. This method is useful for students to acquire new knowledge, skills and abilities to create a multimedia product. The scope of multimedia presentation includes creating web pages or websites, developing slideshows, shooting, editing (Hefei gongye daxue waiguo yuyanxue ji yingyong yuyanxue zhuan ye xueshuxing shuoshi yanjiusheng peiyang fangan, 2018; Jiaoyubu renwen shehui kexue zhongdian yanjiu jidi Guangdong waiyu waimao da xue waiguo yuyanxue ji yingyong yuyanxue yanjiu zhongxin, 2019; Xi'an waiguoyu daxue waiguo yuyanxue ji yingyong yuyanxue zhuan ye xueshu xuewei yanjiusheng peiyang fangan, 2019).

After analysing curriculum of the Hefei technological university, we have seen that the developed educational program at “Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics” is aimed at providing students with excellent professional basic knowledge of Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics, good basic knowledge and skills in English language and culture, developing their communicative competence and ability to independently study and teach Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics (Hefei gongye daxue waiguo yuyanxue ji yingyong yuyanxue zhuan ye xueshuxing shuoshi yanjiusheng peiyang fangan, 2018).

As we can see the use of innovative teaching methods are useful for teaching almost all subjects. Nevertheless, despite advantages of using the Internet (free access to information, the use of various means of communication (visual, audio and other), a significant reduction in the workload of teachers), disadvantages should also be borne in mind (the spread of viruses, the reduction of student-teacher contact, as well as the Chinese specificity – “The Golden Shield Project” (Chinese 金盾工程, jīndùn gōngchéng), the unofficial name – “Great Chinese Firewall” (Firewall of China (Great Wall of China) is a



filtering system for Internet content in the PRC)). The teacher needs to be prepared to use only the sites available in the country, and keep in mind that not all electronic materials, such as textbooks of foreign origin, may be available.

Updating the content of education requires new forms and means of professional training for future specialists in Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics. In the papers of Chinese scientists, the main forms of organization of educational activities include lectures, seminars and various types of classes – group, individual, consultative, practical, independent and others.

We have studied main forms of the learning process used for the professional training of the masters of “Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics”. The research testifies that the methodology of conducting lectures for masters of “Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics” has its own peculiarities. Unlike our national trend of using explanatory and illustrative lectures, they use lectures-discussions, lectures of press conferences, video lectures, lectures-consultations and other types of lectures. This is due to the fact that while teaching scientific material to students, for example, in disciplines such as Applied Linguistics, Lexicology etc., the focus is on factual knowledge, as well as on engaging students to inspire them to study these sciences in-depth. Masters of “Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics” are required to record lectures. However, some lecture materials are distributed electronically by teachers. Recently, more and more teachers are moving to the electronic distribution of lecture material to students, enabling students to use the time of recording the lecture to solve seminar practical problems.

Seminars are a popular form of teaching Masters in Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics in Chinese universities. During the seminars, students are able to use both theoretical knowledge and professional practical skills. The main purpose of the seminar is to teach the student to work with a combination of knowledge of applied disciplines (Theoretical Linguistics, Statistics in Linguistics) with practical professional skills (practice in a second foreign language, sequential translation), use their knowledge in practice. Seminars have a different purpose, namely – summarizing the module learning, systematizing theoretical and practical knowledge during the final assessment.

In process of teaching Masters in Foreign Languages and Applied Linguistics at Chinese universities, a prominent place belongs to practical classes, which are held in different forms in accordance with the specific features of the disciplines. By the way, hands-on training is a method of reproductive learning that provides a connection between theory and practice facilitates students to acquire skills and knowledge by means of applying the knowledge obtained during lectures and independent work. Practical classes include not only general-purpose course exercises, but specialty classes, lab work, and foreign language learning assignments. This is usually a class to solve applied problems, examples of which were given at lectures. As a result, each student must develop a specific professional approach to each task and intuition. Students perform practical activities under the tutelage of a teacher (a qualified professor with at least five years’ experience). Various forms of practical classes are the most meaningful part of the educational process in higher education.

Other forms of teaching are tutorials, which are obligatory for students to attend. In China, the tutoring system has two components – curating and one’s own tutoring. Supervision can be administrative when a curator is assigned to a particular academic group. The curator takes part in the organization of the educational process and independent work of students, introduces them to the main normative documents and regulations, promotes the formation of professional orientation, motivation for future specialty, development of interest in a chosen profession.



Tutoring activity focuses on the problems of forming the personality of the undergraduate as a future professional, focuses on qualifications, mastering the necessary skills. Its task is to help with the formation of an individual lesson plan, its editing and supervision, consultation during the writing of a master's thesis, recommendations and observations during the implementation of scientific research.

Independent work of undergraduates is an important form of teaching. The number of hours of independent work is regulated by the curriculum and should be at least 1/3 and no more than 2/3 of the total amount of study time that has been allocated to study a particular subject. The content of independent work is largely determined by the curriculum, methodological materials and recommendations, program-pedagogical means of education and supervision. Organizing and providing the necessary conditions for independent work of students in special disciplines is a necessary element of training of future specialist (Gui Shichun, 1988; Xi'an waiguoyu daxue waiguo yuyanxue ji yingyong yuyanxue zhuanke shuoshi xuewei yanjiusheng peiyang fangan, 2019).

CONCLUSIONS

Thus, the results of our paper show us that the methods used in Chinese universities are teaching methods, learning methods, methods of collecting data etc. During the teaching at the magistracy of Chinese higher education institutions in the field of preparation "Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics", the widespread use of methods based on modern information technologies.

In the paper works of Chinese scientists, we can see that common forms used during the professional education are lectures, seminars and different types of classes – group, individual, consultative, practical, independent and other.

Thereby, the study of Chinese experience of creating and using various forms and methods of teaching undergraduates on Foreign language and Applied linguistics can be in use for Ukrainian specialists and researchers during the reforming of the educational process in domestic universities.

The study does not reveal the full essence of the problem and requires further analysis of the theoretical framework, namely, a thorough study of the content of Foreign Language and Applied linguistics education in Ukrainian universities in order to compare the Chinese and Ukrainian educational systems more profoundly.

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**ПРАВИЛА ОФОРМЛЕННЯ І ПОДАННЯ РУКОПИСІВ
(відповідно до міжнародних вимог)**

Проблематика статей журналу охоплює: теоретико-методологічні засади порівняльної педагогіки, сучасні стратегії і тенденції розвитку освіти, вирішення соціально-педагогічних проблем розвитку освітніх систем у **ЗАРУБІЖНОМУ ДОСВІДІ**.

Усі, хто бажає здійснити публікацію в журналі «Порівняльна професійна педагогіка», просимо подавати матеріали до **20 лютого/20 травня/1 вересня/20 листопада**.

Для публікації статті просимо надсилати:

- відомості про автора (ПІБ, місце роботи (назва і адреса), науковий ступінь, вчене звання, адреса для листування, електронна пошта; для аспірантів – ПІБ, місце навчання (назва і адреса), адреса для листування, електронна пошта);
- електронний варіант наукової статті.

ВАЖЛИВО!

Публікації в журналі «Порівняльна професійна педагогіка» здійснюються **АНГЛІЙСЬКОЮ МОВОЮ** (за бажанням автора публікуємо також україномовний варіант статті). Обсяг статті – **8–12** сторінок. Можна замовити переклад Вашої статті англійською мовою.

СТАТТІ, ЯКІ ПЕРЕКЛАДЕНІ ЗАСОБАМИ ОНЛАЙН-СЕРВІСІВ (НА ЗРАЗОК GOOGLE TRANSLATE), НЕВІДКОРИГОВАНІ, АБО НЕ ВІДПОВІДАЮТЬ ЧИННИМ ВИМОГАМ, ДО ДРУКУ НЕ ПРИЙМАЮТЬСЯ І НЕ ПОВЕРТАЮТЬСЯ!

Технічні характеристики: Microsoft Word, шрифт – Times New Roman; інтервал – 1,5; кегль – 14; відступ абзацу – 1,25 см; поля: ліворуч – 2,5 см; праворуч – 1,5 см; зверху – 2,5 см; знизу – 2,5 см.

Обов'язкові складники статті:

- **АНОТАЦІЯ / ABSTRACT** (обсягом **1800** друкованих знаків, **АНГЛІЙСЬКОЮ ТА УКРАЇНСЬКОЮ МОВАМИ**);
- **КЛЮЧОВІ СЛОВА / KEYWORDS** (не менше 8);
- **ВСТУП / INTRODUCTION** (постановка проблеми в загальному вигляді та її зв'язок із важливими науковими або практичними завданнями);
- **МЕТА ДОСЛІДЖЕННЯ / THE AIM OF THE STUDY**;
- **ТЕОРЕТИЧНА ОСНОВА ТА МЕТОДИ ДОСЛІДЖЕННЯ / THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH METHODS** (джерела, на які автор посилається в теоретичній основі дослідження, повинні бути представлені в **ЛІТЕРАТУРІ**; обов'язково вказати методи дослідження);
- **ВИКЛАД ОСНОВНОГО МАТЕРІАЛУ/RESULTS** (виклад основного матеріалу повинен бути чітким, інформативним і демонструвати власні результати дослідження авторів);
- **ВИСНОВКИ / CONCLUSIONS** (у висновках також слід вказати *перспективи подальших досліджень*);
- **ЛІТЕРАТУРА / REFERENCES** (не менше 10 джерел).



Вимоги до оформлення літератури в англійській статті викладені наприкінці інформаційного листа і повинні відповідати міжнародному стилю Американської психологічної асоціації (APA).

При оформленні бібліографічних посилань в україномовній статті слід дотримуватися «ДСТУ 8302:2015. Бібліографічне посилання. Загальні положення та правила складання», що набрав чинності 01.07.2016.

Зверніть увагу, що статті англійською мовою мають цифровий ідентифікатор DOI, який надається кожній статті редколегією журналу. Що стосується україномовних статей, автори повинні самостійно вказати УДК.

СТАТТІ ПРОХОДЯТЬ ПЕРЕВІРКУ В МІЖНАРОДНІЙ СИСТЕМІ АНТИПЛАГІАТ.

ЗА ДОСТОВІРНІСТЬ ВИКЛАДЕНИХ ФАКТІВ, ЦИТАТ І ПОСИЛАНЬ НЕСУТЬ ВІДПОВІДАЛЬНІСТЬ АВТОРИ.

Аспіранти подають статті з **рецензією наукового керівника**; автори без наукових ступенів – із рецензією доктора або кандидата наук із відповідної спеціальності.

Наукові праці докторів наук друкуються в журналі безкоштовно.

Оплата за статтю здійснюється після повідомлення редколегії про відповідність статті вимогам та дозволу до друку. Вартість публікації однієї сторінки – 80 грн.

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TRENDS IN INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN THE USA AND CANADA

ABSTRACT

This paper deals with foreign experience of implementing inclusive education for children with special educational needs in the United States and Canada. Legal documents on inclusive education in foreign countries have been analyzed. The most relevant topic of American and Canadian scholars' researches on reforming special education is related to integration, that is gradual transition from exclusion of children with special educational needs to inclusion in comprehensive schools. Based on the analysis of American and Canadian researches on inclusive education it has been concluded that the changes in legislation and education policies of North American countries aim to achieve the highest level of progress in regular education and special education. It has been found that the development of inclusive education in Canada has undergone and is significantly influenced by the American education system ... (1800 знаків)

Keywords: children with special educational needs, inclusion, inclusive education, inclusive learning, special education.

АНОТАЦІЯ

У статті проаналізовано зарубіжний досвід упровадження інклюзивного навчання для дітей з особливими освітніми потребами в США та Канаді. Схарактеризовано нормативно-правову основу у сфері інклюзивної освіти в зарубіжних країнах. Провідною темою в дослідженнях американських і канадських науковців стосовно реформування спеціальної освіти став рух у напрямі організації інклюзії, що передбачає поступовий перехід від ізоляції дітей з особливими освітніми потребами до включення їх у середовище закладів загальної середньої освіти ... (1800 знаків)

Ключові слова: діти з особливими освітніми потребами; інклюзія; інклюзивна освіта; інклюзивне навчання; спеціальна освіта.

INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, one can observe an increasing number of people who refuse to participate in social, political, economic and cultural life of their societies. Such a society is neither efficient nor safe. The first education for all movement originated after the conference on education for all was held in Jomtien, Thailand in 1990 ...



THE AIM OF THE STUDY

The paper aims to theoretically analyze the trends in development of inclusive education in the USA and Canada.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH METHODS

The origination and development of inclusive education in North American countries have been studied by S. Alokhina, J. Andrews (2000), V. Bondar, E. Danilavichutie, L. Danylenko, A. Gartner (1997), A. Kolupaieva (2009), O. Kryvonosova, D. Lipsky (1997), J. Lupart (2000; 2010), S. Lytovchenko, Yu. Naida, M. Orlansky, T. Sak (2010), L. Savchuk, N. Sofii, Ye. Synova, O. Taranchenko, C. Webber (2010), S. Wilks, M. Winser, V. Zasenکو et al. ...

RESULTS

Over the last few decades, developed countries have undergone significant changes in the attitude towards low-mobility groups of the population and providing quality educational services for children with special educational needs. Therefore, an inclusive model of education is becoming ever more acute. In view of the above, it is rather imperative to study foreign experience of those countries that have already achieved significant progress on this matter. Foreign law and inclusive practice are an important source of ideas about possible ways to solve the problems of implementing inclusive education in Ukraine ...

CONCLUSIONS

So, theoretical analysis of American and Canadian scientific literature proves that the changes in legislation and education policies of North American countries aim to achieve the highest level of educational progress in regular education and provide children with special educational needs with the opportunity to obtain special education ...

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ТЕНДЕНЦІЇ РОЗВИТКУ ІНКЛЮЗИВНОЇ ОСВІТИ В США ТА КАНАДІ

АНОТАЦІЯ

У статті проаналізовано зарубіжний досвід упровадження інклюзивного навчання для дітей з особливими освітніми потребами в США та Канаді. Схарактеризовано нормативно-правову основу у сфері інклюзивної освіти в зарубіжних країнах. Провідною темою в дослідженнях американських і канадських науковців стосовно реформування спеціальної освіти став рух у напрямі організації інклюзії, що передбачає поступовий перехід від ізоляції дітей з особливими освітніми потребами до включення їх у середовище закладів загальної середньої освіти ... (1800 знаків)

Ключові слова: діти з особливими освітніми потребами; інклюзія; інклюзивна освіта; інклюзивне навчання; спеціальна освіта.

ABSTRACT

This paper deals with foreign experience of implementing inclusive education for children with special educational needs in the United States and Canada. Legal documents on inclusive education in foreign countries have been analyzed. The most relevant topic of American and Canadian scholars' researches on reforming special education is related to integration, that is gradual transition from exclusion of children with special educational needs to inclusion in comprehensive schools. Based on the analysis of American and Canadian researches on inclusive education it has been concluded that the changes in legislation and education policies of North American countries aim to achieve the highest level of progress in regular education and special education. It has been found that the development of inclusive education in Canada has undergone and is significantly influenced by the American education system ... (1800 знаків)

Keywords: children with special educational needs, inclusion, inclusive education, inclusive learning, special education.

ВСТУП

Сьогодні перед світом постає проблема зростання кількості людей, які відірвані від активної участі в соціальному, політичному, економічному й культурному житті своїх суспільств. Таке суспільство не є ані ефективним, ані безпечним. Уперше рух за



освіту для всіх розпочався з моменту проведення конференції з освіти для всіх у Джомтєні (Таїланд) у 1990 році ...

МЕТА ДОСЛІДЖЕННЯ

Мета статті – теоретично проаналізувати тенденції розвитку інклюзивної освіти в США та Канаді.

ТЕОРЕТИЧНА ОСНОВА ТА МЕТОДИ ДОСЛІДЖЕННЯ

Становлення й розвиток інклюзивної освіти в країнах Північної Америки досліджували науковці С. Альохіна, Дж. Андрес (J. Andrews), В. Бондар, Ч. Веббер (C. Webber), С. Вілс (S. Wilks), М. Вінсер (M. Winser), А. Гартнер (A. Gartner), Л. Даниленко, Е. Данілавічюте, В. Засенко, А. Колупасва, О. Кривоносова, С. Литовченко, Д. Ліпскі (D. Lipsky), Дж. Лупарт (J. Lupart), Ю. Найда, М. Орланські (M. Orlandy), Л. Савчук, Т. Сак, Є. Синьова, Н. Софій, О. Таранченко та інші ...

ВИКЛАД ОСНОВНОГО МАТЕРІАЛУ

Останні десятиліття в розвинутих країнах світу відбулися суттєві зміни в ставленні до маломобільних груп населення й наданні якісних освітніх послуг для дітей з особливими освітніми потребами. Дедалі більшої динаміки набуває й інклюзивна модель освіти. Значущим аспектом стає вивчення іноземного досвіду країн, які крокують у цьому напрямку. Іноземне право та інклюзивна практика – важливі джерела ідей про можливі шляхи розв'язання проблем упровадження інклюзивної освіти в Україні ...

ВИСНОВКИ

Унаслідок аналізу американської та канадської наукової літератури підсумовано, що зміни в законодавстві й освітній політиці північноамериканських країн спрямовані на досягнення найвищої успішності всіх категорій дітей у загальній освіті та створення рівних можливостей здобувати освіту для всіх учнів – у спеціальній освіті ...

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**Приклади оформлення посилань та списку літератури
в англomовній статті згідно з вимогами міжнародного стилю
Американської психологічної асоціації (APA Style)**

APA стиль передбачає використання посилань у тексті роботи щоразу, коли ви цитуєте джерело, будь то парафраз, цитата всередині рядка чи блокова цитата.

Внутрішньотекстове посилання містить інформацію про: автора праці (редактора/укладача/назву цитованого джерела, якщо автор відсутній), що цитується, рік видання та сторінковий інтервал (номери сторінок, із яких взято цитату). Сторінковий інтервал дозволяється не вказувати, якщо ви не цитуєте, а висловлюєте якусь ідею чи посилаетесь на роботу в цілому.

Парафраз. Не береться в лапки. Прізвище(а) автора(ів) може з'явитися:

1) безпосередньо в реченні, тоді після нього в круглих дужках зазначається рік видання;

2) у дужках після парафразу разом із роком видання (через кому).

Наприклад:

The publishing process consists of several stages of editing (Tymoshyk, 2004).

У редакційно-видавничому процесі існує кілька етапів редагування (Тимошик, 2004).

According to M. Tymoshyk (2004), the publishing process consists of several stages of editing.

За Тимошиком (2004), у редакційно-видавничому процесі існує кілька етапів редагування.

Обидва посилання вказують на те, що інформація, яка міститься в реченні, може бути розташована у праці Тимошика, виданій 2004 року.

Більш розгорнута інформація про згадане джерело буде міститися у списку використаних джерел.

Цитата всередині рядка. Береться в лапки. Прізвище(а) автора(ів) може з'явитися:

1) безпосередньо в реченні, тоді після нього в круглих дужках зазначається рік видання, а після цитати в круглих дужках зазначається сторінковий інтервал;

2) у дужках після цитати разом із роком видання та сторінковим інтервалом (через кому).

Наприклад:

W. Wordsworth (2006) claimed that poetry was "the spontaneous overflow of powerful feelings" (p. 263).

Вордсворт (2006) заявив, що романтична поезія була відзначена як «спонтанний перелив сильних почуттів» (с. 263).

Poetry is "the spontaneous overflow of powerful feelings" (Wordsworth, 2006, p. 263).

Романтична поезія характеризується «спонтанним переливом сильних почуттів» (Вордсворт, 2006, с. 263).



Обидва посилання вказують на те, що інформація, яка міститься в реченні, розташована на сторінці 263 твору 2006 року, автором якого є Вордсворт. Більш розгорнуту інформацію про згадане джерело можна отримати зі списку використаних джерел.

Блокова цитата (складається із трьох і більше рядків). Подається в тексті з нового рядка з абзацним відступом для всієї цитати, не береться в лапки. Міжрядковий інтервал – подвійний. Після тексту цитати ставиться крапка і вказується вихідне джерело в дужках.

Наприклад:

In publishing, the concept of editing is primarily used to refer to types of work directly related to the activities of the press. Modern editing is associated with sociocultural professional activities aimed at analyzing and improving linguistic works during their preparation for reproduction by means of printing, or broadcast (Khoniu, 2006, p. 45).

У галузі видавничої справи поняття «редагування» насамперед використовується для позначення видів роботи, безпосередньо пов'язаних із діяльністю органів друку. Сучасне редагування належить до сфери суспільно-культурної професійної діяльності, що спрямована на аналіз і вдосконалення мовних творів під час їхньої підготовки до відтворення засобами поліграфії, або до трансляції (Хоню, 2006, с. 45).

Посилання на роботу кількох авторів (редакторів/укладачів)

Внутрішньотекстове посилання на роботу кількох авторів залежить від їх кількості:

1) 2–5 авторів. У внутрішньотекстовому посиланні необхідно перерахувати прізвища всіх авторів (через кому). Перед останнім автором пишеться знак «&», якщо автори перераховуються в дужках, або слово «та», якщо автори перераховуються в реченні, а рік видання та сторінковий інтервал у дужках.

Наприклад:

(Kernis, Cornell, Sun, Berry, & Harlow, 1993) *або* (Kernis, Cornell, Sun, Berry, & Harlow, 1993, p. 199)

Research findings by L. Boiko, S. Hrechka & N. Pavliuk (2010) prove ...

Результати дослідження Бойко, Гречки, та Павлюка (2010) підтверджують ...

або

L. Boiko, S. Hrechka & N. Pavliuk (2010) state, “Biology is a system of sciences...” (p. 5).

Л. Бойко, С. Гречка та Н. Поліщук (2010) стверджують: «Біологія – це система наук...» (с. 5).

2) 6 авторів і більше. У внутрішньотекстовому посиланні необхідно вказати прізвище першого автора і слово «та ін.».

(Jones et al., 1998) *або* (Jones et al., 1998, p. 7)

(Boiko et al., 2005) *або* (Boiko et al., 2005, p. 10)

Research findings by O. Velychko et al. (2014) prove ...

Результати дослідження О. Величко та ін. (2014) підтверджують ...



або

O. Velychko et al. (2014) indicate, “Biology is a system of sciences ...” (p. 10).
O. Величко та ін. (2005) стверджують: «Біологія – це система наук...» (с. 10).

Посилання на декілька робіт різних авторів (одночасно)

Якщо парафраз стосується кількох робіт різних авторів, тоді після парафразу необхідно вказати прізвище автора однієї книги і рік видання, після знаку «;» вказати прізвище автора другої книги і рік видання.

Наприклад:

Many researchers consider literary editing to be one of the most important stages of text processing (Feller, 2004; Rizun, 2002).

Чимало дослідників вважають літературне редагування одним із найважливіших етапів обробки тексту (Феллер, 2004; Різун, 2002).

Посилання на роботу невідомого автора

Якщо автора (редактора/укладача) праці встановити неможливо, слід процитувати джерело за його назвою або використати перші два слова в дужках. Назви книг і доповідей слід указати курсивом або підкреслити; назви статей, розділів і веб-сторінок узяти в лапки.

Наприклад:

A similar study was done of students learning to format research papers (“Using APA”, 2001).

Аналогічне опитування було проведено серед студентів, які вивчають формат наукових праць («Using APA», 2001).

Якщо автором виступає організація або державна установа, слід вказати назву цієї організації або взяти її у дужки, коли цитують уперше.

Наприклад:

According to the American Psychological Association (2000), ...

Згідно з вимогами Американської психологічної асоціації (2000), ...

Посилання на декілька робіт різних авторів з однаковими прізвищами

Якщо два або більше авторів мають однакові прізвища, у внутрішньотекстовому посиланні необхідно вказати також перші ініціали (або навіть повне ім'я, якщо різні автори мають однакові ініціали).

Наприклад:

There are different opinions on the effects of cloning (R. Miller, 2012; A. Miller, 2014).
Існують різні думки щодо наслідків клонування (Р. Міллер, 12; А. Міллер, 46).

While some medical ethicists argue that cloning will lead to ... (R. Miller, 2012), others point out that the benefits of medical researches deny such reasoning (A. Miller, 2014).

Хоча деякі медичні фахівці з етики стверджують, що клонування призведе до дизайнерських дітей (Р. Міллер, 2012), інші відзначають, що переваги медичних досліджень перевершують це міркування (А. Міллер, 2014).

Упорядкування списку використаних джерел

Список використаних джерел подається після основного тексту статті і повинен містити інформацію, необхідну для того, щоб знайти й отримати будь-яке



процитоване джерело. Кожне процитоване в роботі джерело повинно з'явитися у списку використаних джерел. Відповідно, кожен запис у списку використаних джерел повинен бути згаданим у тексті роботи.

Цитований матеріал подається в алфавітному порядку за прізвищем автора (редактора/укладача, якщо немає автора). Якщо матеріал не має автора, його необхідно розподілити за першою літерою його назви.

Якщо в бібліографічному описі зазначено кілька робіт одного й того ж автора, редактора або упорядника, тоді записи розташовуються за роками видання в порядку зростання.

Правила бібліографічного опису для списку використаних джерел

Якщо в публікації зазначено не більше семи авторів (редакторів/укладачів, якщо книга без автора), то в посиланні необхідно вказати усіх авторів.

Якщо в публікації зазначено вісім та більше авторів (редакторів/укладачів), у посиланні необхідно перерахувати імена перших шести авторів, а потім вставити три крапки (...) та додати ім'я останнього автора.

Назви книг, журналів зазначаються без скорочень.

1. Книга: 1–7 авторів

Прізвище¹, Ініціали¹, Прізвище², Ініціали², Прізвище³, Ініціали³, Прізвище⁴, Ініціали⁴, Прізвище⁵, Ініціали⁵, Прізвище⁶, Ініціали⁶, & Прізвище⁷, Ініціали⁷. (Рік). *Назва книги: Підназва* (номер видання). Місце видання: Видавництво.

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2. Книга: 8 і більше авторів

Прізвище¹, Ініціали¹, Прізвище², Ініціали², Прізвище³, Ініціали³, Прізвище⁴, Ініціали⁴, Прізвище⁵, Ініціали⁵, Прізвище⁶, Ініціали⁶ ... Прізвище останнього автора, Ініціали. (Рік). *Назва книги: Підназва* (номер видання). Місце видання: Видавництво.

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