

**НАЦІОНАЛЬНА АКАДЕМІЯ ПЕДАГОГІЧНИХ НАУК УКРАЇНИ
ДЗВО «УНІВЕРСИТЕТ МЕНЕДЖМЕНТУ ОСВІТИ»**

**НАВЧАЛЬНО-НАУКОВИЙ ІНСТИТУТ МЕНЕДЖМЕНТУ ТА ПСИХОЛОГІЇ
Кафедра педагогіки, адміністрування і спеціальної освіти**

ЗАТВЕРДЖЕНО

вченою радою ННІМП ДЗВО
«Університет менеджменту освіти»
11 вересня 2025 року, протокол № 7
Голова вченої ради ННІМП ДЗВО
»Університет менеджменту освіти»



В. В. Супрун

В. В. Супрун

**ІНОЗЕМНА МОВА ЗА ПРОФЕСІЙНИМ
СПРЯМУВАННЯМ**

**РОБОЧА ПРОГРАМА
навчальної дисципліни**

(ОК10 – - дисципліна циклу обов'язкових освітніх компонент)

Рівень вищої освіти: другий (магістерський)

Галузь знань: А Освіта

Спеціальність: А1 Освітні науки

Кваліфікація: магістр освітніх, педагогічних наук

Київ 2025

Робоча програма навчальної дисципліни «Іноземна мова за професійним спрямуванням» складена відповідно до навчального плану освітньо-професійної програми «Педагогіка вищої школи. Андрагогіка» спеціальності А1 Освітні науки галузі знань А Освіта.

Автор-укладач робочої програми навчальної дисципліни

В. М. Івкін, к.психол.н., доцент, доцент кафедри публічного управління і проектного менеджменту менеджменту Навчально-наукового інституту менеджменту та психології ДЗВО «Університет менеджменту освіти»

Розглянуто і схвалено на засіданні кафедри
педагогіки, адміністрування і спеціальної освіти
Навчально-наукового інституту менеджменту та психології
ДЗВО «Університет менеджменту освіти»
(протокол № 1 від 3 вересня 2025 р.)

Затверджено вченою радою
Навчально-наукового інституту менеджменту та психології
ДЗВО «Університет менеджменту освіти»
(протокол № 7 від 11 вересня 2025 р.)

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1.Опис навчальної дисципліни

| <i>Найменування показників</i> | <i>Галузь знань, освітній рівень, спеціальність</i> | <i>Характеристика навчальної дисципліни</i> |
|---|---|--|
| | | <i>заочна форма навчання</i> |
| Кількість кредитів, відповідних ECTS – 4 | Галузь знань: 01 Освіта/Педагогіка Спеціальність: 011 Освітні, педагогічні науки Освітньо-професійна програма: Педагогіка вищої школи. Андрагогіка | Навчальна дисципліна циклу обов'язкових освітніх компонентів |
| | | Рік підготовки 1 |
| Загальна кількість годин – 120 | Рівень вищої освіти: другий (магістерський) | Семестр 1 |
| | | Лекції 4 |
| | | Практичні, семінарські 4 |
| | | Самостійна робота 112 |
| | | Вид контролю екзамен |

Примітка: співвідношення кількості годин аудиторних занять до самостійної та індивідуальної роботи становить – 12 % : 88 %.

2. Мета та завдання навчальної дисципліни

Метою викладання навчальної дисципліни «Іноземна мова за професійним спрямуванням» є формування необхідної комунікативної спроможності в сферах професійного та ситуативного спілкування в усній і письмовій формах, навичок практичного володіння іноземною мовою в різних видах мовленнєвої діяльності в обсязі тематики, що обумовлена професійними потребами; оволодіння новітньою фаховою інформацією через іноземні джерела.

Основними завданнями вивчення дисципліни «Іноземна мова за професійним спрямуванням» є розвиток та удосконалення різних видів мовленнєвої діяльності: аудіювання, говоріння, діалогічного мовлення, читання, письма та перекладу.

Здобувачі вищої освіти мають набути **загальних компетентностей:**

ЗК4. Здатність вчитися і оволодівати сучасними знаннями.

ЗК5. Здатність до адаптації та дії в новій ситуації.

ЗК7. Здатність до міжособистісної взаємодії.

ЗК9. Здатність працювати в міжнародному контексті.

В процесі вивчення навчальної дисципліни здобувачі вищої освіти мають набути також певних спеціальних (**фахових**) **компетентностей**:

СК2. Здатність застосовувати та розробляти нові підходи до вирішення задач дослідницького та/або інноваційного характеру в сфері освіти й педагогіки.

СК4. Здатність здійснювати експертизу та надавати консультації з питань освітньої політики та інновацій в освіті.

СК12. Здатність до формування культури навчання впродовж життя.

Програмні результати навчання:

РН 4. Вільно спілкуватися державною та іноземною мовами усно і письмово для обговорення результатів освітньої, професійної діяльності, презентації наукових досліджень та інноваційних проєктів.

РН14. Формувати культуру навчання впродовж життя.

3. ПРОГРАМА НАВЧАЛЬНОЇ ДИСЦИПЛІНИ

Тема 1 Phonetics. Sounds absent in Ukrainian. Rhythmic characteristics. Word order. Text: EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. General Information

Тема 2 Modal verbs. Irregular verbs. Text: EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. 19th century

Тема 3 Simple (indefinite) tenses: formation, usage. Text: EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. 20th century

Тема 4 Continuous (progressive) tenses: formation, usage. Text: EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. 21st century

Тема 5 Perfect tenses: formation, usage. Text: EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. Educational stages

Тема 6 Phrasal verbs. Text: EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

Тема 7 Sequence of tenses. Indirect speech. Text: K–12 EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. Part 1

Тема 8 Conditionals. Text: K–12 EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. Part 2

Тема 9 Conditionals (Continued). Text: HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

4. СТРУКТУРА НАВЧАЛЬНОЇ ДИСЦИПЛІНИ

Заочна форма

| Назви змістових модулів і тем | Кількість годин | | | |
|--|-----------------|--------------|--------|------|
| | Усього | у тому числі | | |
| | | л | практ. | с/р |
| Тема 1. Phonetics. Sounds absent in Ukrainian. Rhythmic characteristics. Word order. Text: <i>EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. General Information</i> | 13 | 0,5 | 0,5 | 12 |
| Тема 2. Modal verbs. Irregular verbs. Text: <i>EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. 19th century</i> | 13 | 0,5 | 0,5 | 12 |
| Тема 3. Simple (indefinite) tenses: formation, usage. Text: <i>EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. 20th century</i> | 13 | 0,5 | 0,5 | 12 |
| Тема 4. Continuous (progressive) tenses: formation, usage. Text: <i>EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. 21st century</i> | 13 | 0,5 | 0,5 | 12 |
| Тема 5. Perfect tenses: formation, usage. Text: <i>EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. Educational stages</i> | 13 | 0,5 | 0,5 | 11,5 |
| Тема 6. Phrasal verbs. Text: <i>EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES</i> | 13 | 0,5 | - | 12 |

| | | | | |
|--|------------|------------|------------|-------------|
| Тема 7. Sequence of tenses. Indirect speech. Text: <i>K–12 EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. Part 1</i> | 13 | 1 | 0,5 | 11,5 |
| Тема 8. Conditionals. Text: <i>K–12 EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. Part 2</i> | 13 | 0,5 | 0,5 | 12 |
| Тема 9. Conditionals (Continued). Text: <i>HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES</i> | 16 | 0,5 | 0,5 | 15 |
| Разом | 120 | 4 | 4 | 112 |

5. Теми лекційних занять

| № з/п | Назва теми | Кількість годин |
|---------------|--|-----------------|
| 1 | Тема 1. Phonetics. Sounds absent in Ukrainian. Rhythmic characteristics. Word order. Text: <i>EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. General Information</i> | 0,5 |
| 2 | Тема 2. Modal verbs. Irregular verbs. Text: <i>EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. 19th century</i> | 0,5 |
| 3 | Тема 3. Simple (indefinite) tenses: formation, usage. Text: <i>EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. 20th century</i> | 0,5 |
| 4 | Тема 4. Continuous (progressive) tenses: formation, usage. Text: <i>EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. 21st century</i> | 0,5 |
| 5 | Тема 5. Perfect tenses: formation, usage. Text: <i>EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. Educational stages</i> | 0,5 |
| 6 | Тема 6. Phrasal verbs. Text: <i>EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES</i> | 0,5 |
| 7 | Тема 7 Sequence of tenses. Indirect speech. Text: <i>K–12 EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. Part 1</i> | 1 |
| 8 | Тема 8. Conditionals. Text: <i>K–12 EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. Part 2</i> | 0,5 |
| 9 | Тема 9. Conditionals (Continued). Text: <i>HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES</i> | 0,5 |
| Всього | | 4 |

Плани лекційних занять

Тема 1. Phonetics. Sounds absent in Ukrainian. Rhythmic characteristics. Word order. Clauses (affirmative, negative, questions).

EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. General Information

In the United States, education is provided in public and private schools and by individuals through homeschooling. State governments set overall educational standards, often mandate standardized tests for K–12 public school systems and supervise, usually through a board of regents, state colleges, and universities. The bulk of the \$1.3 trillion in funding comes from state and local governments, with federal funding accounting for about \$260 billion in 2021 compared to around \$200 billion in past years.

Private schools are free to determine their own curriculum and staffing policies, with voluntary accreditation available through independent regional accreditation authorities, although some state regulation can apply.

As of 2013, about 87% of school-age children attended state-funded public schools, about 10% attended tuition and foundation-funded private schools, and roughly 3% were home-schooled.

Total expenditures for American public elementary and secondary schools amounted to \$927 billion in 2020–21 (in constant 2021–22 dollars).

By state law, education is compulsory over an age range starting between five and eight and ending somewhere between ages sixteen and nineteen, depending on the state. This requirement can be satisfied in public or state-certified private schools, or an approved home school program. Compulsory education is divided into three levels: elementary school, middle or junior high school, and high school.

Numerous publicly and privately administered colleges and universities offer a wide variety of post-secondary education. Post-secondary education is divided into college, as the first tertiary degree, and graduate school. Higher education includes public and private research universities, usually private liberal arts colleges, community colleges, for-profit colleges, and many other kinds and combinations of institutions. College enrollment rates in the United States have increased over the long term. At the same time, student loan debt has also risen to \$1.5 trillion.

The large majority of the world's top universities, as listed by various ranking organizations, are in the United States, including 19 of the top 25, and the most prestigious – Harvard University. The country placed first in the annual U.S. News & World Report Best Countries for Education rankings. The U.S. has by far the most Nobel Prize winners in history, with 403 (having won 406 awards).

In 2010, the United States had a higher combined per-pupil spending for primary, secondary, and post-secondary education than any other OECD country (which overlaps with almost all of the countries designated as being developed by the International Monetary Fund and the United Nations) and the U.S. education sector consumed a greater percentage of the U.S. gross domestic product (GDP) than the average OECD country. In 2014, the country spent 6.2% of its GDP on all levels of education—1.0 percentage points above the OECD average of 5.2%. In 2018, primary and secondary per-pupil spending in the United States was 34 percent higher than the OECD average (ranking 5th of 36 countries reporting data), post-secondary per-pupil spending was double the OECD average (ranking 2nd), and the U.S. education sector consumed 6 percent of the U.S. GDP (ranking 6th).

From 1960 through 2017, per-pupil spending in public kindergartens, primary schools, and secondary schools increased in inflation-adjusted terms from \$3,793 to \$14,439. From 1950 through 2015, student-teacher and student-nonteaching staff ratios in public kindergartens, primary schools, and secondary schools declined from 27.5 students per teacher and 65 students per nonteaching staff member in 1950 to 16.1 students per teacher and 16.1 students per nonteaching staff member in 2015 (with nonteaching staffing increasing by 709%), while teacher salaries declined by 2% in inflation-adjusted terms from 1992 to 2015. From 1976 to 2018, enrollment at post-secondary institutions increased by 78% and full-time faculty employed increased by 92%, while full-time administrators employed increased by 164% and other non-faculty staffing increased by 452%, and non-instructional spending increased by 48% from 2010 to 2018 while instructional spending increased by 17%.

Enrollment in post-secondary institutions in the United States declined from 18.1 million in 2010 to 15.4 million in 2021, while enrollment in public kindergartens, primary schools, and secondary schools declined by 4% from 2012 to 2022 and enrollment in private schools or charter schools for the same age levels increased by 2% each.

In 2014, the Economist Intelligence Unit rated U.S. education as 14th best in the world. The Programme for International Student Assessment coordinated by the OECD currently ranks the overall knowledge and skills of American 15-year-olds as 19th in the world in reading literacy, mathematics, and science with the average American student scoring 495, compared with the OECD Average of 488. In 2017, 46.4% of Americans aged 25 to 64 attained some form of post-secondary education. 48% of Americans aged 25 to 34 attained some form of tertiary education,

about 4% above the OECD average of 44%. 35% of Americans aged 25 and over have achieved a bachelor's degree or higher.

Тема 2. Modal verbs. Irregular verbs.

EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. 19th century

New England encouraged its towns to support free public schools funded by taxation. In the early 19th century, Massachusetts took the lead in education reform and public education with programs designed by Horace Mann that were widely emulated across the North. Teachers were specially trained in normal schools and taught the three Rs (reading, writing, and arithmetic) and also history and geography. Public education was at the elementary level in most places.

After the Civil War end in 1865, cities began building high schools. The South was far behind northern standards on every educational measure and gave weak support to its segregated all-black schools. However, northern philanthropy and northern churches provided assistance to private black colleges across the South. Religious denominations across the country set up their private colleges. States also opened state universities, but they were quite small until well into the 20th century.

In 1823, Samuel Read Hall founded the first normal school, the Columbian School in Concord, Vermont, aimed at improving the quality of the burgeoning common school system by producing more qualified teachers.

During Reconstruction, the United States Office of Education was created in an attempt to standardize educational reform across the country. At the outset, the goals of the Office were to track statistical data on schools and provide insight into the educational outcomes of schools in each state. While supportive of educational improvement, the office lacked the power to enforce policies in any state. Educational aims across the states in the nineteenth century were broad, making it difficult to create shared goals and priorities. States like Massachusetts, with long-established educational institutions, had well-developed priorities in place by the time the Office of Education was established. In the South and the West, however, newly formed common school systems had different needs and priorities. Competing interests among state legislators limited the ability of the Office of Education to enact change.

In the mid-19th century, the rapidly increasing Catholic population led to the formation of parochial schools in the largest cities. Theologically oriented Episcopalian, Lutheran, and Jewish bodies on a smaller scale set up their own parochial schools. There were debates over whether tax money could be used to support them, with the answer typically being no. From about 1876, thirty-nine states passed a constitutional amendment to their state constitutions, called Blaine Amendment after James G. Blaine, one of their chief promoters, forbidding the use of public tax money to fund local parochial schools.

States passed laws to make schooling compulsory between 1852 (Massachusetts) and 1917 (Mississippi). They also used federal funding designated by the Morrill Land-Grant Acts of 1862 and 1890 to set up land grant colleges specializing in agriculture and engineering. By 1870, every state had free elementary schools, albeit only in urban centers. According to a 2018 study in the *Economic Journal*, states were more likely to adopt compulsory education laws during the Age of Mass Migration (1850–1914) if they hosted more European immigrants with lower exposure to civic values.

Following Reconstruction, the Tuskegee Normal and Industrial Institute was founded in 1881 as a state college, in Tuskegee, Alabama, to train "Colored Teachers," led by Booker T. Washington, (1856–1915), who was himself a freed slave. His movement spread, leading many other Southern states to establish small colleges for "Colored or Negro" students entitled "A. & M." ("Agricultural and Mechanical") or "A. & T." ("Agricultural and Technical"), some of which later developed into state universities. Before the 1940s, there were very few black students at private or state colleges in the North and almost none in the South.

Responding to the many competing academic philosophies being promoted at the time, an influential working group of educators, known as the Committee of Ten and established in 1892 by

the National Education Association, recommended that children should receive twelve years of instruction, consisting of eight years of elementary education (in what were also known as "grammar schools") followed by four years in high school ("freshmen", "sophomores", "juniors" and "seniors").

Gradually by the late 1890s, regional associations of high schools, colleges and universities were being organized to coordinate proper accrediting standards, examinations, and regular surveys of various institutions in order to assure equal treatment in graduation and admissions requirements, as well as course completion and transfer procedures.

Tema 3. Present (indefinite) tenses: formation, usage.

EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. 20th century

By 1910, 72% of children were attending school. Between 1910 and 1940 the high school movement resulted in a rapid increase in public high school enrollment and graduations. By 1930, 100% of children were attending school, excluding children with significant disabilities or medical concerns.

Private schools spread during this time, as well as colleges and, in the rural centers, land grant colleges. In 1922, an attempt was made by the voters of Oregon to enact the Oregon Compulsory Education Act, which would require all children between the ages of 8 and 16 to attend public schools, only leaving exceptions for mentally or physically unfit children, exceeding a certain living distance from a public school, or having written consent from a county superintendent to receive private instruction. The law was passed by popular vote but was later ruled unconstitutional by the United States Supreme Court in *Pierce v. Society of Sisters*, determining that "a child is not a mere creature of the state". This case settled the dispute about whether or not private schools had the right to do business and educate within the United States.

By 1938, there was a movement to bring education to six years of elementary school, four years of junior high school, and four years of high school.

During World War II, enrollment in high schools and colleges plummeted as many high school and college students and teachers dropped out to enlist or take war-related jobs.

The 1946 National School Lunch Act provided low-cost or free school lunch meals to qualified low-income students through subsidies to schools based on the idea that a "full stomach" during the day supports class attention and studying.

The 1954 Supreme Court case *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas* made racial desegregation of public elementary and high schools mandatory, although white families often attempted to avoid desegregation by sending their children to private secular or religious schools. In the years following this decision, the number of Black teachers rose in the North but dropped in the South.

In 1965, the far-reaching Elementary and Secondary Education Act ('ESEA'), passed as a part of President Lyndon B. Johnson's War on poverty, provided funds for primary and secondary education ('Title I funding'). Title VI explicitly forbade the establishment of a national curriculum. Title IV of the Higher Education Act of 1965 created the Pell Grant program which provides financial support to students from low-income families to access higher education.

In 1975, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act established funding for special education in schools.

The Higher Education Amendments of 1972 made changes to the Pell Grant. The 1975 Education for All Handicapped Children Act (EHA) required all public schools accepting federal funds to provide equal access to education and one free meal a day for children with physical and mental disabilities. The 1983 National Commission on Excellence in Education report, famously titled *A Nation at Risk*, touched off a wave of federal, state, and local reform efforts, but by 1990 the country still spent only 2% of its budget on education, compared with 30% on support for the elderly. In 1990, the EHA was replaced with the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), which placed more focus on students as individuals, and also provided for more post-high school transition services.

Tema 4. Continuous (progressive) tenses: formation, usage.

EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. 21st century

The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, passed by a bipartisan coalition in Congress, provided federal aid to the states in exchange for measures to penalize schools that were not meeting the goals as measured by standardized state exams in mathematics and language skills. This made standardized testing a requirement. In the same year, the U.S. Supreme Court diluted some of the century-old "Blaine" laws upheld an Ohio law allowing aid to parochial schools under specific circumstances. The 2006 Commission on the Future of Higher Education evaluated higher education. In December 2015, then-American President Barack Obama signed legislation replacing No Child Left Behind with the Every Student Succeeds Act.

The Great Recession of 2007–2009 was caused a sharp decline in tax revenues in all American states and cities. The response included cuts to education budgets. Obama's \$800 billion stimulus package of 2009 included \$100 billion for public schools, which every state used to protect its education budget. In terms of sponsoring innovation; however, then-President Obama and then-Education Secretary Arne Duncan pursued K-12 education reform through the Race to the Top grant program. With over \$15 billion of grants at stake, 34 states quickly revised their education laws according to the proposals of advanced educational reformers. In the competition, points were awarded for allowing charter schools to multiply, for compensating teachers on a merit basis including student test scores, and for adopting higher educational standards.

There were incentives for states to establish college and career-ready standards, which in practice meant adopting the Common Core State Standards Initiative that had been developed on a bipartisan basis by the National Governors Association, and the Council of Chief State School Officers. The criteria were not mandatory, they were incentives to improve opportunities to get a grant. Most states revised their laws accordingly, even though they realized it was unlikely they would win a highly competitive new grant. Race to the Top had strong bipartisan support, with centrist elements from both parties. It was opposed by the left wing of the Democratic Party, and by the right wing of the Republican Party, and criticized for centralizing too much power in Washington. Complaints also came from middle-class families, who were annoyed at the increasing emphasis on teaching to the test, rather than encouraging teachers to show creativity and stimulating students' imagination. Voters in both major parties have been critical of the Common Core initiative.

Tema 5. Perfect tenses: formation, usage.

EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. Educational stages

Formal education in the U.S. is divided into a number of distinct educational stages. Most children enter the public education system around the age of five or six. Children are assigned to year groups known as grades.

The American school year traditionally begins at the end of August or early in September, after a traditional summer vacation or break. Children customarily advance together from one grade to the next as a single cohort or "class" upon reaching the end of each school year in late May or early June.

Depending upon their circumstances, children may begin school in pre-kindergarten, kindergarten, or first grade. Students normally attend 12 grades of study over 12 calendar years of primary/elementary and secondary education before graduating and earning a diploma that makes them eligible for admission to higher education. Education is mandatory until age 16 (18 in some states).

In the U.S., ordinal numbers (e.g., first grade) are used for identifying grades. Typical ages and grade groupings in contemporary, public, and private schools may be found through the U.S.

Department of Education. Generally, there are three stages: elementary school (grades K/1–2/3/4/5/6), intermediate school (3/4–5/6), middle school / junior high school (grades 5/6/7–8/9), and high school / senior high school (grades 9/10–12). There is variability in the exact arrangement of grades, as the following table indicates. Note that many people may not choose to attain higher education immediately after high school graduation, so the age of completing each level of education may vary. The table below shows the traditional education path of a student completing an undergraduate degree immediately after high school.

In K–12 education, sometimes students who receive failing grades are held back a year and repeat coursework in the hope of earning satisfactory scores on the second try.

High school graduates sometimes take one or more gap years before the first year of college, for travel, work, public service, or independent learning. Some might opt for a postgraduate year before college. Many high schoolers also earn an associate degree when they graduate high school.

Many undergraduate college programs now commonly are five-year programs. This is especially common in technical fields, such as engineering. The five-year period often includes one or more periods of internship with an employer in the chosen field.

Some undergraduate institutions offer an accelerated three-year bachelor's degree, or a combined five-year bachelor's and master's degrees. Many times, these accelerated degrees are offered online or as evening courses and are targeted mainly but not always for adult learners/nontraditional students.

Many graduate students do not start professional schools immediately after finishing undergraduate studies but work for a time while saving up money or deciding on a career direction.

The National Center for Education Statistics found that in 1999–2000, 73% of undergraduates had characteristics of nontraditional students.

Tema 6. Phrasal verbs.

EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

Early childhood education in the United States relates to the teaching of children (formally and informally) from birth up to the age of eight. The education services are delivered via preschools and kindergartens.

History

Early childhood education, in its professional form, emerges in the United States in the early 20th century. In 1926, the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAYEC) was founded, and is still active today. Around this time, we also see the inception of development education standards along with teacher training programs.

In the 1930s and 1940s we see more government intervention: the implementation of the New Deal and the Lanham Act led to financial investment in early childhood education programs. This is also when we see the implementation of the Head Start program, which is focused on providing low-income children with early childhood education services.

Erik Erikson

American psychoanalyst Erik Erikson first used the phrase "early childhood education" in the 1950s. In Erikson's understanding, early childhood education focuses on what teachers and guardians think is best for children, and not what state or federal governments legislate for children. Erikson believed that if adequate academic support was provided in the early years of a child's life then they would have a much more positive learning experience in later adolescence. This insight informs all early childhood education in the United States.

Maria Montessori

Italian educator Maria Montessori was an innovator and physician, best known for her educational method that relied upon following how children naturally learn. This educational method emphasizes self-paced learning and individualized instruction for each child. While a

Montessori education can be applied at any age, we see this method of learning applied frequently at different stages of early childhood education throughout the United States.

Unlike other areas of education, early childhood care and education (ECCE) places a strong emphasis on the development of the whole child – attending to his or her social, emotional, cognitive, and physical needs – in order to establish a solid and broad foundation for lifelong learning and well-being. "Care" includes health, nutrition, and hygiene in a warm, secure, and nurturing environment, and "education" includes stimulation, socialization, guidance, participation, learning, and developmental activities. Most of these ECCE programs have an emphasis on learning by play. ECCE begins at birth and can be organized in a variety of non-formal, formal and informal modalities, such as parenting education, health-based mother and child intervention, care institutions, child-to-child programs, home-based or center-based , kindergartens and pre-schools. The whole goal of ECCE programs is to prepare the children for school, and many professionals believe this starts in the crib until the child is in school. Different terms to describe ECCE are used by different countries, institutions, and stakeholders, such as early childhood development (ECD), early childhood education and care (ECEC), and early childhood care and development (ECCD), with Early Childhood Care and Education as the nomenclature.

As research shows, children's care and educational needs are intertwined. Poor care, health, nutrition, and physical and emotional security can affect educational potentials in the form of mental retardation, impaired cognitive and behavioral capacities, motor development delay, depression, and difficulties with concentration and attention. Inversely, early health and nutrition interventions, such as iron supplementation, deworming treatment and school feeding, have been shown to directly contribute to increased pre-school attendance. Studies have demonstrated better child outcomes through the combined intervention of cognitive stimulation and nutritional supplementation than through either cognitive stimulation or nutritional supplementation alone. Quality ECCE is one that integrates educational activities, nutrition, health care and social services.

Decades of research provide unequivocal evidence that public investment in early childhood care and education can produce economic returns equal to roughly 10 times its costs. The sources of these gains are (1) childcare that enables mothers to work and (2) education and other supports for child development that increase subsequent school success, labor force productivity, prosocial behavior, and health. The benefits from enhanced child development are the largest part of the economic return, but both are important considerations in policy and program design. The economic consequences include reductions in public and private expenditures associated with school failure, crime, and health problems as well as increases in earnings.

Тема 7. Sequence of tenses. Indirect speech.

K–12 EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. Part 1

K–12 education in the United States includes primary education starting in kindergarten, and secondary education ending in grade 12. Government-funded free schools are generally provided for these grades, but private schools and homeschooling are also possible. Most children begin elementary education with kindergarten (usually five to six years old) and finish secondary education with twelfth grade (usually 17–18 years old). In some cases, pupils may be promoted beyond the next regular grade. Parents may also choose to educate their own children at home; 1.7% of children are educated in this manner.

In 2010, American students ranked 17th in the world. The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) says that this is due to focusing on the low end of performers. All of the recent gains have been made, deliberately, at the low end of the socioeconomic scale and among the lowest achievers.

About half of the states encourage schools to make their students recite the Pledge of Allegiance to the flag daily.

Primary education

Historically, in the United States, local public control (and private alternatives) have allowed for some variation in the organization of schools. Elementary school includes kindergarten through fifth grade or sixth grade (sometimes to fourth grade or eighth grade). Basic subjects are taught in elementary school, and students often remain in one classroom throughout the school day, except for specialized programs, such as physical education, library, music, and art classes. There are (as of 2001) about 3.6 million children in each grade in the United States.

Typically, the curriculum in public elementary education is determined by individual school districts or county school system. The school district selects curriculum guides and textbooks that reflect a state's learning standards and benchmarks for a given grade level. The most recent curriculum that has been adopted by most states is Common Core. Learning Standards are the goals by which states and school districts must meet adequate yearly progress (AYP) as mandated by No Child Left Behind (NCLB). This description of school governance is simplistic at best, however, and school systems vary widely not only in the way curricular decisions are made but also in how teaching and learning take place. Some states or school districts impose more top-down mandates than others. In others, teachers play a significant role in curriculum design and there are few top-down mandates. Curricular decisions within private schools are often made differently from in public schools, and in most cases without consideration of NCLB.

Public elementary school teachers typically instruct between twenty and thirty students. A typical classroom will include children with a range of learning needs or abilities, from those identified as having special needs of the kinds listed in the Individuals with Disabilities Act IDEA to those that are cognitively, athletically or artistically disabled. At times, an individual school district identifies areas of need within the curriculum. Teachers and advisory administrators form committees to develop supplemental materials to support learning for diverse learners and to identify enrichment for textbooks. There are special education teachers working with the identified students. Many school districts post information about the curriculum and supplemental materials on websites for public access.

In general, a student learns basic arithmetic and sometimes rudimentary algebra in mathematics, English proficiency (such as basic grammar, spelling, and vocabulary), and fundamentals of other subjects. Learning standards are identified for all areas of a curriculum by individual States, including those for mathematics, social studies, science, physical development, the fine arts, and reading. While the concept of State Learning standards has been around for some time, No Child Left Behind has mandated that standards exist at the State level.

Secondary education is often divided into two phases, middle/junior high school and high school. Students in secondary schools often move to different classrooms for different subjects, and some schools enable some choice regarding what courses the student takes, though these choices are limited by factors such as governmental curriculum requirements.

"Middle school" (or "junior high school") has a variable range between districts. It usually includes sixth, seventh, and eighth grades (or other times only seventh and eighth), occasionally also includes ninth, and very occasionally fifth grades as well. High school (occasionally senior high school) includes grades 9 through 12. Students in these grades are commonly referred to as freshmen (grade 9), sophomores (grade 10), juniors (grade 11), and seniors (grade 12). At the high school level, students generally take a broad variety of classes without specializing in any particular subject. Students are generally required to take a broad range of mandatory subjects, but may choose additional subjects ("electives") to fill out their required hours of learning. High school grades normally are included in a student's official transcript for purposes such as college applications. Official transcripts usually include the ninth grade, whether it is taught in a middle school or a high school.

Tracking (streaming)

Tracking is the practice of dividing students at the primary or secondary school level into classes on the basis of ability or achievement. One common use is to offer different curricula for

students preparing for college and for those preparing for direct entry into technical schools or the workplace.

Grading scale

In schools in the United States children are assessed throughout the school year by their teachers, and report cards are issued to parents at varying intervals. Generally, the scores for individual assignments and tests are recorded for each student in a grade book, along with the maximum number of points for each assignment. End-of-term or -year evaluations are most frequently given in the form of a letter grade on an A-F scale, whereby A is the best possible grade and F is a failing grade (most schools do not include the letter E in the assessment scale), or a numeric percentage. The Waldorf schools, most democratic schools, and some other private schools, give (often extensive) verbal characterizations of student progress rather than letter or number grades. Some school districts allow flexibility in grading scales at the Student information system level, allowing custom letters or symbols to be used (though transcripts must use traditional A-F letters)

Traditionally, colleges and universities tend to take on the formal letter grading scale, consisting of A, B, C, D, and F, as a way to indicate student performance. As a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, most Colleges and Universities were flooded with petitions proposing pass or fail options for students considering the difficulties with transitioning and managing during a state of emergency. Although most colleges and universities empathized with students expressing their frustration with transitioning online, transfer students implementing the pass or fail option are forecasted to have to retake the class. College credits for pass or fail classes have a low rate of being accepted by other colleges, forcing transfer students to sit through and pay for the same class they have already completed. While some colleges, such as the University of Wisconsin-Madison, Carnegie Mellon University, and North Carolina are permitting their students from weeks to months, to decide whether they will implement the pass or fail option offered by their college. While Harvard Medical School has previously been opposed to pass or fail grades, they have opened up to accepting pass grades.

Tema 8. Conditionals.

K–12 EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. Part 2

Extracurricular activities

A major characteristic of American schools is the high priority given to sports, clubs, and activities by the community, the parents, the schools, and the students themselves. Extracurricular activities are educational activities not falling within the scope of the regular curriculum but under the supervision of the school. Extracurriculars at the high school age (15–18) can be anything that doesn't require a high school credit or paid employment, but simply done out of pleasure or to also look good on a college transcript. Extracurricular activities for all ages can be categorized under clubs, art, culture and language, community, leadership, government, media, military, music, performing arts, religion, role play/fantasy, speech, sports, technology, and volunteer, all of which take place outside of school hours. These sorts of activities are put in place as other forms of teamwork, time management, goal setting, self-discovery, building self-esteem, relationship building, finding interests, and academics. These extracurricular activities and clubs can be sponsored by fundraising, or by the donation of parents who give towards the program in order for it to keep running. Students and Parents are also obligated to spend money on whatever supplies are necessary for this activity that are not provided for the school (sporting equipment, sporting attire, costumes, food, instruments). These activities can extend to large amounts of time outside the normal school day; home-schooled students, however, are not normally allowed to participate. Student participation in sports programs, drill teams, bands, and spirit groups can amount to hours of practices and performances. Most states have organizations that develop rules for competition between groups. These organizations are usually forced to implement time limits on hours practiced as a prerequisite for participation. Many schools also have non-varsity sports teams; however, these are usually afforded fewer resources and less attention.

Sports programs and their related games, especially football and basketball, are major events for American students and for larger schools can be a major source of funds for school districts.

In addition to sports, numerous non-athletic extracurricular activities are available in American schools, both public and private. Activities include Quizbowl, musical groups, marching bands, student government, school newspapers, science fairs, debate teams, and clubs focused on an academic area (such as the Spanish Club) or community service interests (such as Key Club).

Compulsory education

Schooling is compulsory for all children in the United States, but the age range for which school attendance is required varies from state to state. Some states allow students to leave school between 14 and 17 with parental permission, before finishing high school; other states require students to stay in school until age 18. Children who do not comply with compulsory attendance laws without good cause are deemed to be truants, and they and their parents may be subject to various penalties under state law.

Educating children with disabilities

The federal law, Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) requires states to ensure that all government-run schools provide services to meet the individual needs of students with special needs, as defined by the law. All students with special needs are entitled to a free and appropriate public education (FAPE).

Schools meet with the parents or guardians to develop an Individualized Education Program that determines best placement for the child. Students must be placed in the least restrictive environment (LRE) that is appropriate for the student's needs.

Homeschooling

In 2014, approximately 1.5 million children were homeschooled, up 84% from 1999 when the U.S. Department of Education first started keeping statistics. This was 2.9% of all children.

As of spring 2016, there were 2.3 million homeschooled students in the United States. It is appearing that homeschooling is a continuing trend in the U.S. with a 2 percent to 8 percent per annum over the past few years. Many select moral or religious reasons for homeschooling their children. The second main category is unschooling, those who prefer a non-standard approach to education. This is a parent-led type of schooling that takes place at home and is now boarding a mainstream form of education in the United States. The Demography for homeschoolers has a variety of people; these are atheists, Christians, and Mormons; conservatives, libertarians, and liberals; low-, middle-, and high-income families; black, Hispanic, and white; parents with PhDs, GEDs, and no high-school diplomas. One study shows that 32 percent of homeschool students are Black, Asian, Hispanic, and others (i.e., not White/non-Hispanic). There is no required taxes on this form of education and most homeschooled families spend an average of \$600 per student for their education

Tema 9. Conditionals (Continued).

HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

Higher education in the United States is an optional final stage of formal learning following secondary education, often at one of the 4,495 colleges or universities and junior colleges in the country. In 2008, 36% of enrolled students graduated from college in four years. 57% completed their undergraduate requirements in six years, at the same college they first enrolled in. The U.S. ranks 10th among industrial countries for percentage of adults with college degrees. Over the past 40 years the gap in graduation rates for wealthy students and low-income students has widened significantly.

There are over 7,000 post-secondary institutions in the United States offering a diverse number of programs catered to students with different aptitudes, skills, and educational needs. Compared with the higher education systems of other countries, post-secondary education in the United States is largely deregulated, giving students a variety of choices. Common admission requirements to gain entry to any American university requires a meeting a certain age threshold, high school transcript documenting grades, coursework, and rigor of core high school subject areas

as well as performance in AP and IB courses, class ranking, ACT or SAT scores, extracurricular activities, an admissions essay, and letters of recommendation from teachers and guidance counselors. Other admissions criteria may include an interview, personal background, legacy preferences (family members having attended the school), ability to pay tuition, potential to donate money to the school development case, evaluation of student character (based on essays or interviews), and general discretion by the admissions office. While universities will rarely list that they require a certain standardized test score, class ranking, or GPA for admission, each university usually has a rough threshold below which admission is unlikely.

Universities and colleges

The traditional path to American higher education is typically through a college or university, the most prestigious forms of higher education in the United States. Universities in the United States are institutions that issue bachelor's, master's, professional, or doctorate degrees; colleges often award solely bachelor's degrees. Some universities offer programs at all degree levels from the associate to the doctorate and are distinguished from community and junior colleges where the highest degree offered is the associate degree or a diploma. Though there is no prescribed definition of a university or college in the United States, universities are generally research-oriented institutions offering undergraduate, graduate, and professional programs.

American universities come in a variety of forms that serve different educational needs. Some counties and cities have established and funded four-year institutions. Some of these institutions, such as the City University of New York, are still operated by local governments. Others such as the University of Louisville and Wichita State University are now operated as state universities. Four-year institutions may be public or private colleges or universities. Private institutions are privately funded and there is a wide variety in size, focus, and operation. Some private institutions are large research universities, while others are small liberal arts colleges that concentrate on undergraduate education. Some private universities are nonsectarian and secular, while others are religiously affiliated.

Graduate degrees

Some students, typically those with a bachelor's degree, may choose to continue on to graduate or professional school, which are graduate and professional institutions typically attached to a university. Graduate degrees may be either master's degrees (e.g., M.A., M.S., M.S.W.), professional degrees (e.g. M.B.A., J.D., M.D.) or doctorate degrees (e.g. PhD). Programs range from full-time, evening and executive which allows for flexibility with students' schedules. Academia-focused graduate school typically includes some combination of coursework and research (often requiring a thesis or dissertation to be written), while professional graduate-level schools grants a first professional degree. These include medical, law, business, education, divinity, art, journalism, social work, architecture, and engineering schools.

Vocational

Community and junior colleges in the United States are public comprehensive institutions that offer a wide range of educational services that generally lasts two years. Community colleges are generally publicly funded (usually by local cities or counties) and offer career certifications and part-time programs. Though it is cheaper in terms of tuition, less competitive to get into, and not as prestigious as going to a four-year university, they form another post-secondary option for students seeking to enter the realm of American higher education. Community and junior colleges generally emphasize practical career-oriented education that is focused on a vocational curriculum. Though some community and junior colleges offer accredited bachelor's degree programs, community and junior colleges typically offer a college diploma or an associate degree such as an A.A., A.S., or a vocational certificate, although some community colleges offer a limited number of bachelor's degrees. Community and junior colleges also offer trade school certifications for skilled trades and technical careers. Students can also earn credits at a community or junior college and transfer them to a four-year university afterward. Many community colleges have relationships with four-year state universities and colleges or even private universities that enable some community college

students to transfer to these universities to pursue a bachelor's degree after the completion of a two-year program at the community college.

6. Теми та зміст семінарських/практичних занять

Семінарські/практичні заняття мають на меті розвиток володіння граматично правильною англійською мовою (читання, писання, говоріння) у визначених межах.

Готуючись до семінарського заняття, здобувач вищої освіти повинен покладатися на зміст дисципліни, засвоїти відповідний обсяг матеріалу, використовуючи методичні матеріали, рекомендовану, довідкову та навчальну літературу до тем семінарських занять.

| № з/п | Теми практичних занять | Форма контролю | Кіл. год. |
|---------------|--|--|-----------|
| 1 | Тема 1 Phonetics. Sounds absent in Ukrainian. Rhythmic characteristics. Word order. Text: <i>EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. General Information</i> | Оцінювання результатів роботи в групах | 0,5 |
| 2 | Тема 2 Modal verbs. Irregular verbs. Text: <i>EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. 19th century</i> | Оцінювання результатів роботи в групах | 0,5 |
| 3 | Тема 3 Simple (indefinite) tenses: formation, usage. Text: <i>EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. 20th century</i> | Оцінювання результатів роботи в групах | 0,5 |
| 4 | Тема 4 Continuous (progressive) tenses: formation, usage. Text: <i>EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. 21st century</i> | Оцінювання результатів роботи в групах | 0,5 |
| 5 | Тема 5 Perfect tenses: formation, usage. Text: <i>EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. Educational stages</i> | Оцінювання результатів роботи в групах | 0,5 |
| 6 | Тема 6 Phrasal verbs. Text: <i>EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES</i> | Оцінювання результатів роботи в групах | - |
| 7 | Тема 7 Sequence of tenses. Indirect speech. Text: <i>K-12 EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. Part 1</i> | Оцінювання результатів роботи в групах | 0,5 |
| 8 | Тема 8 Conditionals. Text: <i>K-12 EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES. Part 2</i> | Оцінювання результатів роботи в групах | 0,5 |
| 9 | Тема 9 Conditionals (Continued). Text: <i>HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES</i> | Оцінювання результатів роботи в групах | 0,5 |
| Всього | | | 4 |

7. Самостійна робота

| № | Назва теми | Кіл. год. |
|---|----------------------------|-----------|
| 1 | Pedagogy | 12 |
| 2 | History of pedagogy | 12 |
| 3 | Pedagogical considerations | 12 |
| 4 | Pedagogical approaches | 12 |

| | | |
|--------------|--|-------------|
| 5 | Didactic method | 11,5 |
| 6 | Adult education | 12 |
| 7 | Adult education theories | 11,5 |
| 8 | Deterring factors for participation in adult education | 12 |
| 9 | Benefits of adult education | 15 |
| Разом | | 110 |

Завдання для самостійної роботи студентів

Завдання для самостійної роботи студентів подані у Додатку.

Питання поточного контролю з навчальної дисципліни «Англійська мова» »

- 1) Present continuous (I am doing)
- 2) Present simple (I do)
- 3) Past simple (I did)
- 4) Past continuous (I was doing)
- 5) Present perfect (I have done)
- 6) Present perfect continuous (I have been doing)
- 7) Past perfect (I had done)
- 8) Past perfect continuous (I had been doing)
- 9) Have and have got
- 10) Used to (do)
- 11) Present tenses (I am doing/I do) for the future
- 12) (I'm) going to (do)
- 13) Can, could and (be) able to
- 14) Could (do) and could have (done)
- 15) Must and have to
- 16) Must mustn't needn't
- 17) Passive
- 18) Reported speech (He said that ...)
- 19) Questions
- 20) Question tags (do you? isn't it? etc.)
- 21) Be/get used to something (I'm used to ...)
- 22) See somebody do and see somebody doing
- 23) Countable and uncountable nouns
- 24) Singular and plural
- 25) There ... and it ...
- 26) Some and any
- 27) No/none/any
- 28) Much, many, little, few, a lot, plenty
- 29) Both/both of neither/neither of either/either of
- 30) All, every and whole
- 31) Each and every
- 32) So and such
- 33) Comparison -cheaper, more expensive etc.
- 34) Comparison -as ... as than
- 35) Superlatives-the longest/the most enjoyable etc.
- 36) Word order -verb + object; place and time
- 37) Word order -adverbs with the verb
- 38) Although/though/even though In spite of despite

- 39) In case
- 40) By and until By the time ...
- 41) At/on/in (time)
- 42) Phrasal verbs (get up/break down/fill in etc.)

Методичні рекомендації для самостійної роботи студентів (СРС)

Особливістю вивчення іноземної мови на заочному відділенні є те, що більша частина мовного матеріалу має вивчатися самостійно. Послідовна робота над матеріалом - запорука успіху. Звертайтеся до граматичного довідника, якщо вам незрозумілий той чи інший матеріал. Навчальний матеріал треба засвоювати не механічно, а свідомо, практично оволодіваючи кожним правилом граматики, вимови, читання.

Правила читання

Перш за все необхідно навчитися правильно вимовляти та читати слова і речення. Опануйте правила вимовлення букв та буквосполучень, а також правила наголосу у словах та реченнях. Вивчіть правила читання наголошених. Радимо постійно слухати радіо, записи, телепрограми англійською мовою, що допоможе вам краще оволодіти навичками правильної мови.

Для того, щоб розуміти тексти англійською мовою, треба оволодіти новим запасом слів та виразів. Для цього рекомендується регулярно читати англійською мовою навчальні тексти, газети та літературу з фаху. Добре завчіть алфавіт: це полегшить пошук слів у словнику. Тренуйте свою пам'ять на засвоєння нових слів. Нові слова та вирази записуйте в зошит чи на окремих картках. Доцільно на такі картки заносити по 5-10 слів чи виразів. Звертайтеся до цих карток якомога частіше, доки не запам'ятаєте їх зміст.

Як працювати над текстом

У зв'язку з тим, що метою заочної форми навчання є формування вміння отримати корисну для фахівця інформацію на іноземній мові, особливу увагу треба приділити читанню текстів. Робота над текстом має здійснюватись у такій послідовності:

- Уважно прочитайте текст, намагаючись зрозуміти його загальний зміст;
- Випишіть слова у словниковий зошит, вивчіть їх. Читання кожного слова перевірте за транскрипцією, яка дається у словнику. Якщо слово читається не за правилами, запишіть його транскрипцію. Поряд запишіть рідною мовою значення іноземного слова, яке найбільше підходить до даного контексту;
- Прочитайте текст ще раз, намагаючись схопити не тільки його загальний зміст, а й деталі;
- Опрацюйте кожне речення тексту, щоб зрозуміти його зміст.

Стислі рекомендації

1. Практикуватися кожного дня (хоча б по півгодини). В ідеалі має сформуватися потреба у заняттях (коли відчувається дискомфорт, якщо хоч трохи не позаймався).
2. Не боятися товстих словників. Пам'ятати, що для зрозумілого спілкування достатньо лише 1,5 – 2,0 тис слів.
3. Постійно тренувати вуха (слухати мову, навіть коли нічого не розумієте).
4. Намагатися перекладати все, що „зустрічається на шляху”. Розвивати вміння виплутуватися, коли трапляються невідомі слова. Тренувати перекладацьку здогадливість, винахідливість, кмітливість.
5. Розвивати перекладацьку цікавість („Цікаво, а як це буде англійською?”)

8. Методи навчання

Дисципліна передбачає навчання із застосуванням наступних методів: метод наукового пізнання, метод критичного аналізу, методи оцінки і синтезу комплексних ідей, інтерактивні методи (робота в парах та малих групах), дистанційні методи (online-сервіси),

мультимедійний метод (презентація), діалогові методи, неімітаційні методи (проблемна (дискусійна) лекція, ситуаційні (дискусійно-дослідницькі) практичні завдання, дискусія, ситуаційні вправи), імітаційні методи (формування системного підходу до вирішення наукових проблем, виділення варіантів гіпотез розв'язання проблем, налагодження ділових та особистих контактів)..

Лекції забезпечують здобувачів вищої освіти теоретичними знаннями у визначеному обсязі.

На **практичних заняттях** формуються мовленнєві навички.

Самостійне навчання реалізується також у підготовці до практичних занять, у виконанні індивідуальних творчих завдань, у роботі з підготовки мультимедійних презентацій, що будуть проаналізовані, обговорені та оцінені в академічних групах.

Під час підготовки до занять здобувачі вищої освіти розвиватимуть навички самостійного навчання, критичного аналізу наукової літератури та матеріалів інформаційних ресурсів, синтезу та аналітичного мислення.

9. Методи контролю

Поточний контроль, який здійснюється у формі фронтального, індивідуального чи комбінованого контролю знань здобувачів вищої освіти під час перевірки активності протягом аудиторних занять (усне чи письмове опитування), виконання теоретичних та практичних завдань, тестування, інтерактивної бесіди, ситуаційних завдань, індивідуальних творчих практичних завдань.

Підсумковий контроль – екзамен

Розподіл балів, які отримують здобувачі вищої освіти

| Поточний контроль та самостійна робота | | | | | | | | | Екзамен | Всього |
|--|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|---------|--------|
| Тема | Тема | Тема | Тема | Тема | Тема | Тема | Тема | Тема | 40 | 100 |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | | |
| 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 6 | 6 | 6 | | |

Шкала оцінювання: національна та ECTS

| Сума балів за всі види навчальної діяльності | Оцінка а ECTS | Оцінка за національною шкалою | |
|--|---------------|--|---|
| | | для екзамену, курсового проекту (роботи), практики | для заліку |
| 90 – 100 | A | відмінно | зараховано |
| 82-89 | B | добре | |
| 75-81 | C | задовільно | |
| 64-74 | D | | |
| 60-63 | E | | |
| 35-59 | FX | незадовільно з можливістю повторного складання | не зараховано з можливістю повторного складання |
| 0-34 | F | незадовільно з обов'язковим повторним вивченням дисципліни | не зараховано з обов'язковим повторним вивченням дисципліни |

10. Рекомендована література

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PEDAGOGY

Pedagogy (/ˈpɛdəɡɒdʒi, -ɡoʊdʒi, -ɡɒɡi/), most commonly understood as the approach to teaching, is the theory and practice of learning, and how this process influences, and is influenced by, the social, political, and psychological development of learners. Pedagogy, taken as an academic discipline, is the study of how knowledge and skills are imparted in an educational context, and it considers the interactions that take place during learning. Both the theory and practice of pedagogy vary greatly as they reflect different social, political, and cultural contexts.

Pedagogy is often described as the act of teaching. The pedagogy adopted by teachers shapes their actions, judgments, and teaching strategies by taking into consideration theories of learning, understandings of students and their needs, and the backgrounds and interests of individual students. Its aims may range from furthering liberal education (the general development of human potential) to the narrower specifics of vocational education (the imparting and acquisition of specific skills).

Instructive strategies are governed by the pupil's background knowledge and experience, situation and environment, as well as learning goals set by the student and teacher. One example would be the Socratic method.

Definition

The meaning of the term "pedagogy" is often contested and a great variety of definitions has been suggested. The most common approach is to define it as the study or science of teaching methods. In this sense, it is the methodology of education. As a methodology, it investigates the ways and practices that can be used to realize the aims of education. The main aim is often identified with the transmission of knowledge. Other aims include fostering skills and character traits. They include helping the student develop their intellectual and social abilities as well as psychomotor and affective learning, which are about developing practical skills and adequate emotional dispositions, respectively.

However, not everyone agrees with this characterization of pedagogy and some see it less as a science and more as an art or a craft. This characterization puts more emphasis on the practical aspect of pedagogy, which may involve various forms of "tacit knowledge that is hard to put into words". This approach is often based on the idea that the most central aspects of teaching are only acquired by practice and cannot be easily codified through scientific inquiry. In this regard, pedagogy is concerned with "observing and refining one's skill as a teacher". A more inclusive definition combines these two characterizations and sees pedagogy both as the practice of teaching and the discourse and study of teaching methods. Some theorists give an even wider definition by including considerations such as "the development of health and bodily fitness, social and moral welfare, ethics and aesthetics". Due to this variety of meanings, it is sometimes suggested that pedagogy is a "catch-all term" associated with various issues of teaching and learning. In this sense, it lacks a precise definition.

According to Patricia Murphy, a detailed reflection on the meaning of the term "pedagogy" is important nonetheless since different theorists often use it in very different ways. In some cases, non-trivial assumptions about the nature of learning are even included in its definition. Pedagogy is often specifically understood in relation to school education. But in a wider sense, it includes all forms of education, both inside and outside schools. In this wide sense, it is concerned with the process of teaching taking place between two parties: teachers and learners. The teacher's goal is to bring about certain experiences in the learner to foster their understanding of the subject matter to be taught. Pedagogy is interested in the forms and methods used to convey this understanding.

Pedagogy is closely related to didactics but there are some differences. Usually, didactics is seen as the more limited term that refers mainly to the teacher's role and activities, i.e how their behavior is most beneficial to the process of education. This is one central aspect of pedagogy besides other aspects that consider the learner's perspective as well. In this wider sense, pedagogy focuses on "any conscious activity by one person designed to enhance learning in another".

The word pedagogy is a derivative of the Greek παιδαγωγία (paidagōgia), from παιδαγωγός (paidagōgos), itself a synthesis of ἄγω (ágō), "I lead", and παῖς (país, genitive παιδός, paidos) "boy, child": hence, "attendance on boys, to lead a child". It is pronounced variously, as /'pedəgɒdʒi/, /'pedəgoudʒi/, or /'pedəgɒgi/. The related word pedagogue has had a negative connotation of pedantry, dating from at least the 1650s; a related expression is educational theorist. The term "pedagogy" is also found in the English discourse, but it is more broadly discussed in other European languages, such as French and German.

HISTORY OF PEDAGOGY

Western

In the Western world, pedagogy is associated with the Greek tradition of philosophical dialogue, particularly the Socratic method of inquiry. A more general account of its development holds that it emerged from the active concept of humanity as distinct from a fatalistic one and that history and human destiny are results of human actions. This idea germinated in ancient Greece and was further developed during the Renaissance, the Reformation, and the Age of Enlightenment.

Socrates

Socrates (470 – 399 BCE) employed the Socratic method while engaging with a student or peer. This style does not impart knowledge, but rather tries to strengthen the logic of the student by revealing the conclusions of the statement of the student as erroneous or supported. The instructor in this learning environment recognizes the learners' need to think for themselves to facilitate their ability to think about problems and issues. It was first described by Plato in the Socratic Dialogues.

Plato

Plato (428/427 or 424/423 – 348/347 BCE) describes a system of education in *The Republic* (375 BCE) in which individual and family rights are sacrificed to the State. He describes three castes: one to learn a trade; one to learn literary and aesthetic ideas; and one to be trained in literary, aesthetic, scientific, and philosophical ideas. Plato saw education as a fulfillment of the soul, and by fulfilling the soul the body subsequently benefited. Plato viewed physical education for all as a necessity to a stable society.

Aristotle

Aristotle (384–322 BCE) composed a treatise, *On Education*, which was subsequently lost. However, he renounced Plato's view in subsequent works, advocating for a common education mandated to all citizens by the State. A small minority of people residing within Greek city-states at this time were considered citizens, and thus Aristotle still limited education to a minority within Greece. Aristotle advocates physical education should precede intellectual studies.

Quintilian

Marcus Fabius Quintilianus (35 – 100 CE) published his pedagogy in *Institutio Oratoria* (95 CE). He describes education as a gradual affair, and places certain responsibilities on the teacher. He advocates for rhetorical, grammatical, scientific, and philosophical education.

Tertullian

Quintus Septimius Florens Tertullianus (155 – 240 CE) was a Christian scholar who rejected all pagan education, insisting this was "a road to the false and arrogant wisdom of ancient philosophers".

Jerome

Saint Jerome (347 – 30 September 420 CE), or Saint Hieronymus, was a Christian scholar who detailed his pedagogy of girls in numerous letters throughout his life. He did not believe the body in need of training, and thus advocated for fasting and mortification to subdue the body. He only recommends the Bible as reading material, with limited exposure, and cautions against musical instruments. He advocates against letting girls interact with society, and of having "affections for one of her companions than for others." He does recommend teaching the alphabet by ivory blocks instead of memorization so "She will thus learn by playing." He is an advocate of positive reinforcement, stating "Do not chide her for the difficulty she may have in learning. On the contrary, encourage her by commendation..."

Jean Gerson

Jean Charlier de Gerson (13 December 1363 – 12 July 1429), the Chancellor of the University of Paris, wrote in *De parvulis ad Christum trahendis* "Little children are more easily managed by caresses than fear," supporting a more gentle approach than his Christian predecessors. He also states "Above all else, let the teacher make an effort to be a father to his pupils." He is considered a precursor of Fenelon.

John Amos Comenius

John Amos Comenius (28 March 1592 – 15 November 1670) is considered the father of modern education.

Johann Pestalozzi

Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi (January 12, 1746 – February 17, 1827), founder of several educational institutions both in German- and French-speaking regions of Switzerland and wrote many works explaining his revolutionary modern principles of education. His motto was "Learning by head, hand and heart".

Johann Herbart

The educational philosophy and pedagogy of Johann Friedrich Herbart (4 May 1776 – 14 August 1841) highlighted the correlation between personal development and the resulting benefits to society. In other words, Herbart proposed that humans become fulfilled once they establish themselves as productive citizens. Herbartianism refers to the movement underpinned by Herbart's theoretical perspectives. Referring to the teaching process, Herbart suggested five steps as crucial components. Specifically, these five steps include: preparation, presentation, association, generalization, and application. Herbart suggests that pedagogy relates to having assumptions as an educator and a specific set of abilities with a deliberate end goal in mind.

John Dewey

The pedagogy of John Dewey (20 October 1859 – 1 June 1952) is presented in several works, including *My Pedagogic Creed* (1897), *The School and Society* (1900), *The Child and the Curriculum* (1902), *Democracy and Education* (1916), *Schools of To-morrow* (1915) with Evelyn Dewey, and *Experience and Education* (1938). In his eyes, the purpose of education should not revolve around the acquisition of a pre-determined set of skills, but rather the realization of one's full potential and the ability to use those skills for the greater good (*My Pedagogic Creed*, Dewey, 1897). Dewey advocated for an educational structure that strikes a balance between delivering knowledge while also taking into account the interests and experiences of the student (*The Child and the Curriculum*, Dewey, 1902). Dewey not only re-imagined the way that the learning process should take place but also the role that the teacher should play within that process. He envisioned a divergence from the mastery of a pre-selected set of skills to the cultivation of autonomy and critical-thinking within the teacher and student alike.

Eastern

Confucius

Confucius (551–479 BCE) stated that authority has the responsibility to provide oral and written instruction to the people under the rule, and "should do them good in every possible way." One of the deepest teachings of Confucius may have been the superiority of personal exemplification over explicit rules of behavior. His moral teachings emphasized self-cultivation, emulation of moral exemplars, and the attainment of skilled judgement rather than knowledge of rules. Other relevant practices in the Confucian teaching tradition include the Rite and its notion of body-knowledge as well as Confucian understanding of the self, one that has a broader conceptualization than the Western individual self.

PEDAGOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Teaching method

A teaching method is a set of principles and methods used by teachers to enable student learning. These strategies are determined partly by the subject matter to be taught, partly by the relative expertise of the learners, and partly by constraints caused by the learning environment. For

a particular teaching method to be appropriate and efficient it has to take into account the learner, the nature of the subject matter, and the type of learning it is supposed to bring about.

Hidden curriculum

A hidden curriculum refers to extra educational activities or side effect of an education, "which are learned but not openly intended" such as the transmission of norms, values, and beliefs conveyed in the classroom and the social environment.

Learning space

Learning space or learning setting refers to a physical setting for a learning environment, a place in which teaching and learning occur. The term is commonly used as a more definitive alternative to "classroom", but it may also refer to an indoor or outdoor location, either actual or virtual. Learning spaces are highly diverse in use, learning styles, configuration, location, and educational institution. They support a variety of pedagogies, including quiet study, passive or active learning, kinesthetic or physical learning, vocational learning, experiential learning, and others.

Learning theories

Learning theories are conceptual frameworks describing how knowledge is absorbed, processed, and retained during learning. Cognitive, emotional, and environmental influences, as well as prior experience, all play a part in how understanding, or a world view, is acquired or changed and knowledge and skills retained.

Distance learning

Distance education or long-distance learning is the education of students who may not always be physically present at a school. Traditionally, this usually involved correspondence courses wherein the student corresponded with the school via post. Today it involves online education. Courses that are conducted (51 percent or more) are either hybrid, blended or 100% distance learning. Massive open online courses (MOOCs), offering large-scale interactive participation and open access through the World Wide Web or other network technologies, are recent developments in distance education. A number of other terms (distributed learning, e-learning, online learning, etc.) are used roughly synonymously with distance education.

Teaching resource adaptation

Adapting the teaching resource should suit appropriate teaching and learning environments, national and local cultural norms, and make it accessible to different types of learners. Key adaptations in teaching resource include:

Classroom constraints

Large class size – consider smaller groups or have discussions in pairs;

Time available – shorten or lengthen the duration of activities;

Modifying materials needed – find, make or substitute required materials;

Space requirements – reorganize classroom, use a larger space, move indoors or outdoors.

Cultural familiarity

Change references to names, food and items to make them more familiar;

Substitute local texts or art (folklore, stories, songs, games, artwork and proverbs).

Local relevance

Use the names and processes for local institutions such as courts;

Be sensitive of local behavior norms (e.g. for genders and ages);

Ensure content is sensitive to the degree of rule of law in society (trust in authorities and institutions).

Inclusivity for diverse students

Appropriate reading level(s) of texts for student use;

Activities for different learning styles;

Accommodation for students with special educational needs;

Sensitivity to cultural, ethnic and linguistic diversity;

Sensitivity to students' socioeconomic status.

PEDAGOGICAL APPROACHES

Evidence-based

These paragraphs are an excerpt from Evidence-based education.

Evidence-based education (EBE) is the principle that education practices should be based on the best available scientific evidence, with randomised trials as the gold standard of evidence, rather than tradition, personal judgement, or other influences. Evidence-based education is related to evidence-based teaching, evidence-based learning, and school effectiveness research.

Dialogic learning

Dialogic learning is learning that takes place through dialogue. It is typically the result of egalitarian dialogue; in other words, the consequence of a dialogue in which different people provide arguments based on validity claims and not on power claims.

Student-centered learning

Student-centered learning, also known as learner-centered education, broadly encompasses methods of teaching that shift the focus of instruction from the teacher to the student. In original usage, student-centered learning aims to develop learner autonomy and independence by putting responsibility for the learning path in the hands of students. Student-centered instruction focuses on skills and practices that enable lifelong learning and independent problem-solving.

Critical pedagogy

Critical pedagogy applies critical theory to pedagogy and asserts that educational practices are contested and shaped by history, that schools are not politically neutral spaces, and that teaching is political. Decisions regarding the curriculum, disciplinary practices, student testing, textbook selection, the language used by the teacher, and more can empower or disempower students. It asserts that educational practices favor some students over others and some practices harm all students. It also asserts that educational practices often favor some voices and perspectives while marginalizing or ignoring others.

Academic degrees

The academic degree Ped. D., Doctor of Pedagogy, is awarded honorarily by some US universities to distinguished teachers (in the US and UK, earned degrees within the instructive field are classified as an Ed.D., Doctor of Education, or a Ph.D., Doctor of Philosophy). The term is also used to denote an emphasis in education as a specialty in a field (for instance, a Doctor of Music degree in piano pedagogy).

DIDACTIC METHOD

A didactic method (Greek: διδάσκειν *didáskein*, "to teach") is a teaching method that follows a consistent scientific approach or educational style to present information to students. The didactic method of instruction is often contrasted with dialectics and the Socratic method; the term can also be used to refer to a specific didactic method, as for instance constructivist didactics.

Overview

Didactics is a theory of teaching, and in a wider sense, a theory and practical application of teaching and learning. In demarcation from "mathetics" (the science of learning), didactics refers only to the science of teaching.

This theory might be contrasted with open learning, also known as experiential learning, in which people can learn by themselves, in an unstructured manner (or in an unusually structured manner) as in experiential education, on topics of interest. It can also be contrasted with autodidactic learning, in which one instructs oneself, often from existing books or curricula.

The theory of didactic learning methods focuses on the baseline knowledge students possess and seeks to improve upon and convey this information. It also refers to the foundation or starting point in a lesson plan, where the overall goal is knowledge. A teacher or educator functions in this role as an authoritative figure, but also as both a guide and a resource for students.

Didactics or the didactic method have different connotations in continental Europe and English-speaking countries. Didacticism was indeed the cultural origin of the didactic method but refers within its narrow context usually pejoratively to the use of language to a doctrinal end. The

interpretation of these opposing views are theorised to be the result of a differential cultural development in the 19th century when Great Britain and its former colonies went through a renewal and increased cultural distancing from continental Europe. It was particularly the later appearance of Romanticism and Aestheticism in the Anglo-Saxon world which offered these negative and limiting views of the didactic method. On the other hand, in continental Europe those moralising aspects of didactics were removed earlier by cultural representatives of the Age of Enlightenment, such as Voltaire, Rousseau, and later specifically related to teaching by Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi. The consequences of these cultural differences then created two main didactic traditions: The Anglo-Saxon tradition of curriculum studies on one side and the Continental and North European tradition of didactics on the other. Still today, the science of didactics carries much less weight in much of the English-speaking world.

With the advent of globalisation at the beginning of the 20th century, however, the arguments for such relative philosophical aspects in the methods of teaching started to diminish somewhat. It is therefore possible to categorise didactics and pedagogy as a general analytic theory on three levels:
a theoretical or research level (denoting a field of study)
a practical level (summaries of curricular activities)
a discursive level (implying a frame of reference for professional dialogs)

NATURE OF DIDACTICS AND DIFFERENCE WITH PEDAGOGY

The discipline of didactics is interested in both theoretical knowledge and practical activities related to teaching, learning and their conditions. It is concerned with the content of teaching (the "what"), the method of teaching (the "how") and the historical, cultural and social justifications of curricular choices (the "why"). It focuses on the individual learner, their cognitive characteristics and functioning when they learn a given content and become a knowing subject. The perspective of educational reality in didactics is drawn extensively from cognitive psychology and the theory of teaching, and sometimes from social psychology. Didactics is descriptive and diachronic ("what is" and "what was"), as opposed to pedagogy, the other discipline related to educational theorizing, which is normative or prescriptive and synchronic ("what should or ought to be") in nature. Didactics can be said to provide the descriptive foundation for pedagogy, which is more concerned with educational goal-setting and with the learner's becoming a social subject and their future role in society.

In continental Europe, as opposed to English-speaking research cultures, pedagogy and didactics are distinct areas of study. Didactics is a knowledge-based discipline concerned with the descriptive and rational study of all teaching-related activities before, during and after the teaching of content in the classroom, which includes the "planning, control and regulation of the teaching context" and its objective is to analyze how teaching leads to learning. On the other hand, pedagogy is a practice-oriented discipline concerned with the normative study of the applied aspects of teaching in real teaching contexts, i.e., inside the classroom. Pedagogy draws from didactic research and can be seen as an applied component of didactics.

Didactic transposition

In France, didactics refers to the science that takes the teaching of disciplined knowledge as its object of study. In other words, didactics is concerned with the teaching of specific disciplines to students. One of the central concepts studied in didactics of a specific discipline in France is the concept of "didactic transposition" (*La transposition didactique* in French). French philosopher and sociologist Michel Verret introduced this concept in 1975, which was borrowed and elaborated further in the 1980s by the French didactician of Mathematics Yves Chevallard. Although Chevallard initially presented this concept regarding the didactics of mathematics, it has since been generalized for other disciplines as well.

Didactic transposition is composed of multiple steps. The first step, called the "external transposition" (*transposition externe*), is about how the "scholarly knowledge" (*savoir savant*) produced by the scholars, scientists or specialists of a certain discipline in a research context, i.e., at universities and other academic institutions is transformed into "knowledge to teach" (*savoir à*

enseigner) by precisely selecting, rearranging and defining the knowledge which will be taught (the official curriculum for each discipline) and how it will be taught, so that it becomes an object of learning accessible to the learner. This external didactic transposition is a socio-political construction made possible by different actors working within various educational institutions: education specialists, political authorities, teachers and their associations define the issues of teaching and choose what should be taught under which form. Chevallard called this socio-political context of institutional organization the “noosphere”, which defines the limits, redefines and reorganizes the knowledge in socially, historically or culturally determined contexts.

The second step, called the "internal transposition" (transposition interne) is about how the knowledge to teach is transformed into "taught knowledge" (savoir enseigné), which is the knowledge actually taught through the day-to-day concrete practices of a teacher in a teaching context, e.g. in a classroom, and which depends on their students and the constraints imposed on them (time, exams, conformity to prevailing school rules, etc.).

In the third and final step, the taught knowledge is transformed into "acquired knowledge" (savoir acquis), which is the knowledge as it is actually acquired by students in a learning context. The acquired knowledge can be used as a feedback to the didactic system. Didactic research has to account for all the aforementioned steps of didactic transposition.

Didactic triangle

The teacher is given the knowledge or content to be taught to students in what is called a teaching situation. The teaching or didactic situation is represented by a triangle with three vertices: the knowledge or content to be taught, the teacher, and the student. This is called the "didactic triangle". In this triangle, the teacher-content side is concerned with didactic elaboration, the student-content side is about didactic appropriation, and the teacher-student side is about didactic interaction.

Didactic teaching

Didactic method provides students with the required theoretical knowledge. It is an effective method used to teach students who are unable to organize their work and depend on the teachers for instructions. It is also used to teach basic skills of reading and writing. The teacher or the literate is the source of knowledge and the knowledge is transmitted to the students through didactic method.

Didactic teaching materials:

The Montessori school had preplanned teaching (Didactic) materials designed, to develop practical, sensory, and formal skills. Lacing and buttoning frames, weights, and packet to be identified by their sound or smell. Because they direct learning in the prepared environment, Montessori educators are called directress rather than teachers.

In Brazil, there has been for more than 80 years the government program called PNLB (National Program of Didactic Book). This program seeks to provide basic education schools with didactic and pedagogical records, expanding access to the book and democratizing access to sources of information and culture. Textbooks, in many cases, are the only sources of information that poor children and young people have access to in a poor country like Brazil. These books are also valuable support to teachers, offering modern learning methodologies and updated concepts and content in the most diverse disciplines

Functions of didactic method

cognitive function: to understand and learn basic concepts

formative-educative function: to develop skills, behavior, abilities, etc.

instrumental function: to achieve educational objectives

normative function: helps to achieve productive learning, attain required results, etc.

Method of teaching

In didactic method of teaching, the teacher gives instructions to the students and the students are mostly passive listeners. It is a teacher-centered method of teaching and is content-oriented. Neither the content nor the knowledge of the teacher are questioned.

The process of teaching involves the teacher who gives instructions, commands, delivers content, and provides necessary information. The pupil activity involves listening and memorization of the

content. In the modern education system, lecture method which is one of the most commonly used methods is a form of didactic teaching.

Limitations

Though the didactic method has been given importance in several schools, it does not satisfy the needs and interests of all students. It can be tedious for students to listen to the possible lectures. There is minimum interaction between the students and the teachers. Learning which also involves motivating the students to develop an interest towards the subject may not be satisfied through this teaching method. It may be a monologue process and experience of the students may not have a significant role in learning.

ADULT EDUCATION

Adult education, distinct from child education, is a practice in which adults engage in systematic and sustained self-educating activities in order to gain new forms of knowledge, skills, attitudes, or values. It can mean any form of learning adults engage in beyond traditional schooling, encompassing basic literacy to personal fulfillment as a lifelong learner, and to ensure the fulfillment of an individual.

In particular, adult education reflects a specific philosophy about learning and teaching based on the assumption that adults can and want to learn, that they are able and willing to take responsibility for the learning, and that the learning itself should respond to their needs.

Driven by what one needs or wants to learn, the available opportunities, and the manner in which one learns, adult learning is affected by demographics, globalization and technology.

The learning happens in many ways and in many contexts just as all adults' lives differ. Adult learning can be in any of the three contexts:

Formal – Structured learning that typically takes place in an education or training institution, usually with a set curriculum and carries credentials;

Non-formal – Learning that is organized by educational institutions but non-credential. Non-formal learning opportunities may be provided in the workplace and through the activities of civil society organizations and groups;

Informal education – Learning that goes on all the time, resulting from daily life activities related to work, family, community or leisure (e.g. community baking class).

Characteristics

In a study, Greenberg compared the orthographic and phonological skills of functionally illiterate adults and children. The study found that although functionally illiterate adults performed similarly in reading tasks, children were more successful in vocabulary and spelling tests. This means that functional illiterate adults are at a similar level of education as children, yet they differ in strengths of different skills.

The difficulty in many countries is that education systems cater to children, the problem with this being that the adult brain works and learns in a very different manner to a child's developing brain. Teaching a 6-year-old how to write is a very different process to teaching a 30-year-old with similar writing skills. Several things must be taken into consideration when teaching adults as opposed to children. Although functionally illiterate adults have similar literacy functionality to developing children, they differ greatly in how they retain information. Adult learners have much more independence in performing tasks, a longer attention span, and more discipline. Adult learners are also educating themselves out of choice, as opposed to children who are forced to attend school. Finally, adults are likely to have increased anxiety in a classroom, because with ageing they "are more likely to experience this fear of failure, which can heighten anxiety, especially if experience of education in the past was not always positive." These all contribute to a difference in the way adults need to be taught.

There are ways that adults are able to gain confidence in a classroom. Taming anxiety in a classroom comes down to two things: comfort and support. Comfort can be found by fulfilling Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Maslow's hierarchy of needs highlights the importance of getting enough rest, eating healthy, and having a stable life. These criteria are the same for children, yet

finding stability for adults can be more difficult. In many cases, adult learners have a job or have to support themselves, which adds increased pressure in addition to education. Support is also necessary in the success of adult learning. This means having a work or classroom environment that makes one feel comfortable. Feeling comfortable means feeling as though one has emotional support in the classroom, and having a space where asking for guidance is encouraged rather than shamed.

Educating adults differs from educating children in several ways given that adults have accumulated knowledge and work experience which can add to the learning experience. Most adult education is voluntary, therefore, the participants are generally self-motivated, unless required to participate by an employer. The practice of adult education is referred to as andragogy to distinguish it from the traditional school-based education for children – pedagogy. Unlike children, adults are seen as more self-directed rather than relying on others for help.

Adults are mature and therefore have knowledge and have gained life experiences which provide them a foundation of learning. An adult's readiness to learn is linked to their need to have the information. Their orientation to learn is problem-centered rather than subject-centered. Their motivation to learn is internal.

Adults frequently apply their knowledge in a practical fashion to learn effectively. They must have a reasonable expectation that the knowledge they gain will help them further their goals. For example, during the 1990s, many adults, including mostly office workers, enrolled in computer training courses. These courses would teach basic use of the operating system or specific application software. Because the abstractions governing the user's interactions with a PC were so new, many people who had been working white-collar jobs for ten years or more eventually took such training courses, either at their own whim (to gain computer skills and thus earn higher pay) or at the behest of their managers.

The purpose of adult education in the form of college or university is distinct. In these institutions, the aim is typically related to personal growth and development as well as occupation and career preparedness. Adult education that focuses specifically on the workplace is often referred to as human resource development. Another goal might be to not only sustain the democratic society, but to even challenge and improve its social structure.

However, in some countries, which contain the advanced systems of adult education, professional development is available through post-secondary institutions and provide professional development through their ministry of education or school boards and through nongovernmental organizations. In addition, there are programs about adult education for existing and aspiring practitioners offered, at various academic levels, by universities, colleges, and professional organizations.

Objectives

The primary purpose of adult education is to provide a second chance for those who are poor in society or who have lost access to education for other reasons in order to achieve social justice and equal access to education. Therefore, adult education is often a social policy of the government. Continuing education can help adults maintain certifications, fulfill job requirements and stay up to date on new developments in their field. Also, the purpose of adult education can be vocational, social, recreational or for self-development. One of its goals may be to help adult learners satisfy their personal needs and achieve their professional goals. With the development of economy and the progress of society, the requirement of human quality has been raised. In the 1960s, the proposition of "lifelong education" was put forward, which led to the change of contemporary educational concepts. Therefore, its ultimate goal might be to achieve human fulfillment. The goal might also be to achieve an institution's needs. For example, this might include improving its operational effectiveness and productivity. A larger scale goal of adult education may be the growth of society by enabling its citizens to keep up with societal change and maintain good social order.

ADULT EDUCATION THEORIES

Eduard C. Lindeman's theories

Eduard C. Lindeman was the first expert who gave a systematic account of adult education. In his theory of education, education is regarded as a lifelong process. He pointed out that due to the constant development and change of social life and the surrounding environment, knowledge, and information are in a cycle of constant transmission, supplement and update, which requires people to keep learning to adapt to the changes in the outside world. At the same time, he believes that adult learners should not only learn for the needs of work and survival, but also have the opportunity to enrich themselves. He insists that adult education is an inspiring life-changing tool. Adult education should not only help people improve their skills and abilities in work, but also guide people to find happiness outside work.

Otherwise, Lindeman also proposed that the most valuable resource for adult learners is the learner's experience. He believes that the purpose of adult education is to give meaning to all kinds of experience. Experience can enhance learners' autonomous learning and cognitive ability.

In addition, Lindeman believes that adult education is an important means of improving society. The basic function of adult education is to promote the physical and mental development of adult learners. He argues that adult education is a powerful tool for social activists. Through adult education, the personal code of conduct and cultural knowledge of adult learners should be improved to gradually improve the social atmosphere and order.

Andragogy

The principles of andragogy flow directly from an understanding of the characteristics of adults as learners and can be recognized when we understand the characteristics of adults, and see the way those characteristics influence how adults learn best. Teachers who follow the principles of andragogy when choosing materials for training and when designing program delivery, find that their learners progress more quickly, and are more successful in reaching their goals.

Malcolm Knowles introduces andragogy as the central theory of adult learning in the 1970s, defining andragogy as “the art and science of helping adults learn. Knowles's andragogy theory helps adults use their experiences to create new learning from previous understandings. Knowles believes that preparation for learning is related to the relevance of learning to adult life, and that they bring an ever-expanding experience that can serve as a learning resource.

Andragogy proposes the following six main assumptions about adults as learners:

As a person matures, his or her self-concept moves from that of a dependent personality toward one of a self-directing human being;

An adult has rich experiences that accumulated through family responsibilities, work-related activities, and prior education;

The readiness of an adult to learn is closely connected to the developmental tasks of his or her social role;

As a person matures, he or she refers to immediacy application of knowledge rather than the future application of knowledge which used to have occurred in his or her childhood;

An adult is motivated to involve in any form of learning based on his or her internal drives rather than external ones;

Adults need to know why they need to learn something.

Further, Knowles suggests that these characteristics should be taken into consideration when designing programs for adults as well as facilitating their learning process.

Also, Knowles proposes a model of self-directed learning. In Knowles's view, self-directed learning is a process. Individuals will actively diagnose their learning needs, propose learning goals, select and implement appropriate learning strategies, and evaluate learning results. This learning model makes them think that they are the masters of learning, thus encouraging the confidence of adult learners to learn actively.

DETERRING FACTORS FOR PARTICIPATION IN ADULT EDUCATION

Deterrents are characteristics that explain why adults respond in negative manners to participate in education and learning. Deterrents faced by adults are multifaceted, including both external and internal factors. However, cost and time have been remained as the most frequently reported

deterrents. Large sampled (nationwide and international) surveys on barriers to participation such as a study of National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) of the US, IALS and Eurobarometer indicated that time and cost were the main deterrents for adults. Moreover, some empirical studies discovered time and cost as the most cited deterrents through studying various groups of adults. Cost includes tuition fee of a programme as well as extra expenditures for learning such as clothes, food, transportation and other school necessities (textbooks and stationaries). It is well known that adults less educated, low-skilled and unemployed are less likely to participate in education/learning. For the unemployed, it is obvious that cost can hinder their participation in education. And those lacking education and skills must be paid low salaries. In this way, cost could be the most influential deterrent. Even employed adults seem not wanting to invest money for a course, but they could attend if their employers supported them financially. For the time barrier, most adults involved in the above-mentioned studies reported that they could not participate in educational activities due to lack of time. Adults tended to say that they were busy with their daily routines. Apart from cost and time deterrents, family and job commitments are other most commonly cited deterrents. The large sampled surveys and empirical studies as mentioned earlier revealed that adults tended to report family and job responsibilities as deterrents and rated right after the cost and time deterrents. However, Milana suggested that busy workload and family responsibilities can be associated with the time barrier, otherwise time barrier itself is a vague concept. Adults feel they do not have time to learn because they are busy at work and home. Thus, the time barrier should be considered in line with family and job commitments. After above-mentioned deterrents, another mostly reported deterrent is irrelevant and inadequate supplies of trainings/activities. In other words, AE programs and courses do not always suit the needs of adult learners. It, therefore, is also important for educational planners to recognize that AE opportunities available may not always suit the learner's need.

Deterrents related to an individual's internal issues tend to be reported in lowest rate. For example, the IALS showed that the least deterrent was lack of self-confidence. Also, the Eurobarometer survey indicated that adults' perception of being too old to learn was the least significant deterrent. Moreover, perceived deterrents are differentiated into social groups. Johnstone and Rivera found that older adults faced more dispositional barriers such as low self-confidence and too late for being learners. Also, younger adults and women were more experienced with situational barriers such as cost and child care arrangements. Among the less educated, one's low-confidence regarding the learning ability could be the main deterrent.

BENEFITS OF ADULT EDUCATION

Adult education can have many benefits ranging from better health and personal well-being to greater social inclusion. It can also support the function of democratic systems and provide greater opportunities for finding new or better employment. Adult education has been shown to have a positive impact on the economy.

Adult education provides opportunities for personal growth, goal fulfillment & socialization. Chris McAllister's research of semi-structured interviews with older adult learners shows a motivation to communicate with people and to get out of the house to keep mentally active. Researchers have documented the social aspects of older adult education.

Friendship was described as an important aspect of adult learning. The classroom is seen as a part of their social network. In recent studies, the friendships that are made between adults seem to have an increasing effect on their social structure as a whole.

The development of social networks and support was found to be a key motivation of adult learners. As editor of a book entitled *Adult Education and Health*, Leona English claims that including health education as part of adult education makes for a healthier community.

When surveying adult education programs in Japan, Nojima found that classes focusing on hobbies and very specific recreational activities were by far the most popular. The author noted that more time, money and resources needed to be in place so participants would be able to take advantage of these types of activities. Withnall explored the influences on later life learning in various parts in

the U.K. Results were similar in that later in life education afforded these older adults opportunities to socialize. Some experts claim that adult education has a long-term impact on the economy and that there is a correlation between innovation and learning at the workplace.

Recently, adult education has gained recognition and importance in broader educational policies which emphasise inclusive and equitable education for all. However, there has been a shift towards a narrow focus on vocational skills, undermining the transformative potential of adult education. Looking to the future, adult learning needs to extend beyond labor market needs, connecting career change and reskilling to broader educational reforms. Lifelong learning should be reconceptualized as transformative and responsive to societal changes. It is crucial to address the participation and inclusion of vulnerable groups, appreciate informal learning, embrace digital means of participation, and promote scientific literacy while combating misinformation. Adult education plays a vital role in enhancing competencies, fostering responsibility, understanding changing paradigms, and shaping a just and sustainable world, emphasizing intergenerational solidarity.