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SECTION 1.

PSYCHOLOGY



Psychology

SOCIO-PSYCHOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF FACTORS INFLUENCING CHESS EDUCATION

Abstract

Armenia has adopted chess in primary school program since 2011, and different types of research have been conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of this implementation. One of the questions to be addressed after chess adoption is: “What are the main and contextual factors of the effectiveness of that implementation?”, or “How these factors have been changed?”. The article tries to answer those questions conducting correlational research on representative sampling of Armenian students, their parents and teachers.

Key words: *chess knowledge assessment, divergent thinking, correlational analysis, progress in chess, teaching and learning chess.*

The purpose of the present research is data collection and analysis to examine the factors which can influence teaching and learning chess in Armenian schools.

The “Chess” Scientific Research Institute of the Armenian State Pedagogical University initiated and carried out “chess knowledge assessment” research nationwide.

The objectives outlined in the research were:

- to find out the current state of chess-playing skills in different provinces of the country;
- to identify the connection between the results of the subject of chess with different factors of general education;
- to reveal various connections and interactions between chess learners’ academic achievements and attitudes towards the subject;
- to find out the difficulties of learning chess and their possible psychological

reasons.

In our previously carried out research, we did detect a variety of meaningful correlations between the progress level in chess and contextual factors, for instance, the lesson preparation conditions, pupils' integration level during chess lessons, students' school motivation, etc. Of course, we do bear in mind also the fact that the skill to achieve checkmate in two moves is correlated with teachers' pedagogical impact during chess lessons (Mirzakhanyan, at all 2016, p. 38).

As it has been revealed, "there is a strong correlation between chess grades and pupils' reflective and deep styles of learning. Based on these results, we may infer that pupils are very "pragmatic" and they have to develop those skills which could be assessed better by teachers. Therefore, this fact can be indirectly interpreted as evidence of chess as a subject that promotes thinking and reflection. We can state that these students are more likely to set their own learning goals trying to make sense of the respective learning material. They are more motivated than on average, and they tend to build their own learning path giving meaning to what they need to remember" (Sargsyan, Avetisyan, 2019, p. 135).

Researchers have discovered that during chess lessons and games proper, the convergent and divergent types of thinking appear to be combined, which determines the role of chess in primary school as an intellectual game: the convergent and divergent thinking constitute the immediate part of the three-dimensional model of intellect. Depending on the situation, it is possible that thinking will shift from divergent to convergent or the other way around, which are inclusive, typical and beyond stereotyped thinking (take the renowned chess players who always tended to go beyond standard algorithms and stayed in the chess history).

Hence, it is necessary to study in parallel the facts of the predominance of divergent thinking in children with high chess-playing skills, as high results could not be achieved in the case of convergent thinking. So, there is a need to rethink teachers' training by activating divergent thinking (Gevorgyan S. Karapetyan V., at all,2019, p. 29).

The research data suggest that teachers need to deepen their knowledge of the peculiarities of age psychology and patterns, to get to know the student, his emotional world, emotional states, etc.

Considering the problem of teaching chess in the context of experience, motivation and modelling processes, the staff of the research institute

(Gevorgyan, Karapetyan, 2019) have also tried to prove that during the chess game the primary school student's independent searching (situation analysis, defence organization, response, etc.) motivates his cognitive activity, especially in the process of choosing rational tactical moves appropriate to the situation. The resource of motivation is revealed in line with the provision of methodological saturation, as independent searching works emerging in the conditions of a chess game (as a joint activity) (Sargsyan V., 2019).

Research methods: In order to find the impact of many factors on chess education in Armenia, empirical research has been conducted. During the research, the following methods and tools of quantitative and qualitative research have been applied: questionnaire, test, practical research.

Questionnaires were prepared for the beneficiaries – pupils, teachers, parents. The questions included were about the child's chess experience, parents' attitude towards the chess subject, the teacher's effectiveness in teaching chess. Psychologists, chess players, teachers took part in compiling the questionnaires, who clarified and discussed each task to get a definite version.

In addition to the above mentioned, a test on the chess knowledge was compiled with the purpose to determine the level of knowledge acquired by pupils during the three years of learning chess.

It is noteworthy that the teachers' questionnaire was addressed to the chess teachers who taught chess to the 4th graders of the previous academic year.

The questions mentioned in the questionnaires were formulated in a way to exclude the possibility of double answers: all the questions required a definite answer, which allowed to get a real picture for further analyses.

The survey questionnaires were maximally adapted to the pupils so that both the questionnaires for them and their parents were produced in individual brochures, thus facilitating both the pupils' and parents' completion of the questionnaires and the data entry process.

The questions in one of the pupil's questionnaires were aimed at gaining an idea of their mental processes, and the chess test helped to understand how chess affects their development.

The survey was conducted by random sampling with the participation of all provinces of the Republic of Armenia, including the capital city – Yerevan. There were 40 schools selected, of which 2 schools from Aragatsotn region, 3 from Ararat region,

3 from Armavir region, 4 from Kotayk region, 2 from Gegharkunik region, 2 from Shirak region, 2 from Tavush region, 2 from Lori region. 2 schools from Syunik region, 1 school from Vayots Dzor region, 17 schools from the capital Yerevan. As part of the research practice, the students of the Faculty of Education and Psychology of the ASPU after Kh. Abovyan joined the research, and they had an opportunity to choose 10 schools and conduct the research in the selected schools, therefore. As a result, about 500 students from 50 schools, 500 parents, 50 teachers participated in the republican research.

Although the sample, as mentioned, was random, the principle of representation was preserved in it as much as possible; that is urban, rural medium and small schools were included from all regions.

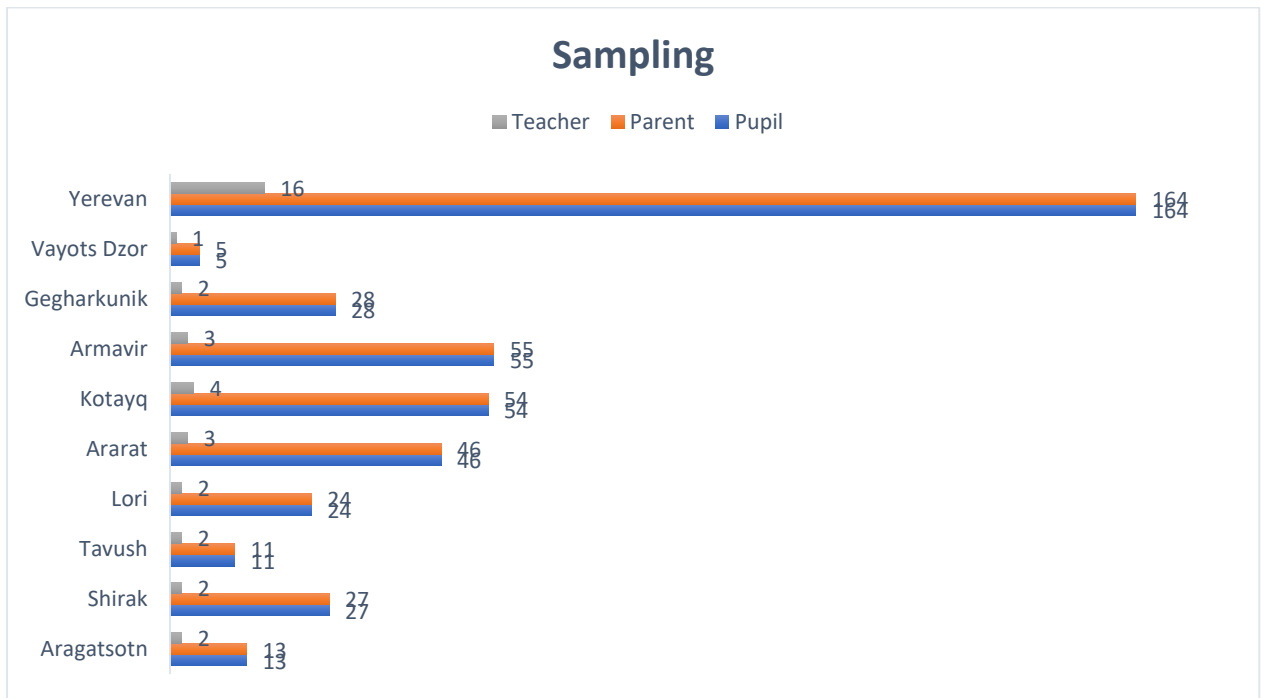
It should be mentioned that, before the primary research, a pilot phase was conducted at basic school number 57 next to Khachatur Abovian ASPU with students, parents, and teachers, after which some changes took place in the pupil's questionnaire, more specifically, it was suggested to formulate the statements expressing positive thoughts only, for example, "My teacher does not give me interesting assignments" (with 4 possible answers: "I agree", "I rather agree", "I agree a little", and "I do not agree") was rephrased to make a positive statement - "My teacher gives me interesting assignments", which, according to the experimental research, was more understandable for pupils.

Within the scope of qualitative methods, the action research methodology was chosen, which made it possible to compare the statistical data with the information obtained during the training and discussions of chess teachers, which significantly contributed to the increase of information reliability.

After receiving the completed questionnaires within ten days, the research team proceeded to enter the data and create a database, which enabled the identification of correlation links.

The sampling of the research is presented below (see Diagram 1).

Diagram 1



Research results:

	Progress in chess	Progress in the native language	Progress in mathematics	My parents help me to do chess homework	Chess use the board	Play chess	I enjoy chess lessons	Chess is boring	Interesting things from chess	I love chess	interested in what the teacher says	Interesting assignments	Usually ready for a chess lesson.	Chess harder for me then for my mates	I learn chess fast	highlight an essential part of the lesson	Using what I learned while solving chess tasks	I can work on my own	I manage to solve the tasks	I find it difficult to do homework	Item average	Teachers gender	Chess promotes the development of intellect.	Work in small groups
Progress in chess	1,00	0,34	0,44	-0,07	0,05	-0,10	0,20	-0,07	0,15	0,17	0,09	0,10	0,19	-0,25	0,36	0,31	0,28	-0,12	-0,11	-0,24	-0,20	0,03	0,00	-0,01
Progress in native language	0,34	1,00	0,53	0,01	0,02	-0,13	0,08	-0,06	0,06	0,03	0,06	0,13	0,09	-0,09	0,20	0,20	0,17	-0,02	-0,09	-0,14	-0,15	-0,01	-0,07	0,14
Progress in math	0,44	0,53	1,00	-0,09	-0,03	-0,12	0,16	-0,08	0,04	0,04	0,04	0,02	0,10	-0,15	0,31	0,22	0,22	-0,09	-0,16	-0,14	-0,14	0,05	0,02	0,10
Parents help with doing homework	-0,07	0,01	-0,09	1,00	0,06	0,17	-0,10	0,26	0,03	-0,05	0,03	0,09	0,08	0,16	-0,08	-0,07	-0,03	0,31	0,22	0,20	0,07	-0,08	-0,02	0,03
Chess use the board	0,05	0,02	-0,03	0,06	1,00	0,34	0,01	0,00	0,01	0,10	0,05	0,00	-0,05	-0,04	0,07	0,05	-0,01	-0,01	0,01	0,00	-0,03	0,02	0,02	-0,01
Play chess	-0,10	-0,13	-0,12	0,17	0,34	1,00	-0,08	0,06	-0,02	0,00	-0,05	-0,08	-0,08	0,08	-0,06	-0,16	-0,10	0,03	0,09	0,12	-0,06	0,00	0,13	-0,20
I enjoy chess lessons	0,20	0,08	0,16	-0,10	0,01	-0,08	1,00	-0,23	0,39	0,51	0,32	0,29	0,38	-0,11	0,33	0,19	0,29	-0,07	-0,03	-0,19	-0,12	0,08	-0,02	-0,04
Chess is boring	-0,07	-0,06	-0,08	0,26	0,00	0,06	-0,23	1,00	-0,12	-0,24	-0,16	-0,12	-0,09	0,32	-0,14	-0,07	-0,08	0,25	0,12	0,39	0,12	-0,12	-0,07	0,04

Interesting things from chess	0,15	0,06	0,04	0,03	0,01	-0,02	0,39	-0,12	1,00	0,55	0,45	0,40	0,34	-0,17	0,38	0,29	0,33	-0,03	-0,03	-0,10	-0,06	0,03	-0,03	0,02
I love chess	0,17	0,03	0,04	-0,05	0,10	0,00	0,51	-0,24	0,55	1,00	0,45	0,36	0,33	-0,22	0,35	0,31	0,34	-0,06	-0,02	-0,20	-0,11	0,08	0,01	-0,02
I am interested in what the teacher says	0,09	0,06	0,04	0,03	0,05	-0,05	0,32	-0,16	0,45	0,45	1,00	0,40	0,34	-0,10	0,31	0,33	0,40	0,01	-0,01	-0,12	-0,06	0,03	-0,06	0,06
Interesting assignments	0,10	0,13	0,02	0,09	0,00	-0,08	0,29	-0,12	0,40	0,36	0,40	1,00	0,28	-0,06	0,31	0,33	0,27	0,04	0,01	-0,04	-0,05	0,03	-0,02	0,07
Usually ready for a chess lesson	0,19	0,09	0,10	0,08	-0,05	-0,08	0,38	-0,09	0,34	0,33	0,34	0,28	1,00	-0,12	0,40	0,35	0,36	-0,01	-0,04	-0,29	-0,11	0,06	-0,13	0,07
Chess harder for me than for my mates	-0,25	-0,09	-0,15	0,16	-0,04	0,08	-0,11	0,32	-0,17	-0,22	-0,10	-0,06	-0,12	1,00	-0,38	-0,20	-0,25	0,32	0,37	0,46	0,18	-0,12	-0,06	-0,13
I learn chess fast	0,36	0,20	0,31	-0,08	0,07	-0,06	0,33	-0,14	0,38	0,35	0,31	0,31	0,40	-0,38	1,00	0,45	0,46	-0,15	-0,16	-0,30	-0,02	0,06	-0,01	0,16
Highlight an important part of the lesson	0,31	0,20	0,22	-0,07	0,05	-0,16	0,19	-0,07	0,29	0,31	0,33	0,33	0,35	-0,20	0,45	1,00	0,42	-0,06	-0,06	-0,28	-0,06	0,04	-0,12	0,13
Using what I learned while solving chess tasks	0,28	0,17	0,22	-0,03	-0,01	-0,10	0,29	-0,08	0,33	0,34	0,40	0,27	0,36	-0,25	0,46	0,42	1,00	-0,06	-0,11	-0,21	-0,01	0,02	-0,04	0,14
I can work on my own	-0,12	-0,02	-0,09	0,31	-0,01	0,03	-0,07	0,25	-0,03	-0,06	0,01	0,04	-0,01	0,32	-0,15	-0,06	-0,06	1,00	0,43	0,34	0,04	-0,19	-0,19	0,01
I manage to solve the tasks	-0,11	-0,09	-0,16	0,22	0,01	0,09	-0,03	0,12	-0,03	-0,02	-0,01	0,01	-0,04	0,37	-0,16	-0,06	-0,11	0,43	1,00	0,30	0,05	-0,09	-0,20	-0,12
I find it difficult to do homework	-0,24	-0,14	-0,14	0,20	0,00	0,12	-0,19	0,39	-0,10	-0,20	-0,12	-0,04	-0,29	0,46	-0,30	-0,28	-0,21	0,34	0,30	1,00	0,14	-0,10	-0,03	0,03
Item aver (aver=declare, claim OR average???)	-0,20	-0,15	-0,14	0,07	-0,03	-0,06	-0,12	0,12	-0,06	-0,11	-0,06	-0,05	-0,11	0,18	-0,02	-0,06	-0,01	0,04	0,05	0,14	1,00	-0,18	-0,01	0,23
Teacher's gender	0,03	-0,01	0,05	-0,08	0,02	0,00	0,08	-0,12	0,03	0,08	0,03	0,03	0,06	-0,12	0,06	0,04	0,02	-0,19	-0,09	-0,10	-0,18	1,00	0,40	-0,13

Chess promotes the intellect	0,00	-0,07	0,02	-0,02	0,02	0,13	-0,02	-0,07	-0,03	0,01	-0,06	-0,02	-0,13	-0,06	-0,01	-0,12	-0,04	-0,19	-0,20	-0,03	-0,01	0,40	1,00	-0,10
Work in small groups	-0,01	0,14	0,10	0,03	-0,01	-0,20	-0,04	0,04	0,02	-0,02	0,06	0,07	0,07	-0,13	0,16	0,13	0,14	0,01	-0,12	0,03	0,23	-0,13	-0,10	1,00

All research data have been analysed with the help of the statistical software *Statistica 12*.

The correlational analysis has been carried out. The inter-correlation matrix has been created – with 97 factors inter-correlated.

“The average score of chess test” which means the average result of chess knowledge is positively correlated with the “teacher’s gender” (-0.18) and “small group work” (0.23).

“The teacher’s gender” is positively correlated with the “impact of chess on the development of intellect” (0.40).

“Progress in chess” is in a positive correlation with “progress in native language” (0.43) and “mathematics” (0.44), “learning chess fast” (0.36), with the “ability to distinguish the main idea” (0.31) and “using what I learned while solving chess tasks” (0.28). This fact has been revealed in our previous work too (Sargsyan, Avetisyan., 2019), which can be interpreted as indirect evidence of increasing the role of chess as a school subject.

“Parents’ help with homework” is positively correlated with “working independently” (0.31), “successfully problem-solving” (0.22), and “doing homework with difficulty” (0.20).

As it was expected “considering chess as boring” is positively correlated with “chess being more difficult than other subjects” (0.32), “being able to work independently” (0.25), and “doing homework with difficulty” (0.39).

“Learning interesting things from chess” is positively correlated with “being relaxed in chess lessons” (0.39), “teachers’ clear explanation” (0.42). Thus, we suppose that teachers’ explanation clarity is one of the central and most important factors for students’ motivation for learning chess. In a sense, the positive correlations between “loving chess” (0.55) and “teacher’s clear explanation” (0.4), “being interested in what the teacher says” (0.45), “performing interesting tasks” (0.40), “being usually ready for lessons” (0.34), “learning chess fast” (0.38) and “distinguishing important things from secondary” (0.29), “solving tasks successfully” (0.33).

“Being interested in what the teacher says” is in a positive correlation with “solving interesting tasks” (0.40), “usually being ready for lessons” (0.34), “learning chess fast” (0.31), “distinguishing the important from the secondary” (0.33), “using what I learned while solving chess tasks” (0.40).

On the one hand “doing homework with difficulty” is in a positive correlation with “being chess boring” (0.39), and “thinking about other things in a chess lesson” (0.35). But on the other hand, the factor “doing homework with difficulty” is correlated with “chess being more difficult than other subjects” (0.5), “being able to work independently (0.33), “successfully solving the problems” (0,3). Therefore, we can state that difficulties with homework make chess tasks boring for a number of students, but it also could become challenging for many others who might be good chess problem solvers. It also has a negative correlation with “easily performing complex chess tasks” (-0,31), with the

“teacher’s consideration that the student is strong in chess” (-0,38).

“Successfully solving problems” is in a positive correlation with “difficulty of doing homework” (0.30), “thinking about things that are not related to the lessons” (0,2). This correlation is not very high and statistically significant. But the correlation between solving problems and being able “to work independently is much higher” (0,42) and significant statistically and in methodological aspect too.

At the same time, it has been revealed that “working independently” has a positive correlation with “successfully solving problems” (0.43) and “doing homework with difficulty” (0.34), “chess being more difficult than other subjects” (0.3). After much reflections, we can conclude that these “paradox” results of correlations are convinced by the dual interpretation of independent work. On the one hand, it can be discussed as a positive way of learning and solving problems independently. Nevertheless, it could also be interpreted as a lack of pedagogical support and consequently, weakness in chess, difficulties in learning chess, etc.

The next group of factors have been outlined after the correlational analysis is mostly referred to students’ motivation for learning chess. For instance, the factor “feeling calm in chess lessons” is in a positive correlation with the “student being interested in what the teacher says” (0.39), “being interested in chess” (0,51), “being interested in material provided by the teachers” (0.32), “usually being ready for the lessons” (0.38), “learning chess fast” (0.33).

“Usually being ready for lessons” is positively correlated with “learning chess fast” (0.40), “distinguishing the important from the secondary” (0.35), and “using what I learned while solving chess tasks” (0.36).

So, what can we learn from these connections? What are these inter-correlations speaking about? If we discuss them from the teacher’s perspective, we can suppose that student’s readiness for the study is usually connected with teacher’s classroom management and motivational abilities which become the most important factors for chess education. But being connected with learning chess fast must help teachers to focus not only on the fast but also reflective learning.

As for the correlations which can be interpreted as negative motivational factors we would prefer to discuss the difficulties “chess being more difficult than other subjects” is in a positive correlation with “chess being boring” (0.32), “doing homework with difficulty” (0.46), “being able to work independently” (0.32), and it is in a negative correlation with “learning chess fast” (- 0.38).

The research also found a very interesting fact that “distinguishing the important

from secondary” is in a positive correlation “using what I learned while solving chess tasks” (0.42). This means that the students believe that when they study how to identify the main, it allows them to solve chess problems more effectively. This fact is also can be discussed as a supporting idea of chess education quality enhancement and can be used in teachers’ performance evaluation process. Actually, when teachers help students to solve different chess tasks and problems, applying a wide range of technics, students believe that they become more effective problem solvers. In other words, teachers’ competencies have their strong impact on the students’ self-efficiency, which can be considered as one of the most important factors of students’ motivation.

Conclusions

1. Chess as an educational tool is widely used as an important way for developing intellectual skills of schoolchildren. This belief appears to be more spread among female than male teachers.

2. Students’ progress in chess is mostly in line with their skills and knowledge in native language and mathematics at primary-school level.

3. The role of chess as a school subject has continuously been increasing while pupils have been learning to implement chess skills for developing their problem-solving skills. In fact, when teachers help students to solve different chess tasks and problems, applying a wide range of technics, students believe that they become more effective problem solvers.

4. The development of students independent learning skills and the implementation of working-in-small-groups skills, as well as other interactive and reflective teaching / learning methods, are becoming a significant factor for developing problem-solving skills through chess.

5. Teachers’ classroom management and motivational abilities become the most critical factors for chess education. Nevertheless, it is commendable that teachers focus not only on quick acquisition/assimilation but also reflective and deep learning. Teachers should take into account that students’ motivation is also confirmed by the level of difficulty of chess tasks and homework. Hence, perceiving chess as more difficult than other subjects can have a negative impact on their progress in chess in general.

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OVERCOMING OF AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR OF PRIMARY SCHOOL CHILDREN THROUGH FAIRY TALE THERAPY

Abstract

The article provides definitions of aggression, the causes of its occurrence, as well as fairy tale therapy as a means of overcoming aggressive manifestations. A research was conducted to study the psychological characteristics of the aggressive behaviour of younger schoolchildren. The formative linear experiment was used. The method for diagnosing aggression Bass-Darky and Rosenzweig's test of measuring the aggressiveness were carried out. In the aggressive behavior of primary school children is dominated by negative and indirect aggression; verbal and physical aggression are moderately manifested; auto-aggression, insult and suspicion are weakly expressed. More than half of primary schoolchildren have a high level of aggressiveness. In the vast majority of pupils, aggressive reactions are directed to the environment, that is, the orientation of aggression is extrapunitive. In about a quarter of pupils, the orientation of aggression is impunitive, for what happened they attribute the blame to the situation. The weakest expression has the intrapunitive orientation of aggression, when the child considers himself responsible for the event. To overcome the aggressive manifestations of primary schoolchildren, a training program was used, in which therapeutic tales and training exercises were included. If before applying a training program for overcoming aggressiveness, aggressive reactions of most younger schoolchildren were directed at others, and they considered others to be responsible for solving the problem, then after implementing the training program the results of the retest show that there has been a sharp increase in the rate of intrapunitive aggression. That is, children began to count, that the solution of the problem depends more on the person, and in case of failure, the person should blame not the other, but own identity. Therapeutic fairy tales are an effective way to overcome the aggressive behaviour of children in educational institutions.

Keywords: *primary schoolchildren; aggressive behaviour; extrapunitive, intrapunitive and impunitive aggression; fairy tale therapy; training program.*

Introduction

A comprehensive analysis of the aggressive behaviour of children is a severe psychological, social and pedagogical problem. Aggression is targeted, destructive behaviour that contradicts existing norms and rules in society. Aggression involves actions that cause the destruction of living or nonliving objects. The term “aggression” is divided as a form of behaviour and “aggressiveness” as a person’s mental state. As synonyms for the term “aggression”, the terms “incontinence”, “cruelty” and “destructiveness” are used (Levitov N., 2005).

The earliest theoretical approach to aggression was presented by Z. Freud (1920), who considers aggressive behaviour to be innate (Frejd Z.,2001). In his works, K. Lorenz (1964, 1966) argues that aggressive behavior begins with an instinct aimed at fighting for survival. N. Levitov describes a state of aggression as a feeling of anger, caused by a loss of self-control (Levitov N.,1967). A. Bass put forward the concept of institutional and hostile aggression (Bass A.,1967).

E. Fromm interprets the term “aggression” as an action that damages or intends to harm an animal, person, group of people or some inanimate object (Fromm, E.,2007).

R. A. Baron and D. R. Richardson believe that aggression, regardless of its form of manifestation, is a behavior that is meant to harm another living organism. In addition, the damage caused by aggression is intentional, purposeful (Robert A. Baron, Deborah R. Richardson, 2004).

Aggression involves various actions. When people describe someone who is aggressive, they say that he is unfriendly, usually insults others, tries to achieve his goals in all possible ways, regardless of the harmfulness of the means used (Dubinko N., 2010).

From the above definitions, it follows that aggression should be considered as a model of behaviour, and not an emotion, motive or attitude. However, the term “aggression” is often associated with negative emotions, such as anger, insult or a desire to cause harm, and even with negative attitudes, such as racial or ethnic prejudices. Despite the fact that these factors play an essential role in the formation of aggressive behaviour, this is not a prerequisite for the formation of a behaviour model. For example, anger is not a prerequisite for attacking anyone. It is also not at all necessary for the aggressor to hate or not sympathize with the person to whom his actions are directed (Nemov R., 2003).

According to A. Rean, aggression is a motivated behaviour by which damage is caused to another object or people causing discomfort, stress, depression (Rean,

A.,1999).

D. Dollard believes that a frustrated state is a stimulus for the manifestation of aggression. N. Miller proposed a particular model of aggressive behaviour, according to which a person shows aggression not against his frustrators, but against others (Dollard J., Miller A.,1939). In the theory of A. Bandura, aggression is considered a form of behaviour that is absorbed in the process of social learning (Bandura A., 2002). In addition to social factors affecting the manifestation of aggressive behaviour, genetic predisposition should also be taken into account (Randy J. Nelson, 2006). L. Berkowitz points to the importance of the emotional and cognitive processes that underlie aggressive behaviour (Berkovic L., 2002).

Aggression can be considered not only as behaviour but also as a mental state consisting of 3 components: cognitive, emotional and volitional components. The cognitive component is indicative, implies an understanding and assessment of the situation.

Lazarus considers threat as the primary motivator of aggression and believes that threat causes stress, and the person reacts to stress through aggression. However, not every threat causes aggression, and, on the other hand, an aggressive state is not always caused by threats (Dubinko N., 2010).

In the emotional component, anger is allocated for firstly. Passing through each stage of an aggressive state - preparation, execution of the process and evaluation of results, a person experiences intense anger, which sometimes turns into an affect. The emotional aspect of aggression is not limited to anger or hatred. This situation is also characterized by ill will, a delight from the sufferings of others, excessive self-confidence. It also happens that the aggressor receives positive emotions from his actions: the pathological manifestation of this is sadism (Dubinko N., 2005).

The aggressive state often arises and develops in a struggle, and any struggle, as a rule, requires the presence of strong volitional qualities. The strong-willed component, as part of the aggressive state, is manifested in purposefulness, perseverance, decisiveness, initiative and courage (Lorenc K., 2007).

Social factors - events and incidents with which a person is faced have a great influence on the manifestation of aggression. Resisting social factors creates the appropriate conditions for the manifestation of aggression (Randy J. Nelson, 2006).

According to O. Shelopukho, aggression can be viewed as a desire to harm someone. Aggression is manifested both in aggressive actions and in aggressive thoughts and intentions (Shelopukho O. 2009).

The reasons that are incentives for aggressive behaviour are real events, and their awareness is crucial because, in the case of denial, it is impossible to take psychocorrection.

Causes of aggressive behaviour are divided into 3 subgroups:

- organic causes are brain injuries; brain dysfunction,
- hereditary causes - affective-irritating behaviour of parents or relatives; anxiety and hyperactivity in a child,
- social causes - aggressive behaviour of family members; inconsistency of parents in learning the norms and laws; unreasonable, strict supervision of children by parents; domestic violence cases; parental conflict; child indifference; conflicts with classmates; incompetent teacher approach; curriculum overload; situational causes (mutual aggression; high sensitivity to the assessment; situations that cause stress to the child) (Levitov N., 1967).

Thus, aggression is an act the purpose of which is to harm another. Aggression makes certain changes to the object of application, not taking into account his desire. Aggression can be spontaneous or planned.

In the presence of various kinds of psychological problems, the use of fairy-tale therapy is effective in young children. The child identifies himself with the hero of the tale, as a result of which the perception and modelling of this character allows him to learn how to resolve the conflict, acquire new skills and abilities (2018).

Fairy tale therapy uses the resources of the fairy tale to solve a number of issues - educational, developmental, enlightening. Fairy tales accompany a person throughout life. Therefore, fairy tale therapy has no age limit (Tkach R., 2008).

Familiarity with fairy tales helps younger pupils to understand the surrounding reality. Any fairy tale tells about the relations of people, about the norms and laws that operate around us. In fairy tales for children, interesting characters are offered, and essential information is acquired over time, imperceptibly. Fairy tales are ready-made behavioural models that offer solutions to some of the most complex problems and at the same time, provide an opportunity to think for yourself, imagine (Vachkov I., 2007).

In order to study the psychological features of aggressive behaviour of younger pupils, as well as the overcome of aggressive behaviour through fairy tale therapy, in January-March 2018, a study was conducted in the Mets Ayrum secondary school in the Lori region of the Republic of Armenia.

The sample consisted of 40 pupils aged 8-10 years - 20 boys and 20 girls. The study was conducted in 3 stages. The formative linear experiment was applied.

A linear experiment is carried out without control groups and is based on a comparison of the state of controlled and dependent variables before and after experimental exposure. It differs in that the same group is subjected to analysis, which is both the control (its initial state) and experimental (its state after changing one or more characteristics) (Classification of Experiments, 2019).

In our study the controlled (independent) variables of the experiment were therapeutic tales and training exercises aimed at overcoming the aggressiveness, while the dependent variables were the level and direction of the aggressiveness of younger schoolchildren. At the first stage of the study, the method of diagnosing aggression of Bass-Darky and the method of measuring the aggressiveness of Rosenzweig were used. The second stage were included fairy tale therapy and training exercises. At the third stage retesting was carried out.

At the first stage of the study, the following results were obtained. According to the Bass-Darki method of diagnosing aggression, of the types of aggression among younger schoolchildren, negativism (25%) and indirect aggression (20%) were most pronounced. Negativism is expressed by children in the form of oppositional behaviour directed against the reputation of another. Negativism from passive resistance can grow into active actions, demands, orders. Indirect aggression manifests itself in the form of tapping with feet, evil jokes, gossip and anger episodes. A comparative analysis of girls and boys shows that negativity is more typical for boys (40%), and indirect aggression - for girls (also 40%).

24% of junior schoolchildren have average manifestations of verbal and physical aggression. Verbal aggression is expressed in the form of a dispute, noise, screams, curses, threats, and physical aggression – in the form of the desire to hurt, harm others.

The least common types of aggression among younger schoolchildren are irritation (8%), insult (8%), auto-aggression (8%) and suspicion (4%). Irritated children are prone to arousal at the slightest occasion, the expression of rude and harsh phrases. Insult as a form of manifestation of aggression is due to anger, feelings of dissatisfaction and presupposes the existence of envy, hatred towards the environment. Auto-aggression is expressed through harmful, evil, or ruthless actions against oneself. And suspicion is accompanied by distrust and caution, and at the same time, the installation is such that the people around are predisposed to cause harm.

Data from the method of measuring the aggressiveness of Rosenzweig show that 56% of primary school children have a high degree of aggressiveness, 28% - a moderate degree and 16% - a low degree.

In 68% of children, the direction of aggression is extrapunitive, that is, their aggressive counteracting is directed at the environment, the cause of frustration is considered different, and it is he who is responsible for solving the problem. In 4% of the group studied, the direction of aggression is intropunitive, that is, the accusation is addressed to itself, the solution of the problem, according to the child, also depends on its own "I". In 28% of the sample, the direction of aggression is impunitive, that is, the blame is attributed to the situation, and the aggression is not directed at the people around.

Thus, according to the results of the first stage of the study, the level of aggressiveness of the majority of the younger schoolchildren examined is high, at this age of the types of aggression the negativism and indirect aggression are most pronounced, and the direction of aggression is mainly extrapunitive. At the second stage of the study, training program (Vachkov I., 2007) (2018b) aimed at overcoming aggressive behaviour was developed and implemented, which included training exercises and therapeutic fairy tales by O. V. Khukhlayeva, O. E. Khukhlayev, I. V. Vachkov, E S. Mosina, N. N. Kashtanova.

The purpose of the training program is to create conditions for maintaining and strengthening the psychological health of students through psychological correction of aggressive tendencies in behavior, for learning adaptive behavior skills.

The following tasks were encountered during the training:

- Stimulate the verbalization of children attitudes towards aggressive situations.
- To educate children in ways of self-control - to develop the ability to respond to aggressive influences.
- To analyze the change in the attitude of children on the situation of aggressive influence.
- To train in the skills of recognition of emotions and feelings, control of self emotional state.
- To optimize the child's communication with peers through the development of mechanisms of empathy and trust in each other and surrounding people, develop the ability to interact, reckon with others, and jointly solve tasks.
- Create a positive emotional background in various types of student activities, relieve emotional stress in the interaction between themselves.

Children with both high and low levels of aggression participated in training program since it was inappropriate to include only children with a high level of aggression in the group.

This stage lasted two weeks. Classes were held twice a week. Each meeting began with a welcoming speech, followed by activating and training exercises, and then - the presentation of a therapeutic fairy tale and its joint discussion with members of the group. During the meetings, the planned exercise sequence schedule changed depending on the level of activity of the children.

During the practical use of fairy tale therapy, the authors concluded that fairy tales have a positive impact on the cognitive, emotional, and behavioral spheres of children and develop empathic abilities in children.

At the second stage of the study, children were conditionally divided into two groups - children with active behavior and children with passive behavior. Active were considered those children who, during fairy tale therapy, were involved in discussions, actively expressed their opinions, and also during classes were distinguished by their mobility and impulsivity. Those children were considered passive who could hardly express their opinions, were not initiative, rarely participated in discussions, were shy about expressing their own thoughts, but, on the other hand, they listened carefully to fairy tales and drew appropriate conclusions for themselves.

Combining the indicators of the first and second stages of the study, it became apparent that physical and verbal aggression (according to the Bass-Darky test) dominated in children with active behaviour, and insult and negativism in children with passive behaviour.

At the third stage of the study, retesting was carried out to determine the effectiveness of a linear formative experiment, that is, to measure the directionality and the level of aggressiveness. Tests carried out at the first stage of the study were re-applied after carrying out fairy tale therapy. The data from the Bass-Darka retesting showed that the manifestations of aggression decreased, in particular, the indicators of physical, verbal and indirect aggression, negativism, insult, auto-aggression significantly decreased. Suspicion and irritation of some students decreased, some remained at the same level.

The results of retesting the Rosenzweig's method of measuring aggressiveness are as follows: if, before fairy tale therapy, aggression in 68% of primary school children had an extrapunitive orientation, then after fairy tale therapy the extrapunitive orientation of aggression had decreased to 36%. The intropunitive orientation of aggression before fairy tale therapy was found in 4% of children, and after in 40%. The impunitive orientation of aggression was initially observed in 28% of children and in 24% after fairy tale therapy, that is, manifestations of impunitive orientation have not changed much

before and after the experiment.

The data of the first and third stages of the study, according to the method of Rosen Zweig, are presented in the diagrams (see Diagram 1 and Diagram 2).

Diagram 1

The focus of aggression before fairy tale therapy

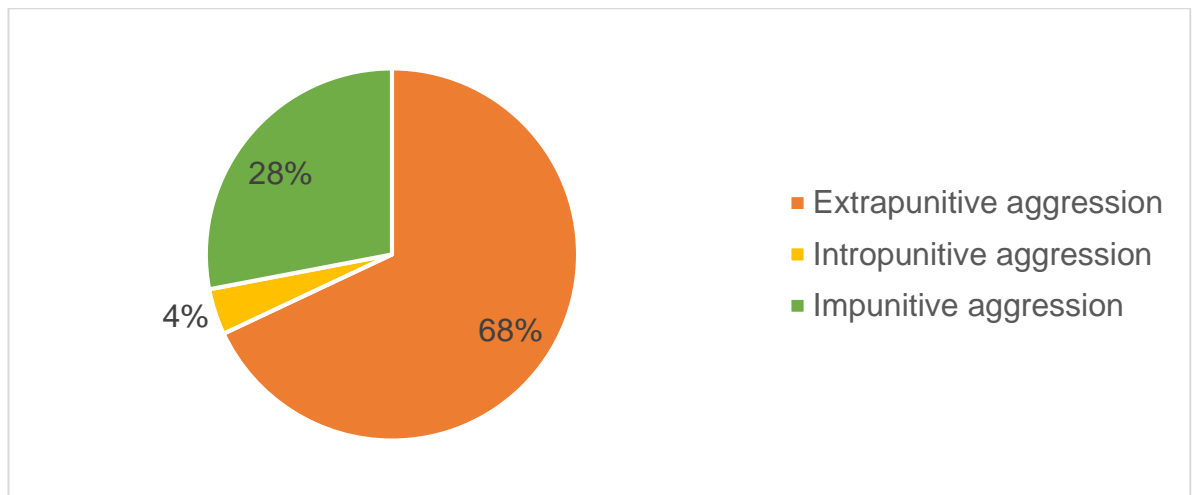
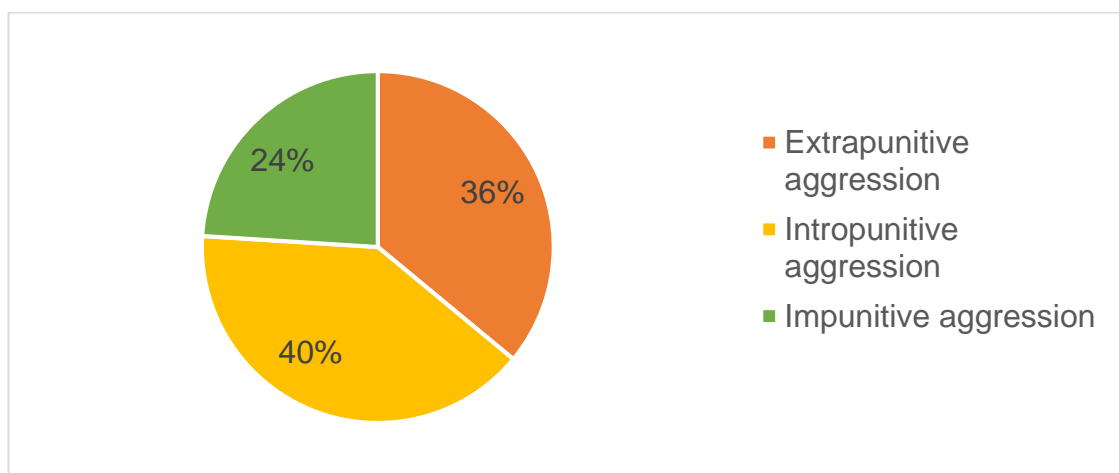


Diagram 2

The focus of aggression after fairy tale therapy



The results show that the level of aggression after fairy tale therapy has decreased, and this indicates an effectiveness of the formative linear experiment.

So, summing up the research data, we can draw the following conclusions.

- In the aggressive behavior of primary school children is dominated by negative and indirect aggression, verbal and physical aggression are moderately manifested, auto-aggression, insult and suspicion are weakly expressed.

- More than half of primary schoolchildren have a high level of aggressiveness. In the vast majority of pupils, aggressive reactions are directed to the environment, that is, the orientation of aggression is extra punitive. In about a quarter of pupils, the orientation

of aggression is impunitive, for what happened they attribute the blame to the situation. The weakest expression has the intropunitive orientation of aggression, when the child considers himself responsible for the event.

- If before applying a training program for overcoming aggressiveness, aggressive reactions of most younger schoolchildren were directed at others, and they considered others to be responsible for solving the problem, then after implementing the training program the results of the retest show that there has been a sharp increase in the rate of intropunitive aggression. That is, children began to count, that the solution of the problem depends more on the person, and in case of failure, the person should blame not the other, but own identity.

- The fairy tale therapy contribute to reduce the level of aggressiveness of younger pupils, to reduce extra punitive and to increase intropunitive manifestations of aggressiveness.

- Therapeutic fairy tales are an effective way to overcome the aggressive behavior of children in educational institutions. They can be used by psychologists, teachers, parents. The training program proposed by the authors has been implemented in secondary school for use by teachers and psychologists in the future.

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HOPE AS THE PROVISION FOR PSYCHOLOGICAL SECURITY OF THE PERSON AND THE SOCIETY*

Abstract

The article discusses various approaches to understanding the function of hope in human life. The author attempts to analyze the functional orientation of hope based on its types. The rationale for the study of hope as a multidimensional formation in the context of human life and person's attitude to life is presented. The paper analyzes the conception of hope among Russians, discusses the relationship between different types of hope and valence (positive-negative) of evaluations of different stages of one's life course. It is emphasized that high level of hopelessness combined with negative attitude towards life reduces the psychological security of a person.

Keywords: *ontological functions of hope, components of hope, emotional type of hope, cognitive-motivational-behavioral type of hope, scope and objects of hope, attitude to life.*

Introduction

Traditionally, issues of psychological security are considered in the context of countering destructive, extremist influences on a person. In our opinion, the problem of psychological security of the individual and society can be posed more broadly, affecting various aspects of everyday life, which may not always be classified as extreme or extremist, but have a significant influence on a person resulting in their psychological humiliation and even destruction. Such situations of everyday life can include both situations of loss of hope or hopelessness and situations overflowing with hopes. It all depends on what types of hope we mean, in what direction they regulate the behavior of a person and determine his choice in situations that threaten his life and his psychological well-being. Theoretical conclusions that hope is a universal, global and common human phenomenon that gives meaning to life can be considered sufficient for understanding

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and recognizing the regulating power of hope (Chalikova, V. A. ,1991), (Bol'nov, O. F., 2001), (Vershinin S. E., 2000), (Kleman, O.,1994). Similarly, these conclusions require comprehension from the point of social psychology, taking into account the course of life of the individual and society, prevailing ethno-cultural values, the degree of positivity-negativity of assessments of life events, attitude to life, conception of the functions of hope and its types among the Russians.

Thus, the purpose of this article is to consider the phenomenon of hope from the point of social psychology and demonstrate its ambiguous connection with the practical psychology of security of an individual and society.

There are various definitions of hope and its functions in the history of philosophy, religion and psychology. They are presented in sufficient detail in a number of works (Chalikova, V. A., 1991), (Vershinin, S. E., 2000), (Kapiton, V. P., 1992) (Mansurova I. S., 2005), (Muzdybaev, K.,1999) as well as discussions about the functions of hope in a person's life: "Is hope evil or good?" Two main interpretations of the meaning of hope in human life have been preserved in physics, philosophical and psychological literature so far. The most significant concepts, emphasizing the existential, ontological meaning of hope are those in which the latter is endowed with viable power and acts as the foundation of human existence; it is also endowed with the function of opposition to entity (Chalikova, V. A.,1991), (Bol'nov, O. F., 2001), (K'erkegor, S.,1993), (Sartr, Zh. P.,1989), (Fromm, E., 2005). In a concentrated form, this semantic orientation of hope is presented in S. E. Vershinin "Life is hope" (Vershinin, S. E., 2000).

Most often, the problem of hope in connection with the different historical upheavals and generalizing negative assessments of human life, disappointment and fear is raised in literature. For modern society, as noted by O. F. Bolnov, the disappearance of the "romantic spirit", provoked by a huge number of upheavals, is characteristic. As a result, "every life relationship", "every life meaning" turned out to be illusory. "And the world with a previously unknown threat acted in relation to man as strange and dangerous The man realized himself in a certain hopeless loss, doomed to the destruction penetrating into him" (Bol'nov, O. F., 2001, p. 139). Such phenomena as fear, despair, boredom and disgust become "carriers of the decisive metaphysical experience" and hope in the state of entity fulfills the function of overcoming. Developing this idea, O. F. Bolnov emphasizes that it is mainly hope that "is put forward as the only condition for realization of human life" (Bol'nov, O. F., 2001, p. 141). In such interpretations, hope is associated with faith and trust in entity and is interpreted as trust in the future; the presence of hope in a person's life and attitude towards it as a value is considered as a "connection"

between a person and entity (Bol'nov, O. F., 2001, p. 143).

A special place in understanding the existential role of hope is presented in the work of E. Bloch (Chalikova, V. A., 1991). He builds his reasoning on the basis of a new model of a person, a "hopeful" person. Hope is attributed to an anti-romantic, that is, practical nature. In other words, a practical hope is opposed to probable-passive hope, irrational hope to rational, conscious hope to unconscious one. The diversity of hopes is associated with the richness of human existence and experience. E. Fromm (Fromm, E., 2005) speaks about hope in his work, pointing out that hope is the absolute value of the future, emphasizing that hope is an indicator of state of entity, "the moment of life structure". He endowed hope with the function of transforming being, its change in the direction of greater vitality, awareness, etc. (Fromm, E., 2005, p. 305). At the same time, E. Fromm believed that hope has the property of paradox, noting that it is "... neither passive expectation nor an urge of circumstances that cannot be realized" (Fromm, E., 2005, p. 302); he pointed to the existence of a special type of hope - "passive hope", which is a disguised form of hopelessness.

Consequently, the attitude towards hope itself and the assessment of the temporal stages of a person's life can actualize such a function of hope as the "connection" of a person with his existence, the transformation of existence and can assign other functions to hope, depending on its type. In this regard, no less important in comprehension of hope, from a socio-psychological point of view, are the concepts which assert that hope is a life-limiting power, self-deception that prolongs the torment of people, a "brake" of personal growth, slowing down or making the process of self-development and self-improvement impossible (Kamyu, A., 1990), (Nicshe, F., 1990) (Shopengauer A., 1992). K. Muzdybaev (Muzdybaev, K. ,1999), speaks about possible dysfunctions of hope, especially illusory, mystical, revolutionary and messianic, therefore, it is necessary to remember that there are various types of hope and criteria for their allocation. So, in connection with the phenomenon of "loss of hope", such types as "common hope" and "fundamental hope" are discussed, which is considered as "personal existence, virtue, an expression of consent with oneself that constitutes existence" (quoted in (Bol'nov, O. F., 2001, p. 140).

The prevailing ideas about hope include various components of hope, thus giving it a certain definition: 1) hope is an emotional state, passion; 2) hope is a rational-epistemological attitude to values, striving to comprehend existence. In these definitions, the cognitive component of hope is strengthened, bringing it closer to such a form as "rational hope"; 3) hope is the planning of human activities and overcoming barriers and

obstacles on the way to achieving the goal (the motivational and behavioral component of hope is strengthened) (Vershinin, S. E., 2000), (Gorbatkov, A. A., 2003), (Kapiton, V. P., 1992), (Muzdybaev, K., 1999), (Snyder C. R., 1994). The ontological approach to hope integrates all its components, making us consider it “as a systemic spiritual quality, representing simultaneously the sensual, rational and activity aspects of a person's attitude to the world” (Andrusenko V. A., 1999), p. 23).

In addition to the above-mentioned approaches to considering hope and its functions in human life, there are also those in which hope and despair are viewed as two interconnected and equal ways to the true existence of a person, to the transformation of his life (Bol'nov, O. F., 2001), (Kamyu, A., 1990), (K'erkegor, S., 1993), (Tillih P., 1994).

Thus, analyzing hope in the context of the psychology of the security of an individual and society, one can outline several vectors for the interpretation of its functions in a person's life. If we do not touch upon the religious interpretations of the meaning of hope and take into account their moral and ethical potential, the function of “otherness” attributed to hope (Kleman, O., (1994), p. 29), then one of the most important directions becomes the consideration of hope as a universal human value, contributing to overcoming difficulties; another is to define the type of hope and endow it with life-affirming or life-preventing functions.

The problem of the social psychology of hope, which is at the same time the problem of the psychology of security of the individual and society, is that it constantly emphasizes the importance of hope in the life of people, its ontological status; it examines the question of how Russians (or other nations) relate to hope, what is its value and significance in modern human interaction with the world. The statement in the philosophical and psychological works of diametrically opposite functions of hope in human life sets the task of studying the ideas about hope and its functions in a modern person, living in a situation of permanent socio-economic crisis, threats and challenges. The formulation of this problem is also due to the need for empirical verification of ideas about hope and its functions among people living in a society of “stable instability”, asserting the basis of the study of existential-oriented philosophers that in a situation of experiencing alienation, fear, hopelessness, in crisis and life-threatening situations, hope helps a person to survive. As E. Fromm wrote, in extreme situations, hope determines their perception as a challenge, and not as a threat. Based on this perception, a person begins a creative comprehension of their existence and strives to overcome difficulties (Fromm, E., 2005).

In addition, in order to formulate the problem of ideas about hope and its functions in human life, the conclusions of works are important, in which hope is stated as one of

the most constant features of the national character of Russians (Sikevich, Z. V.,1999), (Fond "obshchestvennoe mnenie". Rossiiskoe obshchestvo: cennosti i priority // Politicheskie issledovaniya (Public Opinion Foundation. Russian Society: Values and Priorities // Political Studies),1993), that along with temporary openness, activity, rejection of capitulation, belief in reality, patience is an essential characteristic of hope (Muzdybaev, K.,1999).

In order to study common ideas about hope and its functions in human life, we carried out research with 400 participants. Using the methodology "Representation of hope and attitude to it", developed by I.S. Mansurova (Mansurova, I. S., 2006), we obtained data on the prevailing types of hope, its functions in the ideas of the research participants. In order to reduce the influence of the questions posed by the researcher on the respondents' answers, the following methodological techniques were applied: associations, unfinished sentences and free definitions. The participants were asked to list all the associations that the word "hope" evokes in them; name the phenomena opposite to hope; indicate what role hope plays in a person's life and its necessity; determine how a person evaluates his life, if he hopes or has no hope. The participants were asked to state what gives them hope most of all and what can deprive them of hope; think about what they hope for in different areas of life (at work, at the institute, at home, in the family, in relations with people, etc.); make a list of hopes by completing the sentence "I hope .."; to recall and describe situations, events that inspired hope, met expectations, opened up new perspectives; remember and describe the events that led to the experience of intense disappointment, instilled a sense of hopelessness.

All the answers of the research participants were subjected to content analysis and divided into the following categories: the significance of hope in a person's life (functions), characteristics of hope (definitions), leading spheres (objects) of hope. Qualitative and quantitative analysis (frequency analysis and the procedure for categorizing the content units that form each category) showed that all respondents (regardless of their age, social status) have an idea of what hope (definition) is, what role it plays in a person's life (functions), in what spheres of life and what they hope for. Common ideas of hope include its definitions as a state, expectation and attitude to life. Most of the research participants identify hope with life, attaching the meaning of an "inner core," the meaning of life and believe that hope is something that cannot be taken away from a person. According to the research participants, hope is associated with the presence of an obstacle on the way to the goal or with a difficult life situation. But only about 30% of them associate hope with their own transformative activity aimed at achieving goals.

Interestingly, only a third of the research participants endow hope with ambivalent functions: “hope sometimes helps to survive, sometimes it interferes with life, increases pain when it does not come true”. Emphasizing the ambivalence of the functions of hope, some participants pointed out that one should not hope for something or someone, but be responsible for one's life, rely on experience and reason. In common ideas about hope, its motivational and behavioral component is practically not reflected, but a function of hope as overcoming difficulties is mentioned.

Common ideas of hope include spheres and “objects” of hope, among which the majority (80% of respondents) hope for support in interpersonal interaction; they hope for understanding, being loved and respected. On the other hand, 20% of the research participants, in addition to hope for positive interpersonal relationships, point to importance of hope in the professional sphere. They hope that they will be able to realize themselves, be promoted and achieve success.

Thus, research participants associate hope with positive functions and interpersonal relations. The emphasis on the emotional and cognitive functions of hope and the reduction of the motivational-regulatory function of hope indicate a shift towards such a type of hope as “emotional”, “passive” hope. Therefore, in life-threatening situations, a person will hope that acquaintances, friends will help him overcome difficulties, will protect him, while demonstrating, most often, “passive” hope, leading to disappointment and negative emotions that reduce psychological personal security. Researchers (Kamyu, A., 1990), (Muzdybaev, K., 1999), (Sartr, Zh. P.,1989), (Fromm, E., 2005) considering various types and functions of hope, emphasize that a person should have confidence in achieving his goals, he should be able to assess past successes and predict the future, move systematically towards the intended goals, to overcome difficulties, to control and manage the circumstances of their own life, to be ready for action, to transform reality. The core of “active hope” is an orientation towards the future, coupled with the transformative activity of the subject, aimed at a positively significant object for the personality, which is absent at the present time, but the achievement of which has a certain degree of probability.

In order to determine the prevailing types of hope (passive-active, emotional-rational), not in the perceptions of respondents, but on the basis of psycho-diagnostic procedures, we applied a set of methods created by I. S. Mansurova (Mansurova I. S., 2005) and reflecting our ideas about hope as a complex socio-psychological, spiritual-mental-emotional education, including an emotional, cognitive and motivational-behavioral components. This set included A. Beck's hopelessness scale (modified by A.

Gorbatkov (Gorbatkov, A. A., 2003)); S. Snyder's dispositional hope scale (Snyder C. R., 1994); A Rean's questionnaire for the diagnosis of hope for success and fear of failure. As an indicator of hope as a personal control of time, we used the index "personal control of time" from J. Newton's scale (modified by K. Muzdybaev) (Muzdybaev, K., 1999). All these techniques were aimed at diagnosing the severity of the components that constitute hope (Labunskaya V. A., Mansurova I. S., 2004). As methods aimed at studying the attitude towards life (perception and assessment of the past, present, future and life satisfaction), we applied the scale of attitudes to the time of J. Newton (as modified by K. Muzdybaev) and the questionnaire "Index of life satisfaction", adapted by NV Panina.

In order to identify the relationship between the indicators of severity of the emotional component of hope and the cognitive, motivational-behavioral one, a correlation analysis of empirical correlates and then a factor analysis by the method of isolating the main components were carried out. As a result of Varimax rotation, two factors explaining 73% of the variance were extracted. The first factor with a large factorial weight included various indicators of the severity of the motivational-behavioral component of hope ("persistence in achieving a goal", "the ability to find ways to achieve a goal", "striving to achieve", "personal control of time") and a cognitive component ("generalized expectation of achieving the goal"). The second factor included indicators of severity of the emotional component of hope ("perception of the future as "hopeless-fulfilled with hopes", "emotional attitude to the future", "emotional state of hope"). In addition, the factor had a negative value of "emotional state of hopelessness".

Based on the structure of each factor and its content, the first factor indicates the existence of a "cognitive-motivational-behavioral gap", the second factor corresponds to the "emotional kind of hope". Thus, we have found two kinds of hope: 1) "an emotional kind of hope"; 2) "rational kind of hope", in the reliable structure of which the cognitive and motivational-behavioral components have a high level of severity. Further analysis of the ratio of the severity of these two types of hope for each participant in the study showed that the "emotional type of hope" predominates significantly. At the same time, 100% of respondents have a high and medium degree of severity of the state of hope, but 57% simultaneously have a high level of severity of the state of hopelessness. These data testify to the ambivalent nature of the "emotional kind of hope" in a significant number of study participants. The combination of a state of hope with hopelessness leads to a clash of positive and negative ideas about your life in the future, confidence/uncertainty in achieving desired goals, in direct control of life circumstances, in planning your life for a long time perspective. The ambivalence of experiences due to the combination of the

severity of both the state of hope and hopelessness in the “emotional form of hope” lowers the desire to overcome difficulties, to transform life (the main positive functions of hope) and reduces the psychological security of a person.

The “rational kind of hope” presented in 20% of the research participants also does not fully ensure the fulfillment of the positive functions of hope in a person's life. Holders of the “rational type of hope” can find various ways to achieve their goals, move towards them systematically and consciously, but at the same time they doubt their success, feel insecure, etc.

Despite the fact that combination of state of hope and hopelessness is common for “emotional kind of hope”, people with this kind of hope differ from those with the “rational kind of hope”, a more positive attitude to the present time ($t = 3.10$). The future is seen by “representatives of the emotional kind of hope” more saturated with positive events ($t = 5.54$) than the past and the present. In other words, “representatives of the emotional kind of hope” demonstrate an optimistic perception of future and believe that it will be better. But if we take into account that cognitive and motivational-behavioral components (passive hope) are insignificantly expressed in the structure of the “emotional type of hope”, such an attitude to the future can lead to disappointment, to increased hopelessness, and hence to actualization of negative emotions and to a decrease in the level of psychological security of a person.

“Representatives of the rational type of hope” where the severity of cognitive and motivational-behavioral components prevails, have a more positive attitude to the past than to the present and the future ($t = 5.10$). They worry that they will not be able to fully influence their future, be responsible for the events in their lives. In the process of analyzing the data, we identified a group of research participants who have a negative attitude towards different time stages of their lives. Among them are the participants with a high level of manifestation of hopelessness, and those who have a sufficiently high level of hope. Conditionally, we called the first subgroup “negatively related to life - experiencing a state of hopelessness”. Representatives of this subgroup not only negatively assess their lives, but also perceive their past, present and future as difficult and devoid of any meaning. They believe that they cannot control the circumstances of their lives, they are sure that everything that happens in their lives is the result of the influence of external factors and not of their own efforts. Representatives of this subgroup are distinguished by a firm conviction that life has brought more disappointments to them than to other people; they believe that life could be happier than it is. The representatives of this subgroup see the future as gloomy, devoid of stability, certainty and the possibility

to achieving the goals.

We defined the second subgroup as "those who have a negative attitude towards life - those who hope." This subgroup of the research participants are distinguished by a low degree of life satisfaction, a negative perception of their life and a high intensity of components of hope. They perceive the present as gloomy, unsafe, boring, eventless and difficult. Looking back at their lives, representatives of this subgroup regret missed opportunities, unfulfilled hopes and unjustified expectations. At the same time, they hope for a future that they see as happier and filled with pleasant events. Representatives of this subgroup are characterized by persistence in achieving goals, the ability to find different ways to achieve their goals, as well as confidence that the productivity of their activities depends mainly on their own dedication.

The data obtained, on the one hand, indicate that the state of hope-hopelessness is associated with the way a person perceives and evaluates his own life. On the other hand, hopelessness is not necessarily the result of dissatisfaction with life and hope is not always associated with a positive, optimistic assessment of life. The combination of a negative attitude to life and hope, which includes not only a pronounced emotional component, but also a cognitive, motivational and behavioral component indicate that hope can "resist" entity, perform the function of transforming entity.

Thus, in the context of the psychology of the security of the individual and society, the appeal to the phenomenon of "hope" turns into an appeal to the "person who hopes", to his experience of hope and the experiences associated with him. Based on the theoretical analysis and the data obtained, it can be concluded that the predominance of the "emotional type of hope", revealed both in the process of studying the ideas about hope and its functions in human life and with the help of psycho-diagnostic and mathematical procedures, leads to a decrease in the psychological security of a person, especially in those cases when a high degree of hopelessness is combined with a negative attitude to life.

Harmonization of all components of hope, development of cognitive and motivational-behavioral components in the structure of hope, actualization of positive functions of hope, specification of ideas about hope and its spheres can become one of the tasks of special social technology that promotes the increase in the psychological security of the individual and society.

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NORMATIVE REGULATION OF LIFE AND HEALTH PHILOSOPHICAL ASPECTS

Abstract

The article discusses some philosophical issues of life and health. The content of bioethics is not limited to finding out which approaches to solving problems related to human life and health are more effective, liberal or conservative.

Conservatism stems from the basic premise that human life is an absolute, indisputable value. From the point of view of bioethics, the discovery of the humanitarian potential of liberal values is possible only in the conditions of avoiding the extremes of moral relativism, one-sided naturalism, as well as establishing a reasonable balance between conservative and liberal values.

Keywords: man, sanity, health as value, liberal value, conservative value, informed consent

Introduction

"Treat not the disease, but the patient." This is the basic principle of bioethics. Healing does not mean freeing the human individual from the symptoms of the disease, it is possible to maintain the human moral strength, that is, to maintain his ability to live with dignity, to be a full member of society, of the nation, which is very important for the social welfare of the individual.

The completeness and regularity of the content of bioethics are manifested in two value paradigms: pro-human and pro-person, which, even if opposed to each other, are not mutually exclusive, but mutually complementary, having equal significance within a common value system, uniting around a relatively core value of human life.

Critical analysis of the phenomenon of "paternalism" has become fundamentally important in medical practice. The model of paternalism describes the physician-patient relationship in which the physician plays the role of educator and the patient the role of adolescent's adolescent.

The concept of "paternalism" in bioethics defines a certain model of the doctor-patient relationship. It is assumed that the doctor is the most powerful and knowledgeable sponsor, to whom the patient must obey unconditionally and trust like his own father. The physician makes the decision without engaging in dialogue with the patient in advance,

without explaining to the patient the reason for the specific method of treatment or choice of medication, without explaining the possible side effects of the intervention - the ratio of risk to possible improvement. Medical paternalism morally obliges the medical staff to sympathize with the patient, but not to give an explanation or consult with him.

At present, the issue of patient participation in medical decision-making is seriously raised. New models of doctor-patient interaction are being formed - informational, consultative, collegial, interpretive, which are built on subject-subject relationships. In this case, the doctor and the patient act as equal partners, whose relationship is based on the principles of confidentiality, trust and sincerity. Medical decisions are made jointly, but the patient's partly responsible for them.

From ancient times the doctors have been guided by an ethical rule: "Patient well-being is the highest law". It is relevant today. Let us emphasize that the concept of "well-being" should not only lead to physiological health & comfort, it means the well-being of the patient in general. Medicine does not deal with matter, skeletal-physiological functions, but with the human person, which is an inseparable unity of body, soul and spirit. person, his well-being has biological, physiological, social, moral and caring edges. Bioethics is the field of study of the professional activities of biologists, pharmacists and doctors.

Practitioners believe that many of the problems in clinical practice, particularly whether a person is healthy or ill, depend largely on biological and physiological factors. It is difficult to disagree with this. However, the subject of medical activity is not only a person's physiology, but also his social biography.

Medicine has no moral right to speak exclusively in the language of physiology. The doctor must see more in the patient than just the body. In the philosophical-value sense, the patient is not only the object of medical interventions or scientific research, not only a "clinical case", but also a suffering person who is in dire need of help, psychological and moral support (Lopukhin, Yu. M., 2003). During treatment, it can be taken into account that any disease has not only physiological or psychophysiological causes, but also purely social, even moral. When treating the human body, the doctor must always remember that it is the same component of the person as the soul, the inner world of the individual, and therefore requires a special treatment for him.

The incredible achievements of the medical and pharmaceutical sciences do not always work in a person's favor. Strange as it may seem, they often have a detrimental effect on human health and well-being.

Medications for social control of human behavior are currently in use. These are

the so-called "prozac" drugs, which affect the level of serotonin in the brain (a substance that promotes a sense of well-being and positive self-esteem), or Ritalin, otherwise known as baby cocaine, which is used to treat hyperactivity in children. : The unfortunate thing is that in the end, only the pharmaceutical companies benefit from the use of these drugs. They do not solve the potential social problems associated with children's depressive states and psychological disorders, but simply freeze them. In addition, the use of these drugs harms human health. Undoubtedly, preventing the harmful effects of this or that medicine or treatment method is related to the protection of human rights and personal dignity. The active influence of medicine & pharmacology on people's lifestyles, social behavior, worldview must be controlled, both by public morality and by legislation.

Freedom is a great gift for which a person pays a high price. That price is the existence of evil in the world, we mean the existence of moral and physical evil. When we say physical evil, the American physicist-theologian J. Polkinhorn means diseases, deviations (mutations), "developmental deadlocks", etc. If we are ready to accept freedom, we must accept the consequences that come with it and take responsibility for them, including diseases, natural disasters, and historical epidemics (Siluyanova, I. V., 2001). From a philosophical point of view, we see the world as a complex of self-organizing systems, which is characterized by non-linearity, unpredictability (naturalness), openness, irreversibility, the existence of a huge number of subsystems; All this offers endless opportunities for development. Of course, he creates certain obstacles and difficulties.

Bioethics, looking at the issue of freedom in a broader context, opens new perspectives on its meaning; or a relative of the patient.

Freedom, from a philosophical point of view, is the right to make one's own choices. The more complex and complicated the situation, which requires a person to make a choice, the more significant the freedom of the individual plays in the establishment of dignity. On the one hand, we know that a person in his social and personal life should never be just a means, but a goal. On the other hand, is it humane to allow a person to make a choice in favor of what is not good for him - suicide, illegal act, drug use, smoking ? Does the patient have the right to choose whether to be treated or not? Can he give up certain treatments or medications? After all, the choice in medicine is a choice between health and disease and life and death . (Mishatkina, T. V., Denisov, S. D., Yaskovich, Ya. S., 2008).

The latest medical technologies are increasingly putting people in front of the need to make their own choices, to take full responsibility for it. Bioethics requires the

recognition of a person's autonomy, independence and rights to self-determination. Autonomy is the ability to manage the health and life of the human individual, the need to take into account the will and desire of the patient, even the conscious refusal of treatment if it threatens the life and health of the individual. Respect for the autonomy of the person is one of the main principles of bioethics, the realization of which presupposes the existence of two obligatory conditions. First, the patient's decision should not become a possible threat to society, second, the person should be sane, and his decisions should be commensurate with the situation (Yakovlev, V. A, Surkova, L. V, 2000).

The issue of patient freedom is expressed through the concept of "informed consent". Violation of the principle of informed consent in the United States is considered an insult to the patient physical harm. These are situations that require the patient to undergo serious surgery, as well as mandatory treatment of the patient.

Two areas of informed consent can be distinguished: providing information to the patient and obtaining his / her voluntary consent.

Awareness of the patient implies that he knows the nature of his illness, the treatment methods offered to him.

He is well aware of the risks associated with treatment, possible treatment alternatives, and prospects for recovery.

The informed consent obliges the doctor, firstly, to take into account the patient's emotional-psychological state, level of education, peculiarities of his national mentality – religious beliefs, and secondly – to show tenderness towards the patient. Communicate medical information to the patient in a way that is understandable to the patient.

The disease is not only a biological but also a biographical fact, so the patient's opinion can not be ignored. In general, it can be argued that informed consent contributes to the full realization of the patient's right to self-determination. Replacing paternalism with informed consent is due to a change in the goals of modern medicine. The goal of traditional medicine is the patient's life and health. In the process of achieving this goal, even restrictions on his freedoms and rights are allowed (Gudkov, L. D, Yudin, B. G, 1995).

Modern medicine rejects such an approach, standing in the position of protecting the patient's rights and freedoms (Sedova, N. N., 2004,).

Bioethics must find new ways for the commandments of compassion and informed consent to really work in medical practice, in all areas of scientific, social, and personal life. No declaration, no concept can artificially inject mercy into a person. Only philanthropic, patriotic doctors and pharmacists can provide medical care, and each of us

can show mercy, but very few find the strength and time to do so.

A comparative analysis of liberal-conservative values in bioethics has shown that their dialectical development does not presuppose reciprocity, but a combination, which is conditioned by the construction of a unified value scale of human life and health.

In the field of bioethics, the concepts of human health and well-being appear in the sphere of liberal crossing of conservative values and effective cooperation, which must be preserved by the force of moral and legal laws, by the state and society.

Most post-Soviet scholars dealing with bioethics are characterized by the idea of seeking fruitful cooperation between liberal and conservative values in bioethics. Both liberalism and conservatism play an essential role in the value-based rationalization of vital human life and health issues, neutralizing the negative tendencies of science and the dehumanization of health.

Only in the case of such an integrative-humanistic approach can the issue of protecting people's lives and health be really clearly defined (Ya., S. Y., Yudin, B. G., Denisov, S. D., 2007,).

Thus, a constructive interaction between liberal and conservative approaches in bioethics is possible if we refrain from the extremes of the ethical relativism of the liberal approach, the ethical dogmatism of conservative bioethics (Potter, V. R., 2002,).

The further differentiation of the structural elements of conservative-liberal approaches within medicine and philosophy's sociology is important in view of the fact that certain methodological difficulties arise when moving from a philosophical-sociological understanding of the problem to concrete normative principles of good health's normative principles based on analysis.

Conclusion

And liberalism and conservatism play an essential role in substantiating their best manifestations in bioethics in substantiating the vital values of human life, neutralizing the negative tendencies of de-humanization of science and health.

Thus, "liberal" and "conservative" values are equally important for revealing the socio-value role of bioethics, which determines the problems and mechanisms of humanization in the field of modern science, as well as for revealing the socio-value essence, which is manifested in the basic categories of its subject. in principles.

Keywords man, sanity, health as value, liberal value, conservative value, informed consent

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**SENSIBLE DIAGNOSES FOR SENSIBLE CLINICIANS: THE NEW EDITION
OF THE PSYCHODYNAMIC DIAGNOSTIC MANUAL (PDM-2)**

Abstract

The article analyzes psychodynamic clinical models focused on clinical case formulation and treatment planning, offers practitioners empirically grounded and clinically validated alternatives to such personality maps as the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM) and the International Classification of Diseases (ICD). The PDM-2 diagnostic model aims to provide a systematic description of healthy functioning and personality disorders; individual profiles of mental functioning (including patterns of relationships with other people, understanding and expressing feelings, overcoming stress and anxiety, regulating impulses, observing one's own emotions and behavior and forming moral judgments, etc.); as well as symptom patterns, including differences in each person's subjective experience of symptoms and in the subjective experiences of treating therapists.

Keywords: *psychodynamics, diagnosis, feeling, stress and anxiety*

The publication of the first edition of the Psychodynamic Diagnostic Manual (PDM) in 2006 provided an exciting opportunity for psychoanalysts to discuss a somewhat controversial term: diagnosis. Nancy McWilliams (2011) remembers that some therapists consider it almost a “swear-word”. For example, Irwin Hoffman (2009), criticising PDM, states that any categorisation of a patient is a way of drying up the richness and variety of his human experience. I reply that, of course, synthesis and simplification are interior to any system of classification – Virginia Woolf (1922) said it is no use trying to sum people up, “it is useless to pretend to summarise a person” - but why would creating families of concepts or descriptions mean “drying up” the human experience? It infers finding out which elements of the unrepeatable individual uniqueness can be aggregated in such a way as to confront shared scientific knowledge accumulated over time. And this is meant to be there as a treatment mode to be chosen by clinicians and for researchers to develop studies on the effectiveness of therapies.

Yes, “which” diagnosis should we choose? The purpose of this discussion is to”

“infect” the readers of *Communicate* with the idea of diagnosis that underlies the new edition of the PDM: the PDM-2, published in 2017 in the United States and translated in Italy in 2018. Incidentally, I ‘can’t help but notice how the name of this publication, *Communicate*, underlies what I call “sensible diagnosis for sensible clinicians”. This is because the idea of diagnosis completely immerses in its etymological root: knowledge (-gnosis) through (dia-) – through relationship, i.e. communication.

In his *General Psychopathology*, the philosopher and psychiatrist Karl Jaspers (1913) states that, for the clinician, “all diagnostic systems must represent a torment”. This phrase taught me a lot, pushing me to consider this “torment” as a tension: the diagnostic tension between the need to bring the patient back to a general category and, at the same time, to his uniqueness. When, speaking of a patient, I say that he or she has a “narcissistic” or “obsessive” personality, or that he or she has an anxiety disorder (to mention known diagnoses), I am speaking of him or her as belonging to an “ideal” community of symptoms and structures. This diagnostic gestalt is never perfectly superimposable on the person I have in front of me, nevertheless essential for understanding and treating that patient. This should not make me forget that I am talking about the unique way in which that patient deals with the symptoms and dynamics of narcissism, obsessiveness or anxiety. That is why in our clinical work, teaching and supervision, we must achieve and maintain a binocular vision, capable of including the general and the particular, the diagnostic label and the case formulation. It is the only way not to “shipwreck” the diagnostic process between the Scylla of bureaucratic compilation and the Charybdis of idiosyncratic and self-referential jargon. Both mortify the professional identity of the clinician and mitigate or distort his ability to detect and describe the characteristics and mental functioning of the patient, thus jeopardising the clinical relationship.

For this reason, I have put a lot of effort into the promotion and development in the Italian context of “sensible and sensitive” diagnostic systems, first the Shedler-Westen Assessment Procedure (SWAP), aimed at personality assessment, and now the PDM-2. My bet is to bring back into the act of diagnosing not only interest but also passion, challenge and pleasure.

Suppose that psychodynamic diagnosis is a long journey. In that case, we imagine that it began in 1915 with these words of Freud: “We do not want simply to describe and classify phenomena, but to conceive of them as clues to a play of forces taking place in the psyche”. To be of actual use for clinicians, a diagnostic system must: consider psychopathology in the context of personality; conceive symptoms jointly with mental

functioning as a whole; collecting the ' 'patient's resources and not only his difficulties; the diagnosis in the life cycle (from early childhood to old age); consider the relational elements of the diagnostic act; consider the subjective experience that the patient has of his symptoms; enhance the role of the disciplined subjectivity of the clinician in the diagnostic formulation; contemplate, as already mentioned, both the synthetic value of the label and the specificity of the case narrative; promote clinical training (diagnosis as a moment of supervision) and make clinical and research dialogue. Above all, a diagnosis should never be thought of independently from treatment. When we quote Peter Fonagy's well-known formula: what works for whom, we must always think of the identical and hidden formula: what does not work for whom. The goodness of a diagnosis lies in its clinical translatability: as a synthesis of the problems and resources of a patient and as a guide to identifying the most appropriate therapeutic approach. If we isolate the diagnostic label from the therapeutic goals it contains, we risk making like the fool who, when the wise man points to the moon, looks at the finger.

When the first edition of the Psychodynamic Diagnostic Manual was published, psychiatric nosography was dominated by one approach, the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders. A categorical, rather than theoretical, and descriptive approach – based on the criteria of presence/absence of symptoms – is developed to identify, in a discrete manner, the respective mental disorders. Descriptiveness and not theoretical ways aimed to remove any remnants of psychoanalysis, minimising inferentiality – traditionally considered a “nuisance” variable. Over decades, each edition of the DSM included more and more disorders, promoting, along with an enrichment of the diagnostic landscape. Hence, also, progressive inflation of diagnoses and an overly sharp distinction between “healthy” and “sick”, “normality” and “pathology” (Frances, 2013). The PDM project, on the contrary, aims to offer the clinician a psychodynamic approach based on clinical literature and empirical research, which respects “disciplining” the subjectivity of the patient and the therapist and can describe the full range of individual functioning, from the most manifest aspects to the deep elements underlying the most characteristic emotional, cognitive, interpersonal and social patterns.

On the occasion of the release of the DSM-5, the American Psychoanalytic Association website stated: “There is a place in the field of mental health for classifying patients based on descriptions of their symptoms, the course of their pathology, and other objective elements. However, like psychoanalysts, we know that each patient is unique. No two individuals with the same disorder, whether depression, complicated

grief, anxiety, or any other type of mental pathology, will ever have the same potential, treatment needs, or responses to therapeutic interventions. Whether or not one values descriptive, diagnostic nomenclatures such as the DSM-5, psychoanalytic diagnostic assessment is a complementary and necessary assessment pathway that aims to provide a deep understanding of the complexity and uniqueness of each individual and should be part of every 'patient's diagnostic assessment for it to be accurate and complete. (...) We recommend the PDM to all mental health professionals interested in drawing a diagnostic picture that describes both the overt and profound aspects of an 'individual's symptom patterns, personality, and emotional and social functioning" (apsa.org, October 2013, cited in Lingiardi, McWilliams, 2017")."

With a new, expanded, and completely revamped edition, PDM-2 aims to reaffirm and reinforce the intentions of a symptom-oriented diagnosis and attentive to the specifics of the individual and their mental functioning at different stages of the life cycle. With Nancy McWilliams, we have thus coordinated several task forces that have given rise to specific sections: Adults, Adolescents (12-18), Childhood (4-11), Early Childhood (0-3), Seniors, plus a final section entirely devoted to Assessment Tools and Clinical Cases. In Table 1, I report the structure of the Manual schematically:

Table 1. General Structure of the Psychodynamic Diagnostic Manual (PDM-2)

Section I. Adulthood: PA-axis (Personality); M-axis (Mental functioning); S-axis (Symptoms and their subjectivity).
Section II. Adolescents (Adolescendcd): MA Axis; PA Axis: SA Axis.
Section III. Childhood: MC-axis; PC-axis; SC-axis.
Section IV. Infancy and Early Childhood (IEC 0-3): Axis I: Primary diagnosis; Axis II: Developmental functional and emotional skills; Axis III: Sensory processing regulation skills; Axis IV: Pattern and relational disorders; Axis V: Other medical and neurological diagnoses.
Section V. Seniors (Later life): ME-axis; PE-axis; SE-axis.
Section VI a. Assessment in the context of PDM-2 (Assessment)
Section VI b. Clinical cases and diagnostic profiles according to PDM-2 (Case illustrations and PDM-2 Profiles).
Appendices. Psychodiagnostic Charts

Like its predecessor, PDM-2 is intended more as a taxonomy of "people" than "a taxonomy of disorders". Its purpose is to provide the tools for in-depth clinical

understanding in case formulation and treatment planning, especially for those cases where psychotherapy is the most recommended modality of intervention. The PDM-2 offers the clinician-diagnostician the possibility to describe his patients in a systematic and specific way according to three axes: the level of organisation and personality syndromes (P-axis); the profile of mental functioning (considering 12 mental functions) (M-axis); the symptom patterns, including the 'patient's subjective experience of his symptoms and the possible emotional responses of the therapist (S-axis). In addition, each age group has its descriptors: for example, I report in Table 2 the scheme of the adolescent section (Axis MA, PA, SA).

Table 2. Multiaxial structure of PDM-2 - Adolescent Section

MA axis Profile of mental functioning	PA axis Levels of personality organisation and personality spectrums/styles/syndromes	SA axis Symptom patterns (only macro only the macro-categories)
1. Regulation, attention and learning skills 2. Ability to experience, communicate and understand affects 3. Mentalisation and reflective function 4. Ability to differentiate and integrate (identity) 5. Capacity for relationships and intimacy 6. Regulation of self-esteem and quality of internal experience 7. Ability to control	- Emerging "'normal' personality styles (healthy level) - Mildly dysfunctional emerging personality styles (neurotic level) - Emerging dysfunctional personality styles (borderline level) - Emerging severely dysfunctional personality styles (psychotic level) Internalising spectrum Depressive personalities Anxious-avoidant personalities Schizoid personalities Externalising spectrum Antisocial-psychopathic personalities	SA0 Healthy responses SA01 Developmental and adaptive crises SA1 Disorders with predominantly psychotic manifestations SA2 Mood disorders SA27 Suicidality SA28 Non-suicidal self-harm SA3 Disorders predominantly related to anxiety SA4 Disorders related to life events and stressful conditions SA5 Somatic symptom disorder and related disorders

<p>and regulate impulses</p> <p>8.Defensive functioning</p> <p>9.Adaptive capacity, resilience and psychological resources</p> <p>10.Capacity for self-observation (psychological mindset)</p> <p>11.Ability to construct and use standards and ideals</p> <p>Meaning and directionality</p>	<p>Narcissistic personalities</p> <p>Paranoid personalities</p> <p>Borderline-deregulated spectrum</p> <p>Impulsive-histrionic personalities</p> <p>Borderline personalities</p> <p>Dependent-victimised personalities</p> <p>Personality style</p> <p>Obsessive-compulsive personalities</p>	<p>SA8 Psychophysiological disorders</p> <p>SA81 Nutrition and eating disorders</p> <p>SA9 Disruptive behaviour disorders</p> <p>SA93 Substance use disorders</p> <p>SA94 Internet addiction disorder</p> <p>SA10 Patterns in adolescence</p> <p>Of disorders with onset in childhood/adolescence</p> <p>SA101 Autism spectrum disorder</p> <p>SA102 Attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder</p> <p>SA103 Specific Learning Disorders</p> <p>SApp</p> <p>Psychological experiences that may require clinical attention</p> <p>SApp1 Demographic minorities (ethnic, cultural, linguistic, religious, political)</p> <p>SApp2 Lesbian, gay and bisexual people</p> <p>SApp3 Gender incongruence</p>
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The order of assessment of the three axes depends on the age of the subject.

While with adult patients, the clinician has to assess first the P-axis, then the M-axis and finally the S-axis, with adolescent, child, and elderly patients, the clinician has to assess first the M-axis, then the P-axis (since, for example, in childhood and adolescence personality is an “emerging” dimension, still in the process of formation) and last the S-axis. Finally, the diagnostic assessment of early childhood (IEC, 0-3 years) is organised in a stand-alone way according to five axes (see Table 1; for an in-depth description, see Hope, Malberg, Steele, 2018).

Compared to the previous edition, PDM-2 has a stronger foundation in empirical research. It also includes contributions from the field of neuroscience and infant research. Other theoretical-clinical orientations (e.g. cognitive-behavioural or systemic-familial) promote a truly accurate diagnostic formulation that considers each treatment project and the individual as a whole. Of particular relevance is the addition of assessment tools directly derived from the manual [particularly the Psychodiagnostic Chart (PDC-2) and its versions for each age group].

The PDM-2 diagnoses are “‘prototypical’, i.e. they are not based on the idea that a list of symptoms with equal weighting is sufficient to describe a diagnostic category (the ‘polythetic’ approach of the DSM), but on the assumption that the ‘patient’s clinical presentation may have varying degrees of similarity or overlap with the description of a prototype or “‘ideal ‘type’ of a disorder. Moreover, although some sections refer to the psychopathological labels used in current diagnostic taxonomies, PDM-2 also highlights patients’ internal, subjective experience presenting with such conditions. This approach does not regard pathology as a form of maladjustment in its own right: as we shall see, the P-axis provides for a healthy level of personality organisation, everyone has the capacities that go to define the M-axis profiles of mental functioning, and many, in some circumstances, may experience the psychological experiences described in the S-axis. As Paolo Legrenzi (2018) has written, in the “psychological diagnosis” of the PDM-2, the focus is more on dimensionality than on categorical differences of the normal (or standard)/healthy/sick triad.

The M-axis of the PDM-2 offers a detailed description of an individual’s mental functioning profile by examining a set of capacities (or “‘mental ‘functions’”) that define an individual’s psychological health status (see also Lingiardi, Colli, Muzi, 2018). Suppose the P-axis requires clinicians to examine the level of organisation and specific patterns/disorders of the patient’s personality. In that case, the M-axis encourages them to consider and assess 12 specific areas of mental functioning (see list in Table 2) to evaluate all the elements that contribute to determining the level of organisation of the

patient's personality. Although the M-axis is divided into 12 specific and differentiated mental functions, it is essential to remember that these are not independent of each other. Mental functioning should be conceived as a set of connected and integrated processes - a totality, a unicum, which, in the Aristotelian sense, can be operationalised into several contiguous categories. Each mental function is accompanied by descriptions that illustrate the different levels of functioning, from the healthiest to the most impaired, together with specific descriptors that also allow assessments at a quantitative level. Finally, a list of the most relevant assessment tools for that specific area is provided for each function.

As clinicians and researchers, teachers and supervisors, we realise every day that many young colleagues in training feel lost in a diagnostic world entirely entrusted to the biomedical area, experiencing the lack of a nosographic system articulated in a more psychological sense, which takes into account the pathological elements as well as the adaptive ones, the general elements as well as the individual ones (Lingiardi, 2018). PDM-2 aims to promote and emphasise the dynamic, relational and intersubjective aspects of diagnosis and to provide clinicians with an adequate explanatory framework to help them in the difficult task of understanding the complex clinical material they are confronted with within the framework of their daily practice. Without attention to these aspects, the diagnostic process loses its meaning and becomes the mere application of a routine. This risk undermines clinicians' professional identity and weakens and distorts their ability to describe and grasp the most salient features of a patient's mental functioning, also jeopardising the therapeutic relationship, which, as we know, is the factor that most influences the outcome of a treatment.

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SECTION 2.

PEDAGOGY

(EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES)



THE “CORRESPONDENCE” OF NICOGHAYOS ADONTS

Dedicated to the 150th birth anniversary of the great byzantinist and armenologist

Abstract

The letters of famous people are national and universal-sounding events. This is a reality from antic times, the manifestations of which are also present in the ancient, medieval, as well as new and modern Armenian literature.

We have in our possession 135 letters of the internationally renowned byzantinist, armenologist, philologist and historian Nicoghayos Adonts, written from 1893 to 1940.

The 135 letters of Nicoghayos Adonts, with corresponding notes, were prepared to publication by historian Petros Hovhanissian, who devoted his whole life to the study and publication of Adont's scientific heritage. The 7th volume of the works of the famous scientist is dedicated to these letters.

Adonts' "Correspondence" contains numerous letters addressed to N. Marr, N. Akinian, G. Hovsepian, T. Gushakian, K. Zarian and others, the theses in which are basic and can still be used by linguists, critics, politicians, historians and people involved in science in general.

Keywords: N. Adonts, N. Marr, Brussels, Paris, Byzantium, Armenia, science, patriotism, Armenian Issue, genocide.

Introduction

The letters of famous people are national and universal-sounding events. This is a reality from antic times, the manifestations of which are also present in the ancient, medieval, as well as new and modern Armenian literature. It is enough to remember the letters of Movses Khorenatsi, Ghazar Parpetsi, Nerses Shnorhali, Khachatur Abovian, Gevorg Akhverdian, Hovhannes Tumanian, Avetik Isahakian and others, which are of public value and resonance.

The Pedagogical value of Adonts' letters

We have in our possession 135 letters of the internationally renowned byzantinist, armenologist, philologist and historian Nicoghayos Adonts, written from 1893 to 1940.

Adonts had an interesting life. Born in 1871 in the village of Brnakot of the province of Syunik, he learned from an early age that he was of noble descent from both his father

and mother. The young boy was educated in the school of the Tathev Monastery, then in the Gevorkian Seminary, and then in the Russian Gymnasium of Tiflis (Georgia).

Always having a great thirst for education, thanks to the pension of the great national benefactor Alexander Mantashian, he studied in the faculties of Eastern Languages and History of St. Petersburg University, where his extraordinary capacity of learning aroused the admiration of the lecturers, especially his teacher and supervisor Nicolas Marr. Under the sponsorship of the latter, Adonts left to continue his studies in famous European universities and libraries. He went to London, Paris, Vienna, Munich, Strasbourg, Venice, Brussels and other European cities. He studied with famous byzantinists and armenologists, became proficient in understanding English, French, German, ancient classical languages as Greek, Syriac, Latin and cuneiform scripts of different nations.

The 135 letters of Nicoghayos Adonts, with corresponding notes, were prepared to publication by historian Petros Hovhanissian, who devoted his whole life to the study and publication of Adont's scientific heritage. The 7th volume of the works of the famous scientist is dedicated to these letters.

We see almost nothing in Adont's letters about his own life. Everything is connected with education (this is the first period of letters), and then with his scientific and social activities. Adonts worked at the University of Brussels for many years. Mushegh Ishkhan, who studied at that University for two years, says in his memoirs that Adonts would "take the professors of the University to the water spring and bring them back thirsty". Adonts was able to value himself and his nation in front of strangers: "He was an Armenian man in the traditional, modern, noble sense of the word.

Adonts' letters are addressed to the editors-in-chief of Armenian and foreign periodicals of the time, as well as to prominent Armenian and foreign scholars, to whom he addressed urgent scientific and national questions.

Among the letters of the first period a large number is addressed to N. Marr and were written from different cities of Europe and are connected with the problems of education. In those letters, which were mostly in Russian, Adonts tells about his achievements in education, future goals and impressions he received from European cities. On November 18, 1900, he wrote about Paris: "The city is wonderful in its appearance and really beautiful. The squares are especially wonderful, decorated with wonderful monuments. The whole history of France can be studied, not in a bad way at all, by wandering in these parks and squares, everything you know from gymnasium. That year an international exhibition was opened in Paris, in which many nations had their pavilions. Adonts toured the exhibition, where there was no Armenian pavilion, and looked for Armenian exhibits

in Russian and Turkish pavilions. The Turkish pavilion was miserable. Between the lines, he reports that they say H. Gelzer was going to write an article praising Turks on the Armenian Issue. I don't know how true that is, but I am sorry that he was so misled. The Armenian Gospel of the Moscow Lazarian Seminary, written in 887, was displayed in the Russian pavilion. The coins of Tigran the Great and the Rubenids dynasty were sold in some Armenian kiosks in Paris, which he was careful to buy for fear that they were counterfeit. He watched with a special envy the very exemplary pavilions of the Balkan countries with small population.

There are many letters written in Armenian to Karapet Yezian, in which he announces that he intends to study comparative linguistics at the Sorbonne University with Antoine Meillet and the Syriac language with Auguste Carrière.

It turns out that Adonts had financial difficulties during his studies, about which he speaks very restraint. For example, he never accepted that an Armenian should look poor in foreign countries and be dressed in a no decent manner. He dressed as neatly and fashionable as possible and demanded the same from his Armenian students. The pension he received from Mantashian was sometimes not enough to buy presentable clothes and books. He applied to Karapet Yezian to intervene in Mantashian's fund to increase his pension. And finally the issue was solved when he personally met Mantashian in Paris. In the letter of March 8, 1801, to N. Marr, we read: "I am extremely happy to inform you that my incident ended extremely successfully. Here in Paris, I had the opportunity to talk to Mantashev. He received me very kindly. He asked some questions and in the end he agreed to continue the sponsorship for another year. He sent a telegram to Tiflis and I received the money the other day.

In his letters, the future famous byzantinist often speaks about his researches in Byzantine sources, constantly comparing them with the reports of Armenian historians. He very diligently compared the History of Armenia of Faust of Byzantium with the works of Amianus Marcelinos talking about the same people and his historical events.

Adonts was closely following the Armenian and foreign-language press. There are especially many letters addressed to the editorial board of "Handes Amsorea", to which he was a subscriber for many years.

In 1904, in his review "Messenger of Literature and Art", Adonts thanked G. Aristakesian, who had undertaken the obligation to provide the review financially, and informed the readers that the artistic section of the review would be edited by the famous painter Vardkes Sureniants.

Keeping in focus Western and Eastern Armenian literature, fluent in both branches

of Armenian language, Adonts tried to undertake the noble task of solving the problems of young and talented Armenian writers. On March 2, 1904, he wrote a letter to the Council of Armenian Churches of Petersburg to help Atom Yarjanian, a student at the Sorbonne University, who had symptoms of tuberculosis. "His future is connected with Armenian literature, his loss will be a loss for Armenian literature.

Adonts' historical and philological interests were wide. In a letter written to Galust Ter-Mkertchian on November 18, 1908, he said that he had learned from Marr that G. Ter-Mkertchian had found information about the origin of the Tsat nation in the Armenian sources. Later, in 1911, Adonts' article On the Origin of Armenian- Tsats was published in the volume I of the armenologist's works.

If there were manuscripts that the great scientist could not have at his disposal, he wrote to the specialists to send him copies of them. In Europe he was often annoyed by the lack of Armenian books and he kept asking his close friends to send him those books.

He has several letters addressed to Archimandrite Tirayr, who devoted his whole life to study Frik's work, but was able to publish only in 1952 in New York a valuable and large volume entitled Frik, Collection of Poems, in which he denied that the poet was from Cilicia, and according to the language of his poems, he considered him born in Artsakh.

There are letters addressed to Karapet Kostanian, whose greatest work was the publication in 1910 of Grigor Magistros' letters in Alexandropole. In his letter of April 28, 1917, Adonts says that the letter of August 1916 was lost, because he had gone to his native country. In the summer of 1916 he took part in archeological expeditions in the cities of Van, Mush and Karin.

The Armenian Issue and the historical rights of the Armenian people were one of the main problems of the scientist. On April 14, 1918, Adonts sent a telegram to the German ambassador in Constantinople. He wrote with legitimate anger in this telegram: "Taking advantage of the retreat of the Russian army, the Turkish troops immediately invaded the defenseless country, moreover, they murdered not only the Turkish-Armenians, but also all the Russian-Armenians. Opposing the conditions of peace, that recognized the right of the whole Caucasus to self-determination, the Turkish army moved to Kars and Ardahan, deserting the country and massacring the Christian population. At that time, Adonts was the plenipotentiary of the National Council of Petrograd and, at the same time, he worked as a professor at the University of Petrograd.

On November 7, 1920, the professor sent an angry letter to the editor of the "Times" of London. It seems that the letter is written today. He angrily recalls how the French generals set up with the Turkish bandits on the corpses of a handful of Armenians who

took refuge in Cilicia. He criticizes the rulers of England, France and Italy, on whose conscience the Armenian Issue is like a heavy stone. Armenians have been suffering under the pressure of fraud and betrayal for half a century: “Now that the almost impossible had been done, Russian communism has fallen on their backs, this time with Turkish barbarism.

Adonts finishes his letter with the conclusion that maybe the Armenians will turn away from Europe once and forever with the dolourous conviction that the best of human virtues, the conscience, has been hopelessly silenced there. The letter was also published in the 6th Volume of Adonts’ works.

Adonts has rightly taken on the sacred role of regulator of the Armenian intellectual life. He was very concerned about the issue of educating the new Armenian generation with a patriotic spirit and national dignity.

On October 23, 1930, addressing the editorial office of “Apage” newspaper, Adonts on behalf of the Armenian Literary Union of Paris, reminded that November 8 marked the centenaries of the birth of Mikael Nalbandian and Raphael Patkanian. He was convinced that the patriotic heritage of Nalbandan and Patkanian should be precious to the Armenian people.

It was very important for Adonts to be armed with professional knowledge. He closely followed the Armenian press and the articles published in it. In the letter addressed to Kostan Zarian, he strongly criticizes the journalists of “Haraj” newspaper: “The press is in the hands of unprepared people. “Haraj” is a nest of vultures, uneducated and ignorant puppies, to talk to, to quarrel with them would mean to honor them, to humiliate one’s own dignity.

At Arshak Chobanian’s request, the armenologist’s letter-opinion on Abgar Payazat’s book *The Key of the Khaldi Language* was addressed to the latter. Adonts does not share the contents of Hrachia Ajarian’s warm preface written in old Armenian at the beginning of the book. He sees mistakes, errors, self-explanatory interpretations in it. He compares some of the Payazat’s linguistic inventions with the history of the Armenian peasants, according to whom the word *minister* was borrowed by Russians from Armenians. In Armenian *minister* means *do not sit*, because the minister has no right to sit before the king. “We should note with regret that the etymologies of Payazat are of such inventions.

Adonts’ last letter is addressed to Artashes Chilinkarian. We learn from it that in 1939 the scientists went to Paris and gave a lecture on “Armenian national epics David of Sassun”. Unfortunately, the speech about the Armenian national epics David of Sassun was oral, without a note. In order to make the lecture written he needed time that he did

not have. World War II broke out in Europe, which deeply depressed the scientist, he hated revolutions and wars. In addition, he had serious health problems. And for the first time in one of his letters we see despair; “The turbulent atmosphere affected me so much that I felt the weakness that comes from old age or depression. There is no hint of a bright, cheerful light, neither personal, nor patriotic, nor anywhere, that would bring relief to my frozen essence with new hopes. I am afraid that my plans will be incomplete or as depressing as I am.

At the beginning of his emigration years, Adonts confessed that leaving his homeland, he left his relatives hopeless, in fact, preferring to serve the nation and science. He always dreamed of the rebirth of his homeland.

On April 24, 1929, during the commemoration of the victims of the Armenian Genocide in Paris on his own initiative and under his presidency, he addressed his compatriots with brief and influential words: “There is no victory without defeat. When branches of a tree are cut down, it sheds fresh branches. Each of you must fulfill his duty for the sake of freedom.

Adonts “Correspondence” contains numerous letters addressed to N. Marr, N. Akinian, G. Hovsepien, T. Gushakian, K. Zarian and others, the theses in which are basic and can still be used by linguists, critics, politicians, historians and people involved in science in general.

Discussion

The article presents for the first time N. Adonts’ scientific, pedagogical and research interests, which are expressed in his letters. These letters are addressed to Armenian and foreign scholars, various representatives of the periodicals, dedicated to Byzantine studies, armenology, pedagogy and other important issues in other fields. They were the life guides of the scientist and contributed to the general development of the scientific fields he chose.

Conclusion

The letters by L. Adonts have never been observed from the pedagogical point of view. This is the first attempt. He has passed through a long scientific and pedagogical way. The well-known professor has taught for long years in the University of Saint-Petersburg. His fame was especially spread when in 1931 a Chair of Armenology was opened in the Brussels University especially for him. He remained its responsible until his death. In his letters of the first period Adonts is already presenting how important are scientific honesty, discipline, the profound knowledge of the chosen field and of different languages, as well as awareness of the international experience.

His letters make it clear how many international scientific and pedagogical ties had the professor.

Adonts' letters are very important to study today for scientist who devoted themselves to pedagogy.

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THE SOCIAL-PSYCHOLOGICAL AND PEDAGOGICAL ASPECTS OF ACMEOLOGY

Abstract

Acmeology is an anthropological science, which studies person's spiritual, intellectual, physical, as well as individual, personal and professional development features, factors and patterns during his life maturity. The article describes the methodological bases of acmeology, its development stages, branches, scientific-practical problems related to the improvement of a person during his professional activity and the highest manifestation of his vital potential. Theoretical and practical issues of andragogy are interpreted based on the analysis of social survey data.

Keywords: *Acme, acmeology, higher degree, andragogy, professionalism, maturity, vital potential, diagnostic methods in acmeology.*

Introduction

In the modern age of globalization, the public is very concerned about the issues related to professionalism, human resources and employment.

The development of new methodological bases in the system of anthropological sciences acquires special significance in the conditions of political, socio-economic, ethnocultural-demographic shifts, market relations, rule of law and democratic society. This is a science, the subject of which is the patterns and principles of the formation of a person's personality, maximum manifestation during professional activity, self-improvement, self-realization, professional-creative development.

Rethinking the ways, means and opportunities of a person's education and development throughout his life, becoming a professional, full disclosure of internal opportunities in an appropriate social environment, activities, commensurate with a person's social status, are possible only by developing such theoretical basic concepts, which are based on new approaches to the problem of human development.

New branches of anthropological science are developing, such as acmeology and

synergetics, acmeology and pedagogy, which outline fundamentally new approaches in the spheres of human personality development, combining the achievements of philosophy, pedagogy, psychology, genetics, physiology, valeology.

Discussion

The basis of acmeology as a science about human being lies in the origins of human civilization and goes through several stages of development. Note that still ancient thinkers were interested in the issues of human self-realization in the world, maximum manifestation of vital potential, self-realization, comprehensive knowledge of the world, formation of views, attainment of the highest degree of perfection in ontogeny, manifestation of human potential from the beginning.

Apollodorus, a representative of the Alexandrian school in 144 B.C. developing the doctrine of acme, emphasizes the highest level of human development as the maximum manifestation of activity, perfection, the peak of activity the introduction of vital forces.

The word *acme* translates from Greek and means peak, height, highest degree. (Kashapov, 2011, p. 5). Acme, according to ancient thinkers, is a state of manifestation of the physical and mental strength of an individual, in which the highest level of human vital activity is achieved - awakening, rebirth of mental potential.

The ideas of the maximum manifestation of vital forces during the life at a certain age were expressed in the views of the Greek philosopher Plato. He combined the realization of creative potential with self-improvement (Starikova, 2008, p. 59).

Leonardo da Vinci expressed acmeological approaches to the acquisition of creative mastery too. Representatives of different directions of philosophy, psychology and physiology have expressed philosophical ideas about human self-improvement, wisdom, professional self-realization in different stages throughout his life A. Berdyaev, V. U. Solovyov, N. O. Lossky, N. I. Pirogov, V. U. Berdyaev.

Acmeological ideas were also expressed in the field of culture. At the beginning of the 20th century an acmeological direction was formed among the Russian intelligentsia - acmeism, the founders of which A. A. Akhmatova, N. U. Gumilyov, O. E. Mandelstam and others have expressed remarkable views on human self-realization, perfection, the aesthetics of emotions, the supremacy of values.

The goal of acmeology is human perfection, the person's support in reaching the heights of physical, mental and professional development, select of the appropriate forms and means of humanitarian content (. (Kashapov, 2011, pp.3-7).

The development of acmeology in the history of world culture has taken place in several stages, but received serious scientific substantiation in the 1920s. At 1928

researcher N. A. Rybinsky introduced the concept of "acmeology" as a science about the development of an adult.

In the middle of the 20th century Russian psychologist B. G. Ananyev considered acmeology as a system of sciences that emphasizes the study of the life stages and age characteristics of a person as an individual. He described "acme" as a period of active manifestation and mastery of an adult's social and professional abilities (Starikova, 2008, p.7)

The 90s of the 20th century are considered to be the stage of creation of the theory of Acmeology, scientific-methodological substantiation, in the field of which many researches have been carried out by A. A. Bodalyov, A. A. Derkach and other scientists (Derkach, 2004, p. 3).

At the beginning of the 21st century, acmeology is viewed in the context of the harmonious cooperation of the individual and society in relation to culture, philosophical anthropology, values, ethno-ecology. In various scientific researches, it is considered as a science about the personal peculiarities, general patterns of activity manifested at the highest level of human development, as well as about professionalism. (Sisyan, & Babayan, & Aghuzumtsyan, 2015, p. 161).

Acmeology as a science has several manifestations and branches: classical, fundamental and applied.

Classical acmeology is considered as a branch of age psychology, including pedology, youth (juvenology), and gerontology.

Fundamental acmeology views man as a complete system. Its subject is the discovery and substantiation of the patterns, conditions, factors of the realization of the creative potential during the life of an adult and in the professional activity. Its a new interdisciplinary science that unites the worldview-methodological data of philosophy, psychology, pedagogy, sociology, applied and other social sciences, which consider the paths of a person to the heights of cognition and pedagogical-psychological technologies of achieving new results.

Applied acmeology considers these approaches in specific areas of activity: professional, management, political, military, medical, psychological, sociological, legal, economic, pedagogical, etc.

Acmeological approaches distinguish age, educational and professional aspects, which determine the activity of the subject in the process of developing professional skills and professionalism.

The age aspect refers to the characteristics of the diagnosis and manifestation of

human abilities at different stages of life.

The educational aspect emphasizes the diagnosis and development of knowledge and skills in the system of general, vocational and continuing education.

Being in close interaction with the theory of management, pedagogy, and psychology, in the field of professional activity, acmeology significantly changes the emphasis in the system of lifelong learning.

The professional point of view emphasizes the definition of opportunities and results of work activity, psychological readiness for the given type of activity, the degree of social responsibility for the results of that activity.

Acmeology studies the phenomena and patterns of a person's personal and professional development at the stage of his maturity, especially in the context of achieving higher results and being the best in that period of development. (Gevorgyan, Hakobyan, Saratikyan, & Hovhannisyan, 2014, p.15).

In psychology the maturity is viewed as an intermediate stage between youth and old age. It is the most significant period of ontogeny, which is characterized by caring, cognitive, tendencies to achieve maximum physical development. The chronological frames of adulthood are quite conventional. From an acmeological point of view, adulthood is considered to be around 35/40 to 55/60. An adult is characterized by high responsibility, social activity, self-control, self-realization. The development of a person at this age is directly related to his active involvement in social and labor activities.

B. Ananov, A. Leontev, M. Makhchanyan and other researchers, considering experimental data on the psychological, pedagogical and physiological processes of adults, claim that the possibilities of a person's cognitive activity reach their peak during their maturity, involvement in social and work activities (Makhchanyan, & Manukyan, 1997, p. 105).

Psychological data shows that although there is a relative decrease in the characteristics of middle-aged people's psychophysiological functions (for example, in memory, in attention) however, does not affect on their ability to work (Makhchanyan, & Manukyan, 1997, p. 96). The work-creative activity of a person is fully preserved.

As a person gets older, his cognitive abilities, such as memory speed and efficiency, inductive thinking, perception and reinterpretation of new connections and relationships, decrease and gradually increase a person's ability to form new relationships, make judgments, and analyze problems.

Therefore, many human cognitive abilities continue to grow with age. An adult realizes himself as a more independent, self-governing, vitally motivated person with

more experience.

From the point of view of acmeology, the peak of maturity, acme, is considered as a comprehensive characteristic of an adult, which includes a certain period of development: related to professional, personal and social achievements, allowing to study the features of the most important stages of human development in adulthood.

For example, in Ancient Greece, doxographers (authors of works that contained the thoughts and sayings of famous philosophers), while writing the biographies of prominent people, did not mention the dates of their births and deaths, but the period when they became famous for their achievements, reaching the highest peak of their activity.

Acmeology applies some diagnostic methods that are used in psychology, pedagogy, psychiatry, social psychology and other related sciences. At the same time, it would be wrong to underestimate such proven methods as conversation, observation, experiment, test methods, etc. These methods have powerful diagnostic functions.

Acmeology of these diagnostic methods, as well as other methods, is predetermined, first of all, not by their name and not even by their structure, but by their content. Acmeological diagnostics is primarily fixed on the development of people, on their professionalism, "acme". One of them is that the effect of complexity (and acmeology is a complex science) significantly increases the efficiency of the entire diagnostic system.

Diagnostic methods in acmeology, psychology can be classified according to various formalological grounds. On the basis of the acmeological approach, it is possible to overcome many problems in the development of diagnostic methods in modern human science. In particular, the combination of such methods as observation, testing, psychobiographical method, etc., can make it possible to create expert systems that have signs of artificial intelligence. Such systems are actually created in universities where acmeology, pedagogy and psychology are studied. They are acmeology courses.

Researches, done in the field of acmeology shows that one of the main directions of the reform and development of the educational system are the development of basic sciences dedicated to the improvement of human beings in achieving certain results, the realization of internal capabilities,

as well as the use of modern technologies in the development of professionalism and personality

in such a changeable geopolitical, socio-cultural conditions. Acmeology studies those issues, that are related to human self-education, self-organization, improvement, processes of self-realization, patterns, factors, socio-cultural conditions, which aspires the person, as an individual \cup subject of activity.

In the initial period of formation, the object of acmeology was teachers activity. *Andragogy* is the branch of pedagogy that deals with the theoretical-practical issues of adult education, teaching, learning, self-education. Andragogy operates in accordance with the age characteristics of the learners, vital and professional experience, taking into account the cognitive interests, professional needs, service status and the resulting emotional-psychological manifestations, rights and responsibilities, professionally significant personal qualities.

Note, that A. Derkach conducted a multi-year research in this area. He generalized the researches, clarified the theoretical-methodological bases of acmeology, determined the most important scientific directions, outlined the perspectives related to the study of the problem of becoming a professional in different spheres of activity.

Materials and Methods

In the field of andragogy research are the issues of organizing education in accordance with the age peculiarities of students, their life experience, cognitive interests, self-development need and internal motivations, communication and social contacts, which determine the specificity and methods of organizing the educational process.

To identify a number of theoretical-practical problems of education, training, learning, self-education, self-development, professional development we conducted a sociological survey. It was conducted among 40 students over the age of 30 of Master's degree programs at the faculties of Primary Education and Philology at Armenian State Pedagogical University after Kh. Abovyan, Yerevan, Republic of Armenia. The following data was received.

To the question "What is the main reason for your learning in the distance learning system?" 23.9% of respondents answered "Acquiring new knowledge, technological skills", 37% - "the need to acquire a new profession according to the requirements of the labor market", 26.1% - "awareness of supplementing professional knowledge for further self-development"; 13% - "fear of losing a job". From the point of view of acmeology, it is noteworthy that 37% of the respondents consider the need to acquire a new profession according to the requirements of the labor market, that means they evaluate the review of their opportunities at a certain age and see new perspectives of professional development.

The next question was: "In which forms of educational work do your skills show the most?" 28.3% answered - "interactive lectures", 39.1% - "group lessons / seminar, practical", 32.6% - "individual independent work". As we can see, a larger number of respondents prefer group-individual ways of organizing educational work, apparently they

feel more relaxed and confident in those ways, they are able to express themselves.

"What would you like to see more towards you in the educational process?" 47.8% of the respondents mentioned "personalized approach", 19.6% - "feedback", 32.6% - "involvement in research projects". It is noteworthy that 47.8% of respondents would like to see a personalized approach to him.

To the question "What experience do you have in the field of your professional activity?" 23.9% of the respondents mentioned: "I have experience in another profession", 13% - "I have no work experience", 63% - "I have 3 years - more experience in this profession". This data is remarkable in the fact that, apparently, 63% of the respondents feel the need for professional self-development during their work activity.

To the question "How do you feel when studying with younger students?" 8.7% of the respondents mentioned "discomfort, depression". 19.6% - "distrust of self-expression", 37% - "initially constrained, then free communication", 34.8% - "enthusiasm, activity - striving for self-affirmation". The fact that the least number of respondents feel uncomfortable while studying with younger students can be considered positive.

To the question "In your opinion, do teachers have a certain attitude towards students of a given age in the educational process?" 37% said "I feel a certain motivating attitude", 45.7% - "there is a stimulating and supportive approach according to the situation", 17.4% of students - "I do not feel special attitude". We consider the fact that 37% of the respondents feel motivating to be quite positive.

To the question "What difficulties do you feel during your studies?" 15.2% of the surveyed students mentioned "educational", 23.9% - "communication", 41.3% - "search and processing of electronic materials", 19.6% - "any" I do not feel any difficulty. " It is worrying that more and more respondents are having difficulty working with electronic materials.

To the question "What is your main motivation for studying at university?" 19.6% of the respondents mentioned "the desire to get postgraduate education", 6.5% - "the prospect of studying abroad", 73.9% - "the need to develop self-improvement skills". The data obtained are typical from the point of view of acmeology, that is, the majority in adulthood feel the need to develop self-improvement skills.

To the question "Do you have any difficulties in using the media during your studies?", 39.1% of the students said "yes", 45.7% - "sometimes, depending on the situation", 15.2% - "no".

To the question "When there is a need to use media technologies, what is your approach abroad?" 45.7% of the respondents answered "I am acquiring relevant skills",

23.9% - "I complain, but I still try to overcome", 30.4% - "I can not, I turn to for help." We consider it positive that the majority of respondents prefer to acquire relevant skills in terms of using media technologies, while 30.4% turn to others for help. This data leads to the development of certain approaches in the process of acquiring practical skills of media technologies during their studies.

The analysis of the survey data allows us to make the following conclusions:

✓ The motivation for getting an education in adulthood is the need to acquire a new profession according to the requirements of the labor market, the need to develop self-improvement and skills;

✓ There are some difficulties in working with electronic materials and the use of media technologies, but there is a purpose to master them;

✓ In social-psychological terms, learners generally do not feel barriers in interacting with students younger than themselves, they are even more active they also have the function of encouraging and supporting teachers;

✓ Group work is more preferable for them, but they would like a personalized approach to them.

Results

The data obtained from our observations on the peculiarities of the process of education in adulthood allow us to distinguish a number of theoretical-practical approaches to andragogy. It is important to assess certain traits, personal-professional qualities in a person, for example, ability to work, the need for self-education, creative activity, flexibility, adaptability, tolerance, independence, self-control, mobility, awareness and need to learn new things according to changing conditions. The key to the process of organizing adult education is the compatibility of personal and professional characteristics with the new educational requirements, the mature assessment of events and phenomena from the point of view of one's life experience, critical thinking, reflection, planning and organization of his / her educational activities, stable position, adequate perception of changing conditions and adaptation of actions to environmental factors, quick adaptation to social situations. Thus, flexibility is expressed in the fact that the adult deeply feels and appreciates the need for demographic, socio-political shifts, technological developments, the use of media technologies in the current conditions of innovation processes, self-development, self-improvement and does not complain, for example, when it is required to use media tools, use media resources, but, on the contrary, makes efforts to acquire appropriate competencies. Indicators of flexibility and adaptability are communication, cooperation, willingness to work in a team with younger students in a

new environment, awareness and forecasting of innovations, perspective developments in the field of his profession, from the point of view of acmeology, it creates stable motives for self-development and self-determination at a certain age. The factor of targeted use of material-financial resources should not be ignored. When studying the social-pedagogical-psychological peculiarities of learning in adulthood, one should take into account the fact that a part of the learners have experience of professional activity, the need to transfer and exchange that experience. However, it should be taken into account that sometimes some of their approaches are already rooted, have become stable stereotypes, changing, reconstructing, revising them are not so smooth, tact, delicacy, mutual understanding are needed. Naturally, when working with adult learners, the teachers also use special skills of working with students of that age, the androgynous competences. Our research confirms that this is expressed not only in the mastery of the course content, the identification of problems, the students' analytical, comparative, generalization, abstraction skills, but also in maximum involving them in the discussions, in creating situations that can be based on their life experience, or have a problematic nature, pushing for interactive discussions, debates, research projects during the classes. Approaches can be expressed in issues such as creating a dialogue environment, developing group tasks, analyzing and evaluating work results, conducting consultations and trainings, communication styles/tools (linguistic, non-linguistic), informational, organizational, psychological, methodological etc. It is also important to exclude authoritarian style during the educational interaction with them, considering the needs of adults, cognitive processes, speed of their thinking, evaluation and monitoring, implementation of work-evaluation. We should not ignore the use of different methods of assessing the needs of students: surveys, self-assessment scales, essays, interviews, analysis of results and relevant conclusions. Teachers should focus on the issues of further self-education and development of research skills of students, which will push them to find problems in the professional field, to conduct research for solutions, to outline ways, methods and means.

It's a fact that acmeological approaches and manifestations may not be unambiguous for different people, as people are different in their abilities and have different opportunities for development.

However, there are some important areas of development that are in line with the methodological principles of human research. Here are some of our observations:

✓ In the process of adult education can be distinguished diagnostic, cognitive, educational, motivational, social, adaptive, social interaction, communication,

information, consulting, predictive, organizational, control functions. job opportunities, social status, worldview, value orientations of a person;

✓ It is necessary to use the individual opportunities of human development, peculiarities of work activity, social status, value orientations, social order of the society, labor market movements and demands, prospects of professional development, technological developments;

✓ Internal human motivations, social-psychological factors, striving for self-establishment, self-affirmation, self-realization.

In the field of acmeology, the main focus is on the highest achievements in the professional field. Therefore, the areas of acmeology that are related to the professional achievements of an adult are more relevant, especially with the socially oriented professional development of the subject.

However, the development of acmeology should not be limited to the science of professional development, First, a person's professional development does not take place in a narrow circle at all.

A person cannot be manifested only as a subject of work activity: Life experience confirms that a high level of professionalism is always conditioned by a high level of personal and individual factors. High professional abilities are manifested due to abilities, personal qualities, which determine the peculiarities of the activity and its results.

Conclusion

At present, researches are carried out in the field of acmeology, within the framework of which cognitive, sociological, psychological, multicultural, axiological, ethical, ethnographic, religious, physiological, valeological, technological and methodological aspects are identified.

There are still many problems in this field of science: to study the general and professional patterns of acmeology, to determine the general that is inherent in man, as a subject of activity of an individual, person, identify and coordinate the conditions and factors that contribute to or hinder human development and self-realization, attitude towards professional activity, development of personal and professional qualities.

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OUR EXPERIENCE TO DISCOVER THE ESSENCE OF PEDAGOGICAL FACILITATION

Abstract

Today, the changes of the education system conditioned by the new strategy of education are aimed not only at the modernization of the content and methodological tools of education but also at the reconstruction of the whole characteristic /structure/ of the subject implementing those changes. In this article, we have tried to present pedagogical facilitation in the context of modern education, the requirements for a pedagogue who has mastered the technology of facilitation, the content of the pedagogue-facilitator activity, and the research carried out in two stages reveals how the image of the facilitator-teacher is perceived in the students' consciousness. The quantitative and qualitative features of the facilitator-pedagogues were given.

Keywords: *Teacher-facilitator, pedagogical activity, teaching process, pedagogue's personal qualities, empathy, pedagogical delicacy, self-improvement.*

Introduction

The vision of building a new school in the 21st century should be based on developing new educational strategies and developing a person's moral values.

Changes and transformations in any human activity, including in the field of pedagogical professionalism, must start from its subject and creator. Thus, the student's morality is shaped by the morality of the teacher, knowledge by education, mastery by mastery. No modern technology of teaching and upbringing can help a teacher to carry out his/her pedagogical activity effectively if he/she is not personally and professionally ready for it (Asatryan L., Hakobyan G., Gevorgyan M., Asatryan M., Karapetyan N., Baghdasaryan A., 2017).

Pedagogical support presents several requirements both for the teacher's pedagogical-professional competence, for his/her professional-personal qualities, and his/her ability to build relationships with students. The most important function of a facilitator-teacher is that he/she should support the student in carrying out activities, stimulate a successful process for students, facilitate the successful solution of many problems that the students face, help them successfully master extensive and challenging

material in the classroom educational process. Be an assistant to the learner in developing personal, moral qualities, self-improvement, and scientific worldview.

In other words, everything depends on the development of basic human abilities. To be "here and now," to speak, to listen ("active listening" mode), to understand, and to act. (Romashina S.Ya., Mayer A. A., 2010)

The world-famous American pedagogue and psychologist Carl Rogers asks the following questions during his pedagogical activity:

1. First of all, the teacher's attitude towards the child's inner world. Every teacher, penetrating a child's inner world, should treat that world with care and without criticism.

2. Refers to the teacher-student relationship. Can the teacher build and maintain that relationship?

3. It is connected with revealing the interests of the child. Can the teacher identify the child's interests and try to satisfy them?

4. It refers to the child's personality's culture. In this case, is the teacher's culture sufficient to accept the new ideas born in the child?

5. Finally, the main question is whether the teacher can help his/her student to become a comprehensive, harmoniously developed person.

If the teacher can answer all these questions, he/she can become a facilitator. [3]

The facilitator is a leader, a teacher, whose primary goal is to stimulate, guide, help students find an easy way to analyze a specific issue or problem.

Facilitation/support can be accidental and unconscious or purposeful if carried out by a pedagogue-manager. Humanities psychologists K. Rogers and others have studied personality traits and pedagogical-managerial activities. K. Rogers seeks to overcome non-individual upbringing in the learning environment by addressing learners' interests, developing and fostering an individual approach in particular.

The central hypothesis of this approach is that a person can find vast resources of self-knowledge, changes in behavior, and self. Access to these resources is possible only if three conditions are met, which contribute to creating a certain facilitation psychological atmosphere. Those conditions are:

- Equal self-expression in communication, sincerity,
- Positive attitude towards others and accepting them without appreciation,
- Active empathic (emotional) listening and understanding (Shakhmatova, O. N., 2006).

In supporting the learning process, the teacher helps the learner acquire the necessary information and look for new ways to solve problems in the already known

material.

"The essence and the most important feature of a pedagogue's profession is that it cannot be a profession "for me." It implies a professional activity "for others." This activity combines teacher's self-realization and students' purposeful development, where the overall level of education, upbringing, and development of students is important." (Asatryan L., Hakobyan G., Gevorgyan M., Asatryan M., Karapetyan N., Baghdasaryan A., 2017). In this context, the teacher does not occupy the position of "instructor," but the role of "problem solver together with the learner" and transforms from the image of an authoritarian-pedagogue to a supporter-pedagogue. This promotes students' cognitive activity and interest, develops the ability to reflect, and optimizes their professional self-awareness.

Materials and Methods

The analysis of the theoretical and practical developments in the humanities in education and upbringing showed that the activity of the facilitator-pedagogue is not a particular method, but first of all, a specific direction of the person, a set of worldviews of values, life, and people.

In our opinion, to master the technology of facilitation, it is necessary to develop a sufficient level of teacher qualities, such as:

- Empathy / sensitivity /,
- Reflection, which is the process of self-knowledge of a person's mental acts and states. It is a person's activity, which is aimed at interpreting, analyzing, and drawing appropriate conclusions about one's own actions, inner states, feelings, emotions. In order for a person to be able to understand himself, to control and regulate his actions, to develop his inner world, he must have a high level of development of reflexivity. [1,17]
- High management culture,
- Respectfully and optimistically accept the learner who is capable of self-improvement,
- Pedagogical delicacy based on trust without tolerance, ease of communication without solemnity, influence without the pressure of independence, humor without ridicule,
- Creating situations of success, choosing the proper methods of encouragement, applying them at the right time, addressing the learner by name,
- Classroom atmosphere, which promotes creative activity,
- The ability to motivate and maintain learning,
- The ability to regulate communication with each student and group,

- The objectivity of the assessment of learners' activities,
- Ability to resolve disputes and conflicts fairly,
- Response culture.

The main difficulty is that the phenomenon of facilitation does not appear suddenly. The teacher's self-development and self-education precede it. The transition of a traditionally working teacher to such a new style is gradual, as it is associated with the slow reorganization of both himself/herself and the students. Therefore, the leaders are not so much the changes in the content and methods of teaching, but the formation and strengthening of the basic personal attitude, the constant professional growth of the teacher-educator (2016).

In the interpersonal interaction of educational subjects, pedagogues, and students, conditions are created to develop educational-professional motivation, which gives a cooperative nature to education. The current situation modernizes the need to study the conditions of optimal professional development of the person and develop technologies that positively impact the process. In addition to traditional forms and methods, personal development education envisages the use of developmental technologies: lectures on dialogue, modeling of professional situations, practical games, game exercises, training. The facilitator-pedagogue plays an essential role in the implementation of these technologies. There is a need for a pedagogue to take a new position to become a pedagogue-facilitator during their performance (Shakhmatova, O. N., 2006).

Thus, if we apply this hypothesis to the educational process, in order to activate the development of the person, it is necessary to create a special psychological atmosphere.

It should be noted that the facilitated pedagogical interaction has both the pedagogues on the students and the students on the pedagogue. Domestic researchers (E. N. Gusinsky, E. F. Zeer, L. N. Kulikova, A. B. Orlov, V. N. Smirnov, etc.) believed in Rogers' theory when defining the facilitation-pedagogical interaction. Pedagogical facilitation as a process aims to strengthen and lighten the effectiveness of education, teaching, and upbringing. The development of the subjects of pedagogical interaction is at the expense of the peculiarities of the learner and the pedagogue and their communication style. The teacher-facilitator (supervisor) is a pedagogue whose presence and influence facilitates students' initiative, independence, supports their psychological development, and ensures positive interpersonal interaction (Shakhmatova, O. N., 2006).

Research question

To find out how the image of the facilitator-teacher is perceived in the students' consciousness, we conducted research in which 60 students of 8-9th grades of Yerevan

secondary school N194 after A. Havhannisyan and 80 students of N48 high school participated.

In the first stage of the research, the peculiarities of the facilitator's perception of the person, his/her psychological perception, communication characteristics, and behavior were studied. The respondents were offered a questionnaire, which included 15 semi-open and open-ended questions, as well as an essay on the topic "The role of the pedagogue-facilitator in the student's life." The obtained results allowed to create the social-psychological portrait (image) of the pedagogue-facilitator, which was formed in the consciousness of the respondents. Given the expressions most often used in responses and essays, the facilitator is most often perceived as a pedagogue;

- ✓ who has a pleasant appearance, attractive voice and literate speech
- ✓ is able to understand learners' feelings
- ✓ shows an individual approach to each student
- ✓ treats learners with love and respect
- ✓ realizes pedagogical interaction as an equal with an equal
- ✓ He is a professional in his field, is able to show its modernity and arouses students' interest in his subject.

In order to reveal the quantitative and qualitative features of the facilitator-pedagogues in the second stage of this research, the existing pedagogues of the above-mentioned school were studied.

The students of the ASPU after Kh. Abovyan acted as the experts for this study. A set of methods have been developed to identify a component of pedagogues' activities, including conversation, personal questionnaires, and observations.

In order to develop the methodology of monitoring the facilitation interaction of the pedagogue with the students, we have taken as a basis the requirements formulated by K. Rogers and presented to the pedagogue-facilitator;

- showing reliability in learners,
- assistance in formulating and refining learning goals and objectives,
- development of intrinsic motivation in learning,
- expressed empathy,
- emotional sincerity,
- group interaction activity,
- aspiration to share experience.

The students, who were undergoing pedagogical practice in public education institutions, acted as well-trained observers-experts. The observers were positioned so

that they could see the faces of the teachers and students. Observations were recorded, the collected data was included in the facilitation interaction monitoring form of the pedagogue and the learner.

The group of observation points included such indicators as "the smile, cheerful facial expression," "gloomy, and sad expressions," "richness of expression, expressiveness," "poverty of facial expressions," "kind look." "Speed that is fast enough to understand," "Speed too fast or too slow," etc.

The group of observation points includes indicators that show the tolerance of the pedagogue. For example, students' responses: "patient listening", "impatience with students' opinions", "interrupting them", "equality", "arrogant, takes a position from above", "encourages" "does not encourage", etc.

The monitoring unit group includes indicators that characterize the pedagogue's assurance. For example, the straight position of the head - the head is lowered, "clear movements," "confusion, vague movements," "the appearance (clothes) are practical/impractical."

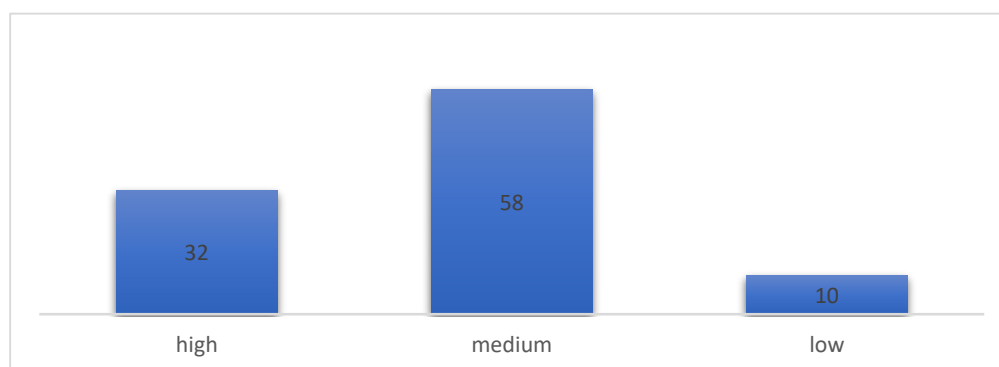
Pedagogical facilitation is a process of mutual interaction of subjects /pedagogue-learner/. Therefore, elements can be emphasized in the students' actions that were also taken into account during the research. Factors such as students' activity, initiative, external interest in the lesson, activation of thinking, realization of creative potential were emphasized.

Results

Due to the observation method, significant and interesting results were obtained, which expressed the peculiarities of facilitation. We have conventionally defined three levels of facilitation for pedagogues: high, medium, and low. (Figure 1.)

Figure 1.

Levels of facilitation in pedagogues



Thus, we came to the conclusion that the pedagogue-facilitators were a small percentage in the scope of our research, only 32%. The pedagogue-facilitator has the

following characteristics:

- ✓ The pedagogue-facilitator has a posture appropriate to the pedagogue, a cheerful facial expression, a clear and literate word,
- ✓ The pedagogue-facilitator openly expresses his / her feelings and emotions, penetrating the child's inner world, treating that world with care and without criticism.
- ✓ The pedagogue-facilitator interacts with the students, and there is mutual understanding and cooperation between the students.
- ✓ The pedagogue-facilitator supports the normalization of interpersonal relations between the students.
- ✓ The pedagogue-facilitator develops critical thinking in the students, is interested in the learner's point of view, at the same time does not assert his/her point of view.
- ✓ In the work of a pedagogue-facilitator, each subject of communication is recognized as a unique person.
- ✓ The pedagogue-facilitator is attentive to all students.
- ✓ The pedagogue-facilitator allows students to establish visual contact freely, provides feedback.

58% of pedagogues have an average level of pedagogical facilitation. These educators do not interact with students, or they interact only at some point. They mainly interact with individual students and not with groups of students. The profession of the pedagogue (a teacher) is just a job for them. Emotional expressions are foreign to these educators, and they do not show a high level of reflection.

10% of pedagogues revealed a low level of pedagogical facilitation. This pedagogue listens only to himself/herself, shows almost no emotions towards others, does not control his actions, does not treat himself/herself critically, is careless in dealing with people, is unpredictable.

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SOCIAL-PEDAGOGICAL PERSPECTIVES OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF PRIMARY SCHOOLCHILDREN'S ABILITY OF SELF-ESTEEM

Abstract

The article discusses methodological matters related to the ability of self-esteem in the primary school age. The factors for and methods of the development of the ability of self-esteem in the teaching process as well as the potential of school subjects have been analysed. Surveys have been conducted among teachers concerning their engagement in the development of schoolchildren's self-esteem and a sample lesson has been designed for developing the ability of self-esteem at school.

Keywords: *primary schoolchildren, self-esteem, self-realisation, self-awareness, school environment, social norm, motive, appraisal, performance, strengths and weaknesses.*

Introduction

At primary school, age determines children's behaviour and attitude towards the surrounding environment and events. The motivation to act independently may already develop at this age. It is the first step towards the awareness of one's abilities, for which the family and school may bear responsibility. It is important that at school and in the family the child be accepted as an independent person, who perceives, is aware of and understands the events taking places around, hence grown-ups should not impose their will on the child. Children should be allowed to analyse and evaluate the consequences of their actions as well as draw conclusions themselves. In this case, they will be aware of their actions and be responsible for them. Moreover, they will gradually be able to differentiate their opinion from others' perspectives, consider others' viewpoints, agreeing or disagreeing with them and will not be obstinate or aggressive. If parents are careful and caring, support and praise their children and teach them to solve problems arising in various situations, then they will grow up with a high sense of self-esteem and will be confident of their abilities. Nevertheless, this ability starts to systematically develop at pre-school and general education institutions. When raising self-esteem at school, it is important to consider primary schoolchildren's age, their individual, psychological and physiological

peculiarities, apply diverse methods and activities for that purpose, take into account their possible impact and social-psychological consequences.

Discussion

Collins (2009, p. 3) defines self-esteem as a child's personal evaluation, "the difference between the self-image and the ideal self." Children with high self-esteem strive for achieving the "ideal self" by improving their competences, attitudes and how they behave. In contrast, children with low self-esteem find it difficult to achieve these aims and thus fail to reach this "ideal self" (Collins, 2009). This perception may be based on Rosenberg's (1979) definition of self-esteem as an attitude to one's worthiness or value as a person, "a positive or negative attitude toward a particular object, namely, the self" (1979, p. 30).

Self-esteem starts developing in childhood and is influenced by the family (Ghilay and Ghilay, 2015) as well as the people who surround the child. Various factors, events and phenomena are also vital in this process. It is an awareness of one's actions, characteristics and abilities; an evaluative attitude towards them as well as perceptions of one's own identity. According to Burnett (1994, p.165), it is a "Global cognitive and affective/feeling orientation that focuses on how an individual feels about him or herself as a person." It is thus an opinion of one's own abilities or in other words, it shows what criteria or values guide a person when evaluating their actions. Self-esteem is an important factor for the development of a personality; it gives a chance of choice in various life situations, determines future perspectives, ambitions and the motivation to achieve them. The ability of self-esteem allows to control, oversee and improve one's actions, set vital goals and implement them. It is an insight, self-analysis and a reflection on one's own abilities and strengths. However, the thoughts of what one wants, what is possible and what one is able of are always in clash. In some cases, people overestimate their abilities, by aiming at more than they can achieve or vice versa.

A person's self-esteem develops over a lifespan and is shaped through various life experiences (Orth and Robins, 2019). It means that in various stages of life it is influenced by life circumstances and other factors such as cultural, racial, ethnic and economic factors as well as social and self-values, parenting style and birth order (Mruk, 2006), among other things. It changes when a person deals with the society, performs certain functions, compares oneself with others, enjoys success and encounters failures, gets appraisal and reprimand, realises the results of his or her actions and their social significance. Self-esteem develops thanks to the analysis of the past actions, assessment of the present situation and the planning of the future actions. It is an incentive for development: Before undertaking new actions, a person estimates his or her abilities and after fulfilling them compares the

compliance of the real abilities with the implemented action. By comparing oneself to others in certain situations it is possible to discover new attributes, features and qualities in oneself and vice versa, one can become aware of certain qualities missing in oneself. This encourages a person to acquire certain attributes or reject negative performance and undesirable qualities. Ideals and norms in the society and others' qualities can serve as comparison criteria. Self-esteem is thus a socially conditioned process, which depends on the norms adopted by a society or a social group as well as on the criteria that are accepted or rejected. Self-esteem is often accompanied by emotions, but it is not a mere feeling, as certain values underlie it with cognitive and emotional as well as mental and sensory components.

Thanks to the ability of self-esteem a person can improve his or her social status, achieve success, and forge his or her ideal self. It encompasses physical, behavioural, psychological and social self-expressions, which are related to one's identity and self-realisation. Self-esteem can be objective when a person's opinion of themselves coincides with the reality. However, social relationships often interfere with this ability, as it sometimes develops not as a result of assessing one's real abilities, but based on others' attitudes, which may not coincide with a person's real abilities. It is, after all, a perception rather than a reflection of reality (Baumeister et al., 2003). The level of self-esteem impacts a person's performance.

External factors as well as incomplete knowledge and competences, fears in the childhood, negative emotions, inferiority complex, inability to appropriately assess one's strengths, the state of being misunderstood, rejected and disliked, failed relationships with peers and other factors result in the development of low self-esteem. Children with low self-esteem often have parents who do little or nothing with them, ignore their interests, opinions and strive for independence. These children's parents may fail to emotionally bond with them. As a result, children experience loneliness and develop a feeling of impotence. When a child is in the centre of attention, his or her strengths and weaknesses are assessed objectively. Where children sense trust, their self-esteem develops properly. Low self-esteem lowers the level of a person's social demands, develops a sense of uncertainty about one's abilities and limits goal setting and perspectives. Such a feeling of low confidence can be accompanied by negative emotions, inner conflicts and complexes.

The age between six to seven and ten to eleven years is a crucial period for adopting to the new school environment, for integrating, cooperating with others as well as for being aware of one's rights and duties. It is a period for the growth of social self-

awareness, and it is important that matters related to objectively assessing one's abilities, the sense of personal dignity, fair and unbiased attitude, tolerance and kindness towards others become topics of discussion at this age at school. At this age, it is essential for a child to be an accepted and full member in a group. The quality of interpersonal relationships, teachers', classmates' and peers' attitude as well as learning and extracurricular environments, the content of tasks and the targeted pedagogical impact play a crucial role. Educational achievements, teaching and upbringing methods such as praise, talks, competitions, debates, discussions, role plays, which encourage self-expression, play a decisive role in developing the ability of self-esteem. The child gradually realises his or her place and role in the new relationships thanks to self-awareness. However, when the abilities are not properly valued, the ability of self-esteem does not develop appropriately, the child loses trust in his or her own abilities, gets easily offended, becomes aggressive, uncommunicative, self-centred, indifferent and makes no attempts at finding out which attributes are responsible for failures. Collins (2009) also supports this view by pointing out that children's self-esteem is based on people's opinion of them and how they value the child. If praised, they will feel good about themselves and a critical opinion of them will make them feel worthless (Collins, 2009).

At the primary school age, children try to establish themselves and solve tasks in various ways such as in play, at study and work. Focusing on difficulties and failures and having a lack of confidence in their competences, children sometimes find it challenging to establish friendly relationships, which may damage their sense of self-esteem. Primary schoolchildren may focus on a task with difficulty; parents' or teachers' motivating or praising words, gestures or glance can become a positive stimulus for them. When the grown-ups underestimate children's abilities, they can become reclusive and uncommunicative and can develop a low sense of self-esteem.

In the primary school environment, children begin to gradually be aware of their rights, try to establish themselves and demonstrate their abilities, be in the centre of attention, get encouragement and stand out in the group. They freely communicate with adults and peers, manage to formulate full and well-thought sentences to answer questions, correct peers' answers and express themselves freely. These features play a decisive role in shaping self-esteem. When discussing the relationship between high and low self-esteem and school performance, Baumeister et al. (2003) point out that high self-esteem can contribute to good performance at school. It gives the confidence to set goals, overcome difficulties and enjoy success rather than suffer from feelings of incompetence and self-doubt that low self-esteem can cause (Baumeister et al., 2003).

Excessive praise or reprimand and humiliation are damaging for a child's self-esteem. The criteria, traditions and values adopted in the family are decisive, which can impact children's attitude towards their success and failures at school. Sometimes children are praised by the family members without any grounds; however, the evaluation outside the family may not always coincide with that given by the family. That contrast may be emotionally disturbing. The wrong or inflated praise of abilities and competences can in the future negatively reflect on the whole life. Hence, it is essential to consider children's emotional and behavioural features, character, nature, sensitiveness, communicativeness, tolerance level and ability of compassion.

Materials and methods

In order to collect data on the development of primary schoolchildren's self-esteem, an online survey has been conducted among 86 primary school teachers from general education schools in the Republic of Armenia. The teachers were supposed to choose a response for each question and statement in the survey questionnaire.

To the question *"Do you encourage schoolchildren to independently evaluate their performance?"* 25.6 % of the teachers have chosen a positive answer, 30.2 % of them have chosen "according to the situation" and 44.2 % of the surveyed "never do it." This result shows that most of the surveyed teachers do not encourage the schoolchildren to analyse their actions and realise positive or negative, acceptable or rejectable aspects of their performance, which may play a great role in the development of children's self-esteem.

Only 27.9 % of the teachers have chosen a positive response to the question *"Do you create situations that encourage expression of motives for self-esteem?"* 32.6 % of the teachers "do it sometimes" and 39.5 % of them "never do it."

To the statement *"When you reprimand a schoolchild for a certain act, he or she..."* 24.4 % of the teachers have chosen the answer "complains, protests," 61.6 % of them have chosen "keeps silent, does not openly express complaint" and 14 % of the questioned – "requires explaining the reasons." The data are concerning, as they show that most of the schoolchildren silently agree, which in various life situation can discourage them to analyse their performance, realise the positive or negative consequences of their actions and evaluate them, by probably thinking that the teacher or the other person is always right.

The statement *"When you praise the schoolchild for an action or quality, he or she..."* has yielded the following answers: 43.1 % of the teachers have chosen "becomes more confident," 39.5% of the questioned have selected "always tries to be praised" and 17.4

% of them – “at first becomes motivated, then turns indifferent.” Appraisal is at this age an important factor and the teachers’ answers show how effective it is to praise when there are grounds for it.

“What do you find important for developing the ability of self-esteem among the schoolchildren?” question has received the following answers: 20.9 % of the surveyed have chosen the answer “the role of the family since childhood,” 37.2% of the teachers have found “the role of the teachers and the factor of motivation” important, 18.6 % of them have underscored “interpersonal communication and active relationships” and 23.3 % of the questioned have considered “the use of teaching materials aimed at self-awareness” relevant. This shows that most of the teachers consider their role in developing the schoolchildren’s ability of self-esteem important.

To the question *“Which educational methods mostly contribute to the development of self-esteem?”* 48.8 % of the surveyed teachers have considered “appraisal,” 23.3 % of them – “good example,” 16.3 % of the teachers – “competition” and 11.6 % of the questioned – “pedagogical demand” as a contributing factor. The collected data show that according to the teachers, appraisal is an important factor in developing self-esteem whereas pedagogical demand may not be an efficient means for that purpose.

Among the answers to the question *“What reaction do you show to an undesirable action by a schoolchild?”* 9.3 % of the teachers have chosen “I ignore,” 20.9 % of the questioned have selected “I encourage them to evaluate their actions themselves,” 27.9 % of the questioned teachers have preferred “I make comparisons with their classmates” and 41.9 % of them have underscored “I reprimand with words or my glance.” It is concerning that only 20.9 % or 18 teachers encourage the children to evaluate their work, the majority or 36 teachers reprimand with words or glance, which may not have a strong pedagogical impact from the perspective of developing the ability of self-esteem.

To the question *“Do you design lessons and do activities with the schoolchildren that are aimed at developing their self-esteem?”* only 7.2 % of the questioned have chosen a positive answer, 28.2 % of the teachers occasionally do it and 64.6 % of them have never done it.

A summary of the survey results shows that the development of primary schoolchildren’s self-esteem requires serious work. Most of the teachers do not have a unified attitude to this question or hardly do any activities in class for developing schoolchildren’s self-esteem, hence it is necessary to prioritise this approach during teachers’ vocational training courses as well as include more topics related to self-awareness and self-esteem in the curricula.

The content of school subjects, extracurricular events and methodological complexes contribute to the development of primary schoolchildren's ability of self-esteem. The potential of study topics as well as the use of relevant methods, means and ways can be quite effective for developing the ability of self-esteem. Since mother tongue and foreign languages contribute to communication, cognition, expression of thoughts, emotions and feelings, they can be useful means for developing the ability of self-esteem. Discussions about study topics, literary works, films, animations, deeds of real-life heroes, distinction between positive and negative features of familiar characters and expression of an evaluative attitude will develop in children notions about ideals, values, norms, the positive and the negative as well as what is acceptable and rejectable, gradually developing an evaluative attitude towards their own actions. It is also useful to apply debate elements, encouraging children to develop their own opinions and express them freely about phenomena and the deeds of a character. Role plays can also contribute to the development of the ability of self-esteem: By choosing a character and trying to represent them, the children can in some way identify with them, try to demonstrate the features of the character by condemning, accepting or rejecting them. Evaluating their qualities as well as comparing or contrasting themselves with the chosen character also naturally develop in children.

"Me and the Surrounding World" integrated school subject at primary school not only aims at imparting knowledge about natural phenomena and elements in the surrounding world but also at developing self-awareness, responsible behaviour, self-management, self-control, time-management, acknowledgement of own duties and the forging of relationships with people. Mathematics is also a means of learning about the world, developing interests and critical thinking skills; it is an important way of being quick and flexible in decision-making and making judgements, hence mathematics lessons may allow children to recognise, compare and evaluate own abilities and become aware of the abilities that will help achieve success. Music, fine arts, technology and physical education lessons also greatly contribute to the development of self-esteem. They aim at emotional, mental and physical development and acknowledgement of own strengths and drawbacks; they encourage self-expression, support creative thinking and imagination. By improving motor skills, children acquire courage and self-confidence as well as acknowledge the importance of their health, harmony, body agility and symmetry, which may help to objectively assess their own abilities.

After accomplishing various tasks, it is useful to encourage children to express their opinions, discuss how they carried them out, which qualities helped them achieve good

results, which quality still misses and what they would still like to achieve. It is advisable to gradually teach children to set criteria or certain desirable qualities for carrying out certain tasks, which will help them get a perspective of their real abilities and competences and develop motives for acquiring better qualities. It is, however, important to consider that desirable qualities do not always have to be related to study achievements and success at school; they should concern interpersonal and intercultural communication, acknowledgement of physical and psychological abilities, efficient time management, behaviour, social, aesthetical, ethical and other competences.

The following sample lesson could be an example of developing schoolchildren's ability of self-esteem in the 4th grade:

Lesson topic: A. Parsamyan's fairy tale "Magic Brush" (Gyurjinyan & Hekekyan, 2012)

Main theme: Self-awareness, self-esteem.

Other themes: Readiness to help, decision-making, ingenuity, kindness, communication, sense of time, agility, self-organisation, self-presentation.

Expected outcomes:

The schoolchildren should

- be able to present themselves, describe their appearance, hobbies and wishes, talk about the people around themselves, interpret the similarities and differences between themselves and their friends, communicate verbally and in written form, cooperate.

- be aware of the consequences of their actions, evaluate their abilities, express opinions, feelings and wishes, strive for self-awareness, be aware of their uniqueness as well as their strengths and weaknesses.

- self-organise in various situations, make decisions, manage time properly, distinguish priorities, be able to navigate quickly, take the initiative, control own words and actions.

- respect others, show empathy and such qualities, which will help make useful decisions in various situations of life.

The story is about a boy who has received New Year gifts, among them pencils and a brush. It turns out that it is not a common, but a magic brush. Whatever the boy paints, will come to life, but only on the first day of the New Year. The boy quickly tries out the brush: He touches the dry grapevine with it, which will grow in spring. He paints a kennel for the homeless dog, which becomes real, the broken glass becomes new, when he paints it. At the end of the day, he tries to paint a boat for himself, but he remembers the

old blind neighbour and hurries to touch his eyes with the brush before it loses its magic.

In the *initial phase* of the lesson, the popcorn method is used. The schoolchildren stand up, say their names and surnames, name their favourite activities and wishes.

In the *phase of meaning perception*, the prediction chart method is applied: The schoolchildren read a passage from the story in pairs, then they predict what happens next. With the help of the round robin discussion strategy, the main meaning of the story is explained.

Five groups are then formed, which carry out a cooperative task. Each group gets a worksheet with tasks:

Task 1: Fill in the T-chart, by writing down and evaluating the boy's actions on one side and mentioning what he could do for himself that he did not do on the other side of the chart.

Task 2: Divide the group into two subgroups, one of which points out positive actions and wishes and the other one – what qualities are necessary for realising them.

Task 3: Express wishes that the boy could realise with the help of the brush. Each member orders them according to their level of importance for themselves, then everyone's version is discussed in the group, they choose the one most favoured by everyone and in the end a scale of wishes is created according to their importance and usefulness.

Task 4: Retell the story by presenting your favourite character in it, change their actions, evaluate them and think of another ending.

Task 5: Think of a hero in a literary work, film or from real life that you would like to identify with, remember which actions or qualities you liked most and explain why.

At the end of the activity, one member from each group presents the accomplished task, the groups ask each other questions and sum up the results.

During the break, children print their fingerprints in their worksheets, compare them and make sure that they are unique. This activity motivates the children and encourages them to think and realise that they are all unique.

During the *weighing-up phase*, the quadrans method is used: the blackboard is divided into four parts and the schoolchildren answer the following written questions:

What impression did you get while reading the fairy tale? Which song did it remind of, what would you paint, what colour has the story?

What interested you most, what did you learn that you would apply in life?

What feelings did you experience, what did you realise, describe your feelings?

Point out three actions for which you will be praised highly at school.

The tree of wishes method helps to sum up the main and other ideas in the fairy tale, the keywords are pointed out, the children name their wishes or dreams by saying what qualities are necessary for realising them, which are then painted as big and small tree branches. Then the children write down their wishes and desirable qualities on sticky papers and stick them on the blackboard by creating a Wall of Wishes.

At the end of the lesson, creative tasks are assigned as homework (write an essay, paint, create something by using various materials, etc.). The following topics can be assigned:

What kind of person I am and how I would like to be.

What I want and what I can.

Letter from the future: How I imagine myself after several years.

Read "The Ugly Duckling" fairy tale by Hans Christian Andersen and explain what you learned from it.

A descriptive assessment is applied according to the following criteria: the schoolchildren's participation, active engagement, correct and persuasive speech, involvement in the task implementation, ability to finish in time, presentation of the results, ability to listen to others, ability to be cooperative and ability of self-esteem.

Conclusion

Primary school age is a vital period for the development of self-awareness, self-management, acknowledgement of own actions and sense of responsibility. It is important that at this age in all forms of activities the evaluation of one's abilities and trust in one's strengths be prioritised. Self-esteem determines how efficiently a child socially adapts to and integrates into the surrounding world; it controls behaviour and has a direct impact on a child's emotions, behaviour and communication. It shapes a child's attitude towards success, failures and behaviour and becomes an incentive for self-realisation and self-expression.

The ability of self-esteem develops gradually; it is prone to alter and improve. Self-esteem developed improperly since childhood can become a reason for the loss of study motivation, development of complexes and feelings of inferiority and impotence. A child can lose confidence in his or her abilities, become anxious, irritable, aggressive or uncommunicative, vulnerable and indifferent towards own actions and mistakes.

The complexes acquired in childhood and low self-esteem can have negative consequences during teenage and adolescent years, considering that at this age a teenager or a young adolescent acts mostly independently and is outside parents' support. If we build a high self-esteem and self-respect in children, they can avoid many

social and psychological problems in the future, becoming responsible, well-organised and independent individuals.

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THE EFFECTIVENESS OF ONLINE TEACHER TRAININGS IN THE FIELD OF MEDIA EDUCATION

Abstract

Today, the field of education is considered to be one of the important links that educates and brings up not only students, but also raises many demands and problems in the field of teacher certification and training. Educational changes, in turn, provide for the revision of curricula and the introduction of various media tools that allow the current conditions to be implemented not only on existing but also on remote platforms. To conduct education on these platforms, teachers participate in and train in seminars, webinars and courses at various educational institutions. As a result, they can easily switch from one platform to another and integrate into the new classroom gauge. They are able to participate in these trainings and a number of educational programs through the online platform, which is wider and more numerous than in the present case. The online platform is rapidly stabilizing its position in the field of education, already recording its success and effectiveness.

Keywords: *trainings, media tools face-to-face and online trainings, media education, COVID-19*

Introduction

The situation in the world today has completely changed not only the nature and structure of the educational process in schools and other educational institutions, but also the teachers' completely different requirements to carry out the educational process online. In order to make the educational process more effective, teachers not only change their curricula and work style, but also change the materials and methods they use to fit the online platform. The latter, in turn, promotes the acquisition and application of many new knowledge and skills. There are various online programs and tools in the media field today to make online learning more effective.

Method

However, because of to the current situation in the world, online platform training has become more popular. Training is held everywhere, at any time in any place of the world. Online training can be organized in a short period of time and have gained more popularity because of their structure and degree of teacher participation (Tallent-Runnels et al., 2006). Online training doesn't need any effort to move from one place to another place, any kind of time, transport or payment to participate. Any teacher can participate from any part of the world at any time (Durgaryan A., 2020).

Online learning, in turn, requires teachers to master the use of media tools and their proper use (Topouzyan A. O., Gyulamiryan J. H., Asatryan S. M., Poghosyan L. M., 2020). The online platform gave teachers the opportunity to participate in trainings organized by different countries and gain new knowledge and skills. Online training is invaluable for teachers, allowing them to share their experience and knowledge through an online platform. With the help of the latest technologies, teachers are able to conduct their lessons online and communicate with their students at the same time remotely (Rienties et al., 2013)

The effectiveness of online teacher training depends on a number of factors, including:

- Personal interest
- Introduction of theoretical approaches to educational institutions through online media tools.
- Practice that allows teachers to use a variety of media tools to make their lessons richer and more meaningful.
- Online training offers effective ways for teachers. A number of studies show that online training has become more widespread, providing flexibility and efficiency through which teachers can access new learning platforms. At the same time, they get the opportunity to participate in trainings conducted by the world's leading educators and teachers through an online learning method.
- Improving skills and knowledge through the many online media tools, workshops, workshops, etc.
- Online training gives teachers the opportunity to practice their CPD and gain more in-depth knowledge and skills in their subject area.

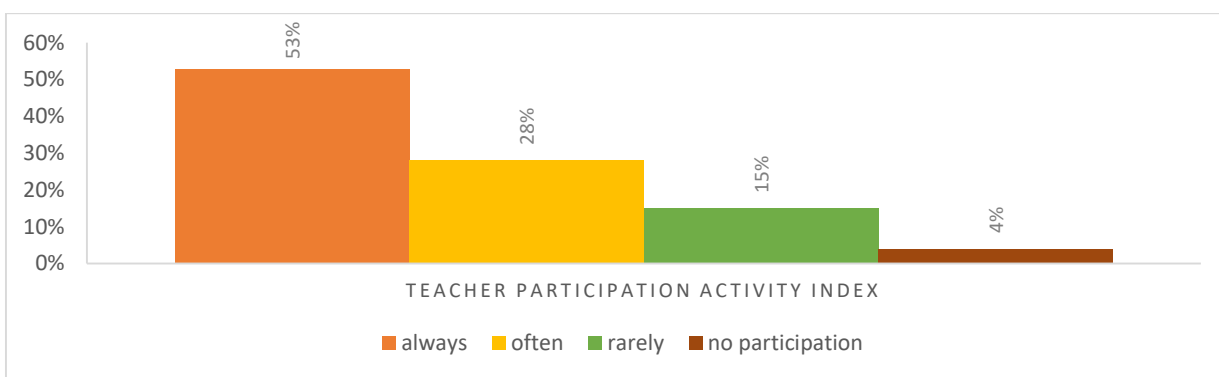
Research

The research was conducted in Hrazdan Basic School No. 11 after William Saroyan. About 80 primary and secondary school teachers took part in the survey. One of the main

tasks during the research was to find out the specifics of the training of teachers who participated in the online platform, the ways and results of their organization. The results of the research were analyzed. The results were presented in the form of diagrams. The aim of the research was to identify the specifics of the effectiveness of teacher training online and to make the process more targeted and effective. During the research, observations and interviews were conducted among teachers who participated and did not participate in online trainings. Most of the teachers who participated in the online training expressed their positive opinion about its effectiveness:

Figure 1

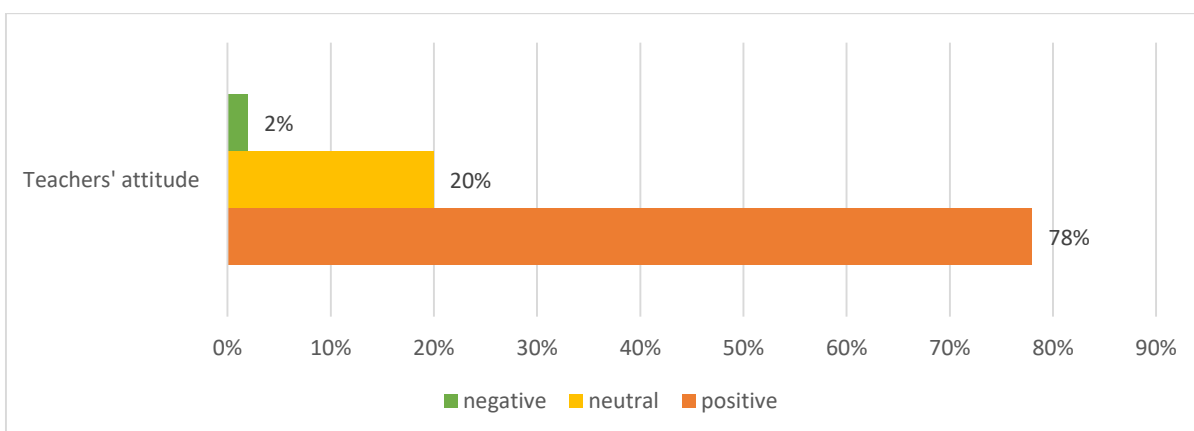
Index of teacher participation in online training



The results of surveys on the effectiveness of teacher training on the online platform showed that they are based on a number of factors, including technical factors, ways and purposes of organizing training, tasks, selection and use of necessary and appropriate media tools. The survey results are presented in the chart below.

Figure2

Teachers' attitude towards online training

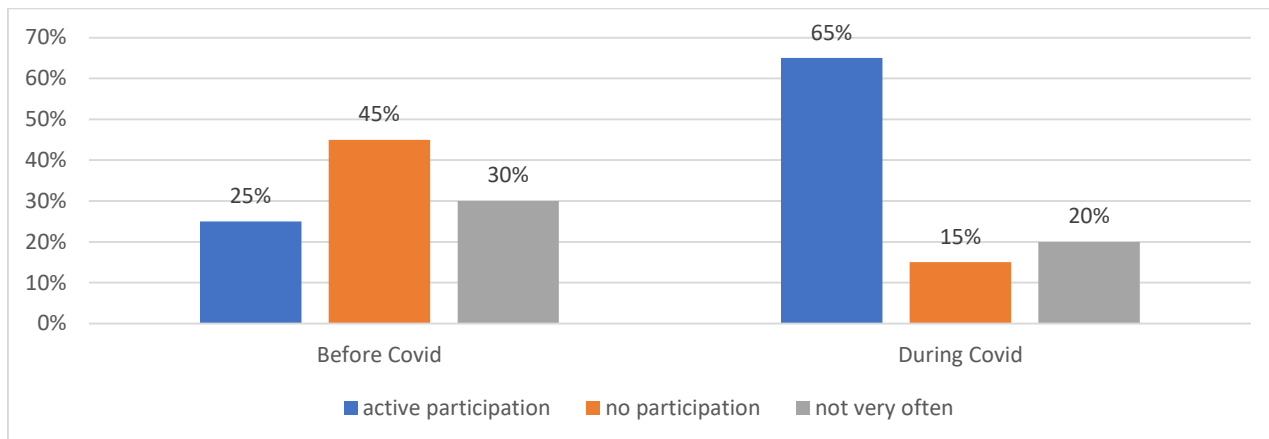


As shown in the chart, the effectiveness of teacher training on the online platform through media tools has high results and indicators that prove its effectiveness and accessibility.

Based on the results obtained at the end of the study, comparisons were made before the current epidemic conditions and before them, an analysis of the results of online teacher training, which we presented through a chart.

Figure 3

Comparison of online training over a period of time



The records in Figure 3 show different index before and during the pandemic situations.. Teachers who before the pandemic of the world did not even think about participating in online teacher training now prefer online platform training. They explain this fact by not being aware of online training before, considering its effectiveness absurd. Now, despite the fact that many training centers are already organizing existing trainings, teachers still find it difficult to attend the existing trainings, preferring online trainings. The effectiveness of online training is evidenced by the versatile use of media tools and its effectiveness, which allows many professionals to be trained and use media tools as modern technologies to make the lesson more effective and diverse, in line with modern requirements.

Conclusion

As a result of surveys and reviews to ensure the effectiveness of online teacher training, we have been able to record the need for work to increase the effectiveness of online training and have an idea of their need and the situation created by the pandemic in today's world. The use of many media tools allows teachers not only to be trained through these tools, but also to be able to use them in the future in their work and learning process.

Through the research, we were able to study not only the effectiveness of teacher training through an online platform, but also to identify the factors that ensure effectiveness. Online training is effective and relevant, as evidenced by a number of factors, such as:

- Correspondence of appropriate conditions of time and place.

- Wide range of training not only within the country but all over the world.
- Gaining new experience and knowledge by the world's leading professionals.
- Ensuring the diverse diversity of teacher training, from seminars and webinars to specially focused training, etc.

If we analyze the disadvantages of online training, we can mention the disadvantages can be corrected or discarded in order to have beneficial and effective trainings. To sum up, we can say that training is a source that forces teachers to be more skillful and experienced in the path of their career promotion.

Each of these factors has a unique effect on the effectiveness of teacher training activities through the online platform and its proper organization. The media tools used to solve the problems and difficulties encountered on the online platform and the factors that ensure the effectiveness of the training process allow the process to be organized in accordance with the most appropriate and up-to-date educational requirements.

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PSYCHOLOGICAL AND PEDAGOGICAL RISKS OF POLYCULTURAL EDUCATION IN ARMENIA

Abstract

The article examines the features, opportunities and pedagogical risks of polycultural education in the educational environment of Armenia. It is substantiated that the problem of polyculturalism has long gone beyond the scope of its study in the context of a multinational region and is considered from the point of view of a culturological approach. Determining the characteristics and possibilities of polycultural education makes it necessary to take into account the undesirable consequences caused by the existing risks. The main risks of polycultural education are the following: strategic risks, personal risks, psychological risks, communication risks, sociocultural risks.

Keywords: *polycultural education, culturological approach, cultural dialogue, cultural development of a person, pedagogical risks, sociocultural risks.*

Introduction

In recent decades, the problem of human coexistence in a multinational, multicultural, diverse world has acquired particular relevance and demand. Migration, emerging new communication systems, increasing economic and cultural interdependence of societies lead to the unification of humankind. This important factor cannot but influence the education system. Moreover, taking into account the modern realities, modernisation processes, the inevitability of globalisation in various spheres of life, the development strategy of the education system dictates new requirements for the system. Therefore, the task of strategic importance for the education system is to include the polycultural component in the development of the education system.

However, in fairness, it should be noted that polycultural education as a strategic task of the development of the education system is not the only factor that actualizes the polycultural component in the education system. Migration processes can also be added to the above-mentioned.

Another important factor of the relevance of polycultural education in Armenia is the culturological approach to this problem since, in multicultural education, we are talking about the interaction of cultures, about the dialogue between cultures (M.M. Bakhtin) [1],

about the cultural development of a person (Vygotskij L.S., Luriya A.R., 1993).

This actualizes the need for the formation of a new polycultural way of thinking, the search for new ways of intercultural interaction, which is not only one of the effective means of the positive and purposeful organisation of ethnocultural processes in society, a means of integrating the education system into the global educational space, but also a task of state priority (Gevorkyan M.M., Gevorkyan A.M., 2016).

The relevance and necessity of the problem of polycultural education in a multinational region are obvious, and the problem is quite actively, multidimensionally studied in the works of Western and Russian scientists.

However, in the conditions of a monoethnic region, such as Armenia, polycultural education as an urgent psychological and pedagogical issue is accepted ambiguously, and sometimes even in a hostile manner. The reason lies in the well-established contradictory opinion that polycultural education will hinder the formation of national self-awareness and national identity of the younger generation. However, such an approach to the upbringing of a person in a multicultural, diverse world is completely unjustified, since one of the factors that positively influence, contribute to polycultural upbringing and the dialogue between cultures is a sense of national identity, awareness of belonging to a certain culture, ethnicity. Thus, the questions referring to the assumption that polycultural dialogue can alienate young people from their national roots (our young people are already on the verge of integration, assimilation with a 'foreign' cultural environment, they can easily forget their historical roots) are unjustified and unlikely. On the contrary, in the context of globalisation processes, a polycultural dialogue helps to turn to one's own culture, and the comparison 'ours versus someone else's' encourages people to understand and evaluate their culture, historical past and present in a new way.

Determination of the features and possibilities of polycultural education makes it necessary to take into account the undesirable consequences caused by existing risks. 'Risk is a constant and irremovable component of any human activity, both constructive and destructive, which requires adaptation of a person to a risk-generating environment. The "risk" category is structural and includes the situation of risk; risk assessment; the degree of its awareness of risk subjects; risk factors; the situation of choice; risk boundaries and risk zone' (Kopylova N.V., 2008).

The pedagogical risks of multicultural education are all unforeseen reactions and manifestations that contain an explicit or hidden danger of implementing the tasks of polycultural education.

Our studies have allowed us to identify and substantiate the following risks of

polycultural education, taking into account the ethnic composition of the region and the possibilities of polycultural dialogue:

1. Strategic risks - a strategy for the development of the education system, taking into account modern realities, modernisation processes, the inevitability of globalisation in different spheres of life. The task of strategic importance for the education system is to include a polycultural component in educational standards at all levels of education.

2. Personal risks - the readiness of the subjects of the education system to interact in a polycultural educational space. Personal risks are considered in two ways: on the one hand, the teacher's conscious readiness to organise the educational process, taking into account the polycultural factor. On the other hand, there is a readiness among students for the multicultural dialogue.

3. Psychological risks - associated with the difficulties of transition from monocultural to multicultural thinking. These difficulties are associated with misunderstanding, inconsistency with cultural norms, values, the contradiction in the relationship between one's own and foreign in the context of culture, which can cause a cultural shock, different degrees of manifestation of ethnocentrism, etc. As for the difficulties encountered, it is important to determine their cause, the circumstances of the encounter, as well as the subject-object and subject-subject context of the difficulties. For example, it is one thing when difficulties arise in the process of interethnic communication, in particular, when the respondent was unable to overcome emotions, feelings, and showed special behavioural responses. The situation is completely different if difficulties arose in the process of subject-object interaction while watching a movie, a social video or while listening to ethnic music of other peoples. Therefore, the reason, for which the difficulties have arisen and which has become the reason for the emergence of a risky situation, is of key importance.

4. Communicative risks are associated with communication skills and the willingness of the individual to interact in society. In the polycultural educational space, the problem of intercultural communication and the formation of intercultural communicative competence comes to the fore. In this aspect, different forms of risks can be distinguished:

- risks associated with the lack of knowledge of foreign languages, in this case, the native language (in our case, Armenian) is the main communicative language, which complicates the process of integration of the individual into the global educational environment.

- risks associated with the problem of bilingualism, most often the Russian language,

although it is not uncommon to come across knowledge of Armenian and English.

- risks associated with the interactive, perceptual, empathic aspects of intercultural communication in a polycultural educational space.

5. Sociocultural risks. Sociocultural risks as a derivative of social risks. Social risks in general terms are considered as: 'Human activity or refusal from it in the situation of risk (choice, uncertainty (which are typical of any sphere of life)), requiring him/her to assess his/her own actions, develop the necessary social qualities, as well as consideration and regulation of the impact of social factors, under the influence of which the likelihood of a negative impact on the life of people remains, the consequences of which can negatively affect the life and health of people' (Kopylova N.V., 2008). In the context of social risks, the problem of socio-cultural identification within the framework of polycultural education is of particular importance for us. According to V.A. Ershov and I.D. Lelchitsky, 'The task of socio-cultural identification within the framework of polycultural education involves the formation of national and cultural self-awareness, based both on the values of respect for other ethnic communities and the desire to understand their characteristics, and the ability to study them critically' (Ershov V.A., Lelchitsky A.D., 2008). In the context of social risks, we especially emphasize the consideration of the polycultural factor in the activities of social institutions, in particular families and schools. We especially want to emphasize the role of the family, since the family, together with relatives, neighbours, religious communities, ethnos, is the primary reference group, it performs a number of functions and bears a certain responsibility. First, in the family, the primary stage of socialization of the personality takes place, which means that the 'first encounter' of the child with culture takes place in the family. The way the 'interaction of the child and culture' will be 'organised' will serve as a basis for the further dialogue of cultures (according to M.M. Bakhtin) (Bahtin M.M.,1986) and the further cultural development of the child (according to L.S. Vygotsky) (Vygotskij L.S., Luriya A.R., 1993). This means that the level of cultural development of the family is also important. Following L.S. Vygotsky, who puts forward the concept of childish primitiveness, we tend to put forward the concept of a primitive family as a special form of underdevelopment, that is, a delay in cultural development. The next important point is the ethnocultural factor of the family. As it is known, by ethnic composition, families are monoethnic and polyethnic. But from the point of view of the polycultural factor, all families are polycultural, even if all family members belong to the same ethnic group. The reason is that two individuals from different families, different socio-cultural environment, who have gone through different paths of cultural development are united by marriage and

build a family. The new family constitutes a new unit of society, forming its own path of development in it. Consequently, each family is essentially polycultural, therefore, the process of family education must necessarily take into account the polycultural factor.

Another aspect of sociocultural risks is sociocultural adaptation. Sociocultural adaptation is a complex multidimensional process of the interaction of a person with a new socio-cultural environment, during which a person belonging to the same social and cultural environment, having specific ethnopsychological characteristics, must (forcedly or arbitrarily) overcome all kinds of psychological, moral, cultural, religious barriers, enter into a dialogue with representatives of the 'other', 'alien' culture, to master new types of activities and forms of behaviour.

T. Londadzhim considers socio-cultural adaptation as a form of interaction between the subject and the sphere of everyday life, which creates the conditions for the subject to effectively enter the society and master various forms of social activity. Its content is the development of new, non-standard situations in everyday life, and the result is mutual adaptation, compatibility and exchange of products of the activity of the individual and the environment (Terri Londadzhim, 2011). It should be noted that this process includes both adaptation and resistance, both self-change and desire to change the environment. Even with favourable conditions and positive motivation, adaptation to a new sociocultural environment is a difficult and stressful process.

We should note that the problem of socio-cultural adaptation in a multicultural educational space is considered in many aspects in foreign scientific thought, and it is associated, first of all, with the adaptation of migrant children to new social conditions, as well as with the adaptation of foreign students studying in Russian and other universities. However, it is also more expedient to consider the problem of socio-cultural adaptation in the context of the monoethnic educational space.

In a polyethnic environment, the interethnic interaction is a natural process, and the teacher only needs to take into account the peculiarities of the multinational region in teaching and educational work, as well as to emphasize the national characteristics of the subjects of the educational process. When it comes to a monoethnic educational environment, where the ethnic composition of students is limited to one nationality, and national minorities make up a small percentage of the number of students (for example, like Armenia), the peculiarities of the multinational region lose their relevance. In this case, the teacher can only artificially create a polycultural situation through games, dialogues, problem-based lectures, extracurricular activities, comparisons between 'own' and 'foreign' in the context of culture, etc. If in a polyethnic educational space a cultural

shock arises in natural conditions and is dictated by the peculiarities of a multinational region, in a monoethnic educational space, a situation of cultural shock is created artificially.

Thus, identifying the features, opportunities and risks of multicultural education in the modern world will help to take into account the cultural and educational interests of representatives of different nationalities and ethnic groups, which, on the one hand, will be of strategic importance in the competitiveness of educational institutions in the context of education mobility and the transition of universities to the international level. On the other hand, the identification of effective ways and mechanisms of prevention or ways and technologies for minimising the occurrence and development of risks in a modern multicultural space will make the process of personality development in a modern multicultural, diverse world more harmonious and more holistic.

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GOLDEN PAGES

Lev Vygotsky

125th anniversary



Born: Nov 17, 1896 in Orsha, Russian Empire

Died: June 11, 1934 (at age 37) in Moscow, USSR

Nationality: Russian

Fields: Psychology

Famous For: Founder of cultural-historical psychology

Lev Vygotsky (1896-1934) was a Belorussian psychologist. He led what came to be known as the Vygotsky Circle and founded a theory of development generally known as cultural-historical psychology. Vygotsky suggested a theory relating to children's higher cognitive functions, believing that practical action in the social environment facilitated the emergence of reasoning skills.

He initially believed that reasoning development was related to the child's surrounding culture, but later changed his views. His work was controversial in the early Soviet Union and fell out of favor in the West, only to be reconsidered in the 21st century.

Childhood and Early Years

Vygotsky was born into a middle-class family in Orsha, a town in what was then the Russian Empire. He studied in the nearby town of Gomel before moving to Moscow in 1913 to enroll at the State University, something aided by the quota of three percent Jewish students that the university maintained.

He studied law, but he also attended unofficial lectures in the arts, a subject in which he was initially more interested. After graduating in 1917, Vygotsky went back to Gomel, remaining there after the revolution that fall. Almost nothing is known of his life for two years, until Communist forces captured the town in 1919. For several years, Vygotsky was a Bolshevik representative.

Vygotsky's Early Career

He traveled to Leningrad in 1924 for the All-Russian Psychoneurological Congress, shortly afterward accepting the invitation of a fellowship at Moscow's Psychological Institute. By now, he was married and he wrote a dissertation on the psychology of art in 1925 – although it was not published for 40 years. Later that year he visited London, which was the only time he traveled overseas. Shortly afterward, he fell ill with

tuberculosis and was expected to die. Although he survived, he remained in poor health for a year and a half thereafter, being granted his scholarly degree in absentia as a result.

Later Career

Upon leaving the hospital, Vygotsky undertook both methodological and theoretical work on psychology, but never got beyond writing a manuscript for a book before his work was stopped in 1927. This book was almost lost until 1982, when it was published with a number of editorial interferences and presented as a major work.

In it, Vygotsky supported the idea of a general theory of psychology, bringing together naturalist and Marxist strands of opinion. Nevertheless, he was critical of those who thought that a Marxist psychology could be found simply by reading the works of Karl Marx. Instead, he said that the way forward was to develop a methodology in tune with the spirit of Marxism.

Toward the end of the 1920s, Vygotsky's research concentrated on logical memory and higher cognitive functions, in particular their early development. At this time, he attracted a number of students who would go on to be significant figures in their own right, such as Alexei Leontiev.

Later Years and Death

Vygotsky taught these students that one should approach their subject in three ways: instrumental, developmental, and cultural-historical. However, by the early 1930s, he had fallen into personal crisis thanks to intense self-criticism, and he never quite pulled himself out of this decline. He was only beginning to sketch out a new theory of consciousness when on June 11, 1934, he passed away at the age of 37 when a recurrence of his tuberculosis brought about his death in Moscow.

Facts about Lev Vygotsky

Facts about Lev Vygotsky 1: developmental psychology

The theory of Vygotsky was focused more on the development psychology. The practical activity in the social environment will contribute the higher cognitive function in the children because they begin to see reasoning.

Facts about Lev Vygotsky 2: the development of reasoning

The signs and symbols were considered as media for the development of reasoning on children.

Facts about Lev Vygotsky 3: the development of children

The major source of development for children in term of cognitive, language, physical, social and emotion was from play.

Facts about Lev Vygotsky 4: Vygotsky in Soviet Union

In Soviet Union, the ideas of Vygotsky were considered as controversial. However, people began to notice his zone of proximal development, which became a key element of developmental and educational psychology.

Facts about Lev Vygotsky 5: The top psychologist

Vygotsky took the 83th place in the list of top psychologist in 20th century published in 2002 by A Review of General Psychology study.

Facts about Lev Vygotsky 6: The Russian psychologist

In the list 100 list of the top psychologist, there were only three Russian psychologists. Vygotsky took the last or third spot of the Russian psychologists.

Facts about Lev Vygotsky 7: The birthplace

The birthplace of Vygotsky was located in Orsha town, Belarus. It was the former region in Russian Empire. He received the private and public education in Gomel, Belarus where he was raised there. His father worked as a banker.

Facts about Lev Vygotsky 8: the family background

Vygotsky was from the middle class Jewish family. Moscow University accepted Vygotsky because he won a Jewish lottery.

Facts about Lev Vygotsky 9: the interest of Vygotsky

Vygotsky agreed to attend the Medical School in Moscow University because of his parents. Actually he was interested with social sciences and humanities.

Facts about Lev Vygotsky 10: law school

He transferred to law school after the first semester of attending the Medical School. He became a staff scientist at the Psychological Institute at the early years of his career. In 1925, he finished his dissertation with the title "The Psychology of Art".

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Djidjian, R. Z. (2015). Understanding Capacity as the Principle Difficulty in Building Artificial Intellect. *Wisdom*, 4(1). Retrieved May 26, 2016, from <http://www.wisdomperiodical.com/index.php/wisdom/article/view/115>

Djidjian, R. Z. (2016). Paradoxes of Human Cognition. *Wisdom*, 7(2), 49-58.
doi:10.24234/Wisdom.v2i7.137

GRAPHS AND DIAGRAMS

If the manuscript contains nonalphabetic characters (e.g. logical formulae, diagrams), then:

- the PDF version of the text should be attached for verification,
- all the images (diagrams, line drawings and/or photographic images) should be numbered sequentially with Arabic numerals and submitted in electronic form,
 - photo images should be of high quality,
 - all the images should be attached as separate files,
 - diagrams, line drawings, charts should be submitted in EXCEL or EPS format.

VARIOUS KIND OF MANUSCRIPT FORMATTING PECULIARITIES

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- A complete description of archive or publication material, i.e. the original text sources, should be comprised in the manuscript.
 - A brief (1-3-page-long, approximately 4000 characters) prologue under the title Publication Prologue may precede the publication. Long prologues are considered as articles, so they should be written under separate titles.
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- It is advisable to choose up to 40.000 character sources for the materials submitted. In the case of an extensive source, it is necessary to shorten (select) for preparing material for the periodical.

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- Information about the symposium should be included in the essay.
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- Essays should not coincide with the symposium projects or their final documents.

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- The length of a review should be from 5 to 10 pages (10.000-20.000 characters).
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