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The collection of research papers is devoted to the scientific discussion of the most actual issues in contemporary psychology. It presents a wide range of scientific works by Ukrainian and foreign researchers. It presents an analysis of the issues, conditions, and difficulties of psychological development, age-related and individual differences in the development of an individual and psychology of education.

The target readership of the collection of research papers includes professional psychologists, graduate and postgraduate students, as well as everybody else who shows interest in the current state of psychology as a science.

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Збірник наукових праць

''Проблеми сучасної психології''

Випуск 56

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Р68   Збірник наукових праць **"Проблеми сучасної психології"** / [за наук. ред. С.Д. Максименка, Л.А. Онуфрієвої]. Кам'янець-Подільський, 2022. Вип. 56. 212 с.

У збірнику наукових праць висвітлено найбільш актуальні проблеми сучасної психології, представлено широкий спектр наукових розробок вітчизняних і закордонних дослідників. Здійснено аналіз проблем, умов і труднощів психічного розвитку, вікових та індивідуальних особливостей становлення особистості й психології навчання.

Збірник наукових праць адресовано професійним психологам, докторантам і аспірантам, усім тим, хто цікавиться сучасним станом розвитку психологічної науки.

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CONTENT

ЗМІСТ

The Attitude of Youth to Alcohol: the Risk of Alcohol Dependence

Ставлення молоді до алкоголю: ризик виникнення алкогольної залежності

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this article is: to reveal the psychological aspects of some diseases, as a result of alcohol consumption; to describe the peculiarities of physical dependence in a way of alcoholic state; to make a scheme how alcoholism is developed; to describe the characteristic complications of binge drinking, such as white fever, alcoholic delirium; to model the degrees of intoxication; to provide the pilot research and to find out the attitude of youth to alcohol.

Methods of the research. The following theoretical methods of the research were used to solve the tasks formulated in the article: a categorical method, structural and functional methods, the methods of the analysis, systematization, modeling, generalization. The empirical method is a pilot re-

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search. The research was organized in Kyiv, Lviv, and Rivne. While researching the socio-demographic characteristics (age of respondents, their gender) were taken into account.

The results of the research. A clear correlation was found: the practice of alcohol consumption was spread according to the age of respondents. Drinks such as beer, wine, vodka, cognac, whiskey, liqueur, moonshine, etc. have ever been consumed by one of three 10-year-old respondents (36%), one in two 11- and 12-year-olds (49% and 54%), 73% – 13-year-olds, 78% – 14-year-olds, 85% – among boys and girls who were 15 years old. The share of young people at the age from 16 to 22 who drank alcohol is extremely high, ranging from 93% to 98%. Data on the age of the first case of alcohol consumption are indicative. For example, the largest share of respondents said that they had tasted beer for the first time at the age of 10 – this group is 28%, and at the age of 16 and older – 9% of respondents. The group of people who never drank alcohol is 24%. "The acquaintance" with wine and spirits occurs mainly in adolescents aged 13-16 years old and older (in particular, in the group of respondents in the age of 10-14 years old, the experience of the first drinking, at least a glass of wine have 43% of respondents). Among all respondents, 31% and 43% of ones, respectively, never drank wine or spirits. Almost half (43%) of the younger group (10-14 years old) did not answer the question about the age of the first beer. Another 75% of respondents of the same age ignored the question about the first use of spirits. Such a distribution may indicate a tendency of children and adolescents to secrecy, their bias against the confidentiality of individual answers to questionnaires.

Conclusions. Chronic alcoholism or alcohol addiction is a disease in which a person develops an incredible craving for alcohol, symptoms of asthenia and abstinence and other alcoholic disorders. The alcoholic is very depressed, he/she is insecure, sometimes repents, scared. The character deteriorates sharply, sleep is short and superficial, he/she sees terrible dreams. At the same time, the body's resistance to alcohol poisoning increases. At the stage of domestic drunkenness the usual doses of alcoholism are no longer enough. Another sign of alcoholism is weakening of protective reflexes, such as vomiting, nausea, salivation. Hallucinations, acute psychosis and memory loss are observed with large doses of alcohol. There is an unstable motive for the person's behavior, the patient performs acts that are not the main characteristics of him/her before. In the past, a sincere, merciful, a kind man becomes indifferent, immoral, angry. The alcoholic lacks focus. He/she never brings the case to the end.

Introduction

In Ukraine we constantly see an increase in the scale of socially dangerous diseases. In particular, among the population in our country there are 720 thousand patients with alcoholism. In our society, where 90% of the population first drank alcohol in adolescence, the problem of alcoholism is one of the most painful and difficult to solve. It is well-known that alcoholism is a disease that accompanies alcohol dependence. Addiction can lead to negative physical and behavioral consequences that cause medical or social problems. People who often "look into the glass", mostly do not recognize this, that complicates the treatment process (Tabachnikov, Mishyiev, Kharchenko, Osukhovskaya, Mykhalchuk, Zdoryk, Komplienko & Salden, 2021).

There may be various risk factors for each addiction. In many cases the causes of excessive alcohol consumption were originated in the childhood: lack of parental attention, resentment of adults. There are also some genetic causes. It is well-known that children whose parents were alcoholics have an increased risk of addiction (there is evidence that alcohol dependence is developed in 25% of the offspring of both parents who are alcoholics). The cause of this disease can be perceived as environmental influences, cultural habits, physiological changes in the body due to emotional stresses, mental illnesses, etc. (Комплієнко, 2020)

And all these factors are started with drinking for company, for fun and good mood (Максименко, Ткач, Литвинчук & Онуфрієва, 2019). Eventually, each good tradition falls into regular drinking and binge drinking, memory lapses and drinking alone. This leads to deterioration of physical health, some sexual problems and the breakdown of family ties. Finally, excessive alcohol consumption causes psychosis, "white fever", alcoholic epilepsy, dysfunction, and then − a death. It also leads to conflicts, misunderstanding, frequent spending of money on

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alcohol, deteriorating health. This is the first signal that something is happening to a person. Alcohol abuse always has negative consequences: family quarrels, conflicts at work, various problems (Blagovechtchenski, Gnedykh, Kurmakaeva, Mkrtychian, Kostromina & Shtyrov, 2019).

At the beginning of the disease native people pretend that there is no problem. They are usually ashamed of what their relatives drink and try to hide it from others. And this is the first mistake. For example, a man came home being drunk. What to do? Wash him, change his clothes, put him to bed so that he doesn't fight, quarrel and do something bad. But in fact it is wrong. If the man woke up in the morning not in the warm bed where the woman put him, but dirty in the place where he fell drunk, it would obviously make him think more about his behavior. So, first of all, you do not need to feel sorry for alcoholics or help them solve problems caused by alcohol consumption. The main task of a loved one is to prove to the addict person that he is unable to stop and he needs help. After all, the first step to recovery is the addict's awareness that he is ill. This requires providing as much information as it is possible to the addict one about the disease and its consequences. It is worth noting that alcohol dependence is a disease of denial. Therefore, it is very difficult to convince the patient that he needs treatment and that the rhythm of life in constant binge drinking is not normal (Бютнер, 1991).

The problem of alcoholism is not a problem of one person, it is a problem of the whole family. People who live next to an addicted person are interdependent. They develop a certain mechanism of their behavior. It can be avoidance, quarrels, etc. Therefore, it is important that family members seek help for themselves, and thus help the alcoholic. Our experience has shown that drug treatment of alcoholics is just the beginning of the recovery process. In general, drugs treat the effects of chronic poisoning of a human body with alcohol, but not alcohol dependence itself as the independent disease. And it, this disease, affects not only the

body but also the mind and the soul. Accordingly, if the drug intervention occurs at the body level, the result of such treatment is not always high.

Moreover, there is an opinion that this is a disease that no one has cured and will not cure. However, this statement does not mean that addicts do not need to be treated at all. After all, there is such a thing as "experience of sobriety" of addicts. For some people it can last a month or two, and for others – even some decades. The truth is in that fact that an alcoholic will never be able to drink in a controlled way, and this, in fact, is the incurability of alcoholism. Control over alcohol will not return after a month of non-consumption, or after a year of "dryness", or after twenty years of sobriety. If such a person tries to drink "little by little" after a long period without alcohol, after certain (rather quickly) time he/she will return to drunkenness and to problems associated with active alcoholism (Mykhalchuk & Ivashkevych, 2019).

So, **the purpose** of this article is: to show the psychological aspects of some disease, such as it is alcohol consumption; to describe the peculiarities of physical dependence in a way of alcoholic state; to make a scheme how alcoholism is developed; to describe the characteristic complications of binge drinking, such as white fever, alcoholic delirium; to model the degrees of intoxication; to provide a pilot research and to find out the attitude of respondents to alcohol.

Methods of the research

The following theoretical methods of the research were used to solve the tasks formulated in the article: a categorical method, structural and functional methods, the methods of the analysis, systematization, modeling, generalization. The empirical method is a pilot research. The research was organized in Kyiv, Lviv, and Rivne. While researching the socio-demographic characteristics (age of respondents, their gender) were taken into account.

Results and their discussion

It is also important to pay attention to the psychological aspects of this disease, only then the treatment will be effective. It is impossible to reject also a medical method of treatment. After all, there are some cases when even coding helps. The motives for alcohol use by adolescents are divided into two groups. The motives of the first group are based on the desire to conform to traditions, the experience of new sensations, curiosity, etc. The formation of these motives is facilitated by some characteristics of the psyche of minors, which awakens a sense of adulthood, the desire to be like everyone else, the desire to imitate the elders. The age characteristics of adolescents to some extent can be explained by their use of alcohol "for courage". This motive is associated with the lack of juveniles' life experience, knowledge that allows them to freely communicate with others (Brédart, 1991).

The second group of motives of alcohol consumption, which form drunkenness as a type of behavior of offenders, deserves special attention. These motives include a desire to get rid of boredom. In Psychology, boredom is a special mental state of the individual associated with emotional hunger. Adolescents of this category have significantly weakened or lost interest in the paradigm of cognitive activity. Adolescents who drink alcohol are almost not involved into social activities. Significant changes are observed by them in the field of leisure. These guys are less interested in fiction, rarely participate in amateur activities, almost never go to the theater, and lose interest in serious music, painting. Some adolescents consume alcohol to get rid of unpleasant experiences (Mykhalchuk & Onufriieva, 2020; Mykhalchuk, Pelekh, Kharchenko, Ivashkevych, Ed., Ivashkevych, Er., Prymachok, Hupavtseva & Zukow, 2020).

Alcoholism is a severe chronic disease, in most cases it is difficult to cure. It is developed on the basis of regular and long-term alcohol consumption and is characterized by a special pathological condition of the person's body: uncontrollable craving for alcohol, changes in a degree of its tolerability and degrada-

tion of personality. For an alcoholic, intoxication is the best mental state. This train is not a reasonable reason to stop drinking. The alcoholic directs all his/her energy, resources and thoughts to the production of alcohol, according to a real situation (the availability of money in the family, a need to go to work, etc.). Once drunk, he/she seeks to get drunk to the point of intoxication, to oblivion.

Alcohol is used for positive emotions, but often the result is the opposite one – the mood deteriorates. There is aggression, exacerbate chronic diseases. It is impossible to predict such consequences in advance, because the effect of alcohol on the body is unpredictable. It all depends on many factors: the amount drunk, its concentration, the quality of food with which alcohol is drunk, health status. It is even important where and with whom he/she drank.

Harmful consequences of alcohol consumption include the emergence of dependence on it, which is due to heredity, body characteristics, diseases. As for men, with constant use, the disease is formed within one and a half to two years (mostly up to 30 years), women enough six months to a year of active use (usually after the age of 40). The last term during which the disease occurs also applies to adolescents. In the old age, addiction occurs even faster. Anyone who drinks alcohol regularly risks becoming an alcoholic, that is becoming mentally and physically addicted to alcohol.

Addiction is more severe the sooner a person starts drinking. *Physical dependence* is that a break with regular alcohol consumption can cause an increase in blood pressure, feelings of sadness and anxiety, fever, insomnia. This condition can be alleviated with medical help, it usually passes in a few days. *Mental dependence* is the desire to experience a state of intoxication that displaces all other interests, as alcohol stimulates "pleasure center" in the brain.

The following factors play a crucial role in the formation of *alcohol dependence*:

- *social ones* (cultural and material standards of living, stress, information overload, urbanization);
- *biological factors* (hereditary predisposition; according to the research, up to 30% of children whose parents abused alcohol can become potential alcoholics). Biological predisposition to alcohol can be established by laboratory methods. This procedure is performed by physicians for experimental and scientific purposes. In practice, the determination of biological predisposition to alcoholism is not carried out, so a person must determine it for himself/herself;
- *psychological ones* (psycho-emotional personal traits, the abilities to social adaptation and coping with stress).

Problematic alcohol consumption usually develops unnoticed. Very often it is kept secret by deception and denial. Sometimes it may seem that the problem is gone. But this problem comes back again. And it's getting a little bigger than before. If you notice the following symptoms, you may find that alcohol becomes stronger than its consumer.

* *He/she drinks to lift his/her spirits.* Drinking alcohol is a way to get rid of depression, fear and stress, because without alcohol it is impossible to cope.
* *Always have 1 or 2 servings*. As the body gets used to alcohol, it needs more and more to achieve the same effect.
* *He/she drinks quickly and greedily*. The drinker wants to get drunk, and it has to happen fast. He/she is the first to drink, and the first one or only one to pour the second portion.
* *Secrecy.* Sometimes he/she drinks secretly and masks it with a chewing gum. Also, if he/she is coming home quickly the man drinks to hide the smell of drinking during the day.
* *He/she switched from occasional to systematic use*. It started with occasional drinks on Fridays or Saturdays. "It will pass" – it seemed then. But now almost every night is under the sign of alcohol.

* *Beautiful words* like "Today it is the last day, tomorrow I'm quitting". There are promises that are taken seriously. But, unfortunately, every time everything goes wrong.

* *Withdrawal symptoms.* When a drinker stops drinking for a while or reduces the dose, withdrawal symptoms may happen. They can range from feelings of excitement (anxiety), sweating, sleep disturbances, understand feelings of fear or stress. In severe cases, the body begins to tremble and may make a person nauseous. These symptoms make the person drinks again, because thanks to alcohol they will disappear for a while.

* *Problems.* A person who drinks begins to complain about physical illness. He/she is constantly late, does not fulfill his/her responsibilities, neglects his/her parents, his/her behavior is increasingly criticized, and there may be problems with the police and justice. Again, this may be a reason to continue drinking, which will exacerbate the problem.

We would like to provide some recommendations from a point of view of psychologist how to talk to a drinker. It is not easy to talk to those ones who drink alcohol about their habit, especially if they are sure that everything is fine. And this happens very often. Remarks and condemnation lead to objections: "Everything is not so bad"; "My colleagues drink even more". There are some other well-known statements: "I'll stop when I want"; "I used to drink more".

This kind of the discussion usually leads to an empty pointless dispute. Thus, if you find yourself in a dead end in this dispute, you are convinced that the problem with alcohol exists, but the drinker himself/herself does not even want to hear about it. Alcoholism is not a habit, but a disease. The habit is controlled by consciousness, it can be got rid of. The addiction to alcohol is more difficult to overcome due to poisoning. About 10 percent of people who drink alcohol become alcoholics. Alcoholism is a

disease which is characterized by mental and physical changes in the body.

The facts show the evidence that alcoholism is a progressive disease. Since 1900, Soviet scientists have been observing the rate of consumption of absolute alcohol in liters per capita per year. By the beginning of the twentieth century Soviet Russia was considered one of the most sober countries in the world, and it was ranked penultimate in per capita alcohol consumption. Before 1900, alcohol consumption was 2.8 liters per year. From 1900 to 1914, the level gradually increased and reached an unprecedented level of 4.7 liters a year. In 1914, Lenin introduced "a dry law", which lasted for 11 years. Alcohol consumption in these years was 0.2 liters a year. This law was repealed on October 5, 1925 by Rykov, who signed a decree "On the resumption of wine and vodka trade". Drunkenness in the country had been risen again and grown before the Second World War, reaching 1.9 liters a year. During the war, the level of drunkenness dropped sharply, reaching pre-war levels only in 1952. After the death of J.V. Stalin, the country flew into the abyss of alcohol and in 1980 the consumption was 11 liters a year, beating the world level of alcohol consumption 3 times a year (the average in 20 "drunk" countries is 4 liters a year). In 1985, anti-alcohol regulations were passed in the USSR. They began to close outlets selling alcohol by mass, reducing consumption by 2.5 times. During these 2.5 years, there was an increase in birth rates and a decline in mortality. Sociologists call this period a population explosion. But in 1988 the Force came to power, which resumed the process of mass production of alcohol. Birth and death rates have changed, and in 1991 the birth and death rates were crossed. Alcohol consumption began to grow and in 2000 amounted to 18.5 liters per year (Tabachnikov, Mishyiev, Drevitskaya, Kharchenko, Osukhovskaya, Mykhalchuk, Salden & Aymedov, 2021).

Alcoholism is developed according to the following scheme:

1) *Initial phase*: intoxication with memory loss, "eclipse". A person constantly thinks about alcohol, he/she develops a crav-

ing for alcohol. However, he/she keeps admitting his/her guilt, avoids talking about his/her craving for alcohol.

2) *Critical phase*: loss of self-control after the first sip of alcohol. The desire to justify his/her drunkenness, resistance to all attempts to prevent his/her desire to drink. A person develops arrogance, aggression. He blames others for his/her misfortunes. He/she starts drinking. He/she is forced to leave his/her permanent job, loses interest in everything that is not related to alcohol.

3) *Chronic phase*: daily hangover, personality breakdown, blurred memory, confusion. The person drinks surrogates of alcohol, technical liquids, cologne. He/she develops unfounded fears, white fever and other alcoholic psychoses.

One of the characteristic complications of binge drinking is *white fever*. White fever is the most common alcoholic psychosis. It usually occurs in a state of hangover, when the drunk appears unreported fear, insomnia, trembling hands, nightmares (chases, attacks, etc.), auditory and visual deceptions in a form of noise, bells, shadow movement (Vovk, Emishyants, Zelenko, Drobot & Onufriieva, 2020). Symptoms of white fever are especially pronounced at night. The patient begins vivid experiences of a frightening nature. During the day, hallucinations subside a bit, although the patient remains agitated, his/her hands are shaking, he/she is restless and can not sit still in one place (Crookes, 1989).

Another form of psychosis is *alcoholic delirium*. It occurs after a short period of drunkenness, but unlike white fever is not accompanied by hallucinations. Such patients are haunted by obsessive thoughts. Most often it is delusions of suspicion, persecution, jealousy. Without seeing a way out of the situation, he/she may commit suicide.

How often do some people proudly note for themselves and their friends it was increased resistance to alcohol, believing that it is related to physical health. In fact, increased resistance to alcohol is the first sign of beginning alcoholism, a symptom of

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a serious illness. For an alcoholic, a glass, a bottle of wine is all the same. Already from a glass of alcohol, he/she comes to a kind of euphoria – such a disorder that only increases his/her desire to drink, then subsequent doses do not change his/her appearance, although there are noticeable shifts in the body. At first, the alcoholic is extremely active, trying to "extraordinarily" drink of another pile, begins to riot or "being a fool". But the last straw exceeds the limits of stability, the alcoholic "disconnects" from the outside world, falling into oblivion. Loss of control over the amount drunk, excessive greed for alcohol and the accompanying uncontrolled, reckless, often cynical behavior – they all are persistent signs of alcoholism.

The will of a drunkard is weakened and not only to limit alcohol intake, but also in relation to other, business aspects of everyday life. Often during the festive feasts you can see how people behave recklessly after drinking alcohol, their actions become more awkward. It is immediately noticeable effect of alcohol on them. And if you ask its participants how often they drink, the most will say that it is irregular. However, even after a single drink of alcohol people spend the night restless, and in the morning they wake up broken, with a swollen face and a sore head. The working day, as a rule, becomes spoiled, and if the person at work is connected with some mechanisms, for example with the machine tool or the car, consider that this day he/she sharply increases risk of accident or even catastrophe. In a case of mental workers, after drinking alcohol, mental processes thoroughly deteriorate, the speed and accuracy of calculations fall, as they say, the work falls out of hand.

Thus, even after irregular, accidental consumption of alcohol, there are serious problems in the body, indicating severe poisoning. If the use of alcohol becomes systematic, a person drinks in any case, finding any reason to drink, it is already called "domestic drunkenness". For a drunkard, the content of the holiday event does not matter, he/she does not care whether others approve of his/her behavior. At this stage of alcohol addiction

the attitude of the drinker to others significantly changes to the usual and acceptable norms of behavior. For a drunkard, the closest people are "companions", even if they are the first time at the same table. The time, the place and the environment in which people drink loses all the meaning. Thus, the difference between episodic alcohol consumption and drunkenness is not only the amount drunk at one time, but also the psychological establishment of the drinker. In the first case a person celebrates any solemn or significant event, and in the second one – he/she drinks only to bring himself/herself intoxicated. If you keep a person from drinking in time, it will prevent his/her fall and the development of alcoholism.

Alcohol intoxication is a gross violation of a normal brain function. Firstly, intoxication disrupts the cortex of the cerebral hemispheres, which provides all mental functions, and then other parts of the central nervous system. The use of even small doses of alcohol complicates the transmission of nerve impulses, leads to a disorder of active thinking. There are three degrees of acute alcohol intoxication: 1. Initial one. 2. Average degree. 3. Difficult one.

The initial degree of intoxication is manifested by a feeling of warmth, lightheadedness. Human behavior hardly changes, but self-confidence emerges. Heart rate increased, dilated pupils, facial vessels. External motor disorders are not noticeable, but the coordination of movements is somewhat disturbed, the reaction to external stimuli is slowed down.

In a case of the use of large amounts of alcohol it comes a moderate degree of intoxication. Drunk man is nervous, he is characterized by outbursts of anger, resentment, rage, he loses a sense of responsibility for his actions, prone to praise and aggression. Often in this state a person violates public order, commits hooliganism and even crimes. Coordination of movements is disturbed, therefore, such people often have accidents at work, on the street and in everyday life. After sobering up, there is lethargy, drowsiness, a headache.

Severe intoxication occurs because of a large dose of alcohol. This state is characterized by two phases: *excitation* and *inhibition*. In a case of the first phase speech becomes slurred, movements are uncoordinated, actions are meaningless, often aggressive. The inhibition phases are manifested in lethargy, drowsiness and end in deep narcotic sleep. In this state a person does not react even to severe pain stimuli, he/she can fall asleep in the street, and in the cold season even to freeze. After waking up, the person hardly remembers what happened to him/her, there is a strong desire to drink more. The person may experience nausea, show vomiting and other signs of poisoning.

As a result of repeated consumption of alcoholic beverages a person has a conditioned reflex. After forgetting and waking up, drunks have a severe hangover, the symptoms of which are relieved by repeated use of dexterous files. This is the main sign of chronic alcoholism. It is accompanied by asthenia syndrome – fatigue, disability. The body is sick, but the alcoholic is not aware of his/her disease and its causes.

The object of our empirical research has such characteristics, as:

- · spatial ones (the research was organized in Kyiv, Lviv, and Rivne);
- · socio-demographic characteristics (age of respondents was 10-22 years old, 45% of people were of masculine gender, other respondents were of feminine gender).

The subject of specific psycho-sociological research is the most important characteristics and relationships of the person, knowledge of whom is important for solving the tasks set in the program. The subject of the research is formed on the basis of the object, but does not coincide with it. The same social object can be studied in order to solve different problems, and therefore the result is that it involves many subjects. Therefore, by defining the subjects of the research, we simultaneously determine the boundaries within which the object is studied.

In order to obtain qualified information, 500 people were interviewed. Among these people 275 ones were females and 225 males – young people in the age from 10 to 22 years old.

One of *the subtasks* of our research was to find out the attitude of respondents to alcohol, to find out how often it is consumed.

It was proved that in a case of adolescences alcohol consumption was mostly a manifestation of curiosity, a desire to pretend to be an adult, a way of self-expression, self-affirmation. It is due to the desire not to be "a white crow" among peers, to gain authority. In the absence of skills and experience, the consequences of such aspirations are quite common cases of poisoning, psychosis, fights, theft, hooliganism, accidents and even murder and suicide. According to the Ukrainian Institute of Public Health the incidence of chronic alcoholism among adolescents in 2005 was 0.45 % for 10 thousand, in 2006 the amount was 0.37% (Tabachnikov, Mishyiev, Kharchenko, Osukhovskaya, Mykhalchuk, Zdoryk, Komplienko & Salden, 2021).

According to a survey conducted between the age groups of 10 and 22 years old, only 23% of respondents have no experience with alcohol consumption. The vast majority of those ones who have never consumed alcohol was the younger group of respondents – 10-14 years (40%). 93% of 15-22-year-olds drank alcohol.

There is *a clear relationship*: the practice of alcohol consumption is spread according to the age of respondents. Drinks such as beer, wine, vodka, cognac, whiskey, liqueur, moonshine, etc. have ever been consumed, one of three 10-year-olds respondents (36%), one in two 11- and 12-year-olds (49% and 54%), 73% – 13-year-olds, 78% – 14-year-olds, 85% – among boys and girls who are 15 years old. The share of young people in the age from 16 to 22 who drank alcohol is extremely high, ranging from 93% to 98%. Data on the age of the first case of alcohol consumption are indicative. For example, the largest share of respondents said that they had tasted beer for the first time

at the age of 10 – this group is 28%, and at the age of 16 and older – 9% of respondents. The group of people who never drank alcohol is 24%. "The acquaintance" with wine and spirits occurs mainly in adolescents aged 13-16 years old and older (in particular, in the group of respondents in the age of 10-14 years old, the experience of the first drinking, at least a glass of wine have 43% of respondents). Among all respondents, 31% and 43%, respectively, never drank wine or spirits. Almost half (43%) of the younger group (10-14 years old) did not answer the question about the age of the first beer. Another 75% of respondents of the same age ignored the question about the first use of spirits. Such a distribution may indicate a tendency of children and adolescents to secrecy, their bias against the confidentiality of individual answers to questionnaires.

In order to find out the intensity of alcohol consumption respondents were asked to answer questions about the number of drinks they had consumed in the last 30 days, as this period of time is much easier to remember. The distribution of answers of all respondents makes us possible to state that regardless of the strength of drinks, the frequency of their use by young people during the last month is 1-2 times. The percentage of children and adolescents (10-14 years old) who reported drinking alcohol just as many times was higher than the cohort of seniors (15-22 years old). Thus, 25% of 10-14-year-olds and 2% of 15-22-year-olds drank beer 1-2 times during the last month, 18% and 5% of respondents preferred wine. As for strong alcohol, 1-2 times during the last 30 days it was consumed mostly by boys and girls in age 15-22, the latter cases were twice as often (respectively 8% and 15%). We have to note that older people drink alcohol more regularly – 3-5 times a month. In general, among the alcoholic beverages that respondents drank most often, 10-19 and even 20-30 times a month (mostly for 15-22-year-olds), this is beer.

Conclusions

Chronic alcoholism or alcohol addiction is a disease in which a person develops an incredible craving for alcohol, symptoms of

asthenia and abstinence and other alcoholic disorders. The alcoholic is very depressed, he/she is insecure, sometimes repents, scared. The character deteriorates sharply, sleep is short and superficial, he/she sees terrible dreams. At the same time, the body's resistance to alcohol poisoning increases. At the stage of domestic drunkenness the usual doses of alcoholism are no longer enough. Another sign of alcoholism is weakening of protective reflexes, such as vomiting, nausea, salivation. Hallucinations, acute psychosis and memory loss are observed with large doses of alcohol. There is an unstable motive for the person's behavior, the patient performs acts that are not the main characteristics of him/her before. In the past, a sincere, merciful, a kind man becomes indifferent, immoral, angry. The alcoholic lacks focus. He/she never brings the case to the end.

In the last stage of alcoholism resistance to large doses of alcohol decreases sharply. Patients feel unwell, their blood circulation is disturbed, there are acute disorders of the cardiovascular system, liver failure. In appearance they are resemble patients who are characterized by mental and social degradation.

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Главінська Еліна. Ставлення молоді до алкоголю: ризик виникнення алкогольної залежності.

Мета статті: *розкрити психологічні аспекти захворювань, які виникають внаслідок вживання алкоголю; схарактеризувати особливості фізичної залежності у вигляді алкогольного стану; скласти схему розвитку алкоголізму; описати характерні ускладнення запою, такі як біла гарячка, алкогольне маренні; змоделювати ступені сп'яніння; провести пілотне дослідження та з'ясувати ставлення молоді до алкоголю.*

Методи дослідження. *Для розв'язання поставлених у статті завдань було використано такі теоретичні методи дослідження: категоріальний метод, структурно-функціональний метод, методи аналізу, систематизації, моделювання, узагальнення. Емпіричним методом стало пілотне дослідження, яке було організовано у Києві, Львові та Рівному. Під час дослідження враховувалися соціально-демографічні характеристики (вік респондентів, їхня стать).*

Результати дослідження. *Емпіричним шляхом виявлено чітку залежність: практика вживання алкогольних напоїв поширюється з віком респондентів. Із респондентів, які будь-коли вживали такі напої, як пиво, вино, горілка, коньяк, віскі, лікер, самогон тощо, кожен третій був 10-річним респондентом (36%), кожен другий – з-поміж 11- та 12-річних (відповідно 49% і 54%), 73% молоді – 13-річних, 78% – 14-річних підлітків,*

85% – серед юнаків та дівчат 15-річного віку. Питома частка молодих людей віком від 16 до 22 років, які вживали алкоголь, надзвичайно велика, і коливається від 93% до 98%. Показовими є дані щодо віку першого випадку вживання алкогольних напоїв. Наприклад, найбільша частка респондентів зазначили, що вперше скуштували пиво у 10 років – 28% та у віці від 16 років і старше – 9%, ніколи його не вживали – 24%. «Знайомство» з вином та міцними напоями відбувається переважно у підлітковому віці 13-16 років і старше (зокрема, у групі респондентів 10-14 років досвід першого вживання хоча б склянки вина мають 43%). Ніколи не вживали вина та міцних напоїв серед усіх опитаних, відповідно, 31% і 43%. Майже половина (43%) представників молодшої групи (10-14 років) взагалі не відповіли на запитання щодо віку першого вживання пива. Ще 75% респондентів цього ж віку проігнорували запитання щодо першого вживання міцних напоїв. Такий розподіл даних свідчить щодо схильності дітей та підлітків до скритності, стосовно їхньої упередженості щодо конфіденційності індивідуальних відповідей на запитання анкети.

Висновки. Хронічний алкоголізм, або алкогольна наркоманія – це хвороба, за якої у людини з'являється неймовірний потяг до спиртних напоїв, спостерігаються симптоми астенії і абстиненції та інші алкогольні розлади. Алкоголік, як правило, дуже пригнічений, він невпевнений у собі, часом кається, лякається. Характер людини різко погіршується, сон – короткочасний і поверхневий, він бачить жахливі сни. Водночас підвищується опірність організму до алкогольного отруєння. В стадії побутового п'янства звичайні дози алкоголізму вже є недостатніми. Ще одна ознака алкоголізму – послаблення захисних рефлексів – блювоти, нудоти, слиновиділення. За умов вживання великих доз алкоголю спостерігаються галюцинації, гострі психози, втрата пам'яті. З'являється нестійкий мотив поведінки, хворий здійснює вчинки, не властиві йому раніше. В минулому – щирий, милосердний, добрий чоловік стає байдужим, аморальним, озлобленим. В алкоголіка відсутня цілеспрямованість, він ніколи не доводить розпочату справу до кінця.

Ключові слова: алкоголь, алкогольна залежність, алкогольні розлади, опірність організму до алкогольного отруєння, практика вживання алкоголю, ступені сп'яніння.

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Analysis of Methods to Overcome Psychoemotional Stress under Wartime Conditions

Аналіз методів подолання психоемоційного стресу в умовах війни

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ABSTRACT

The **purpose** of the study is to analyze psychological theories of stress and identify methods of overcoming it that can and should be used in wartime. Its urgency is due to the need to provide psychological assistance to servicemen and civilians who have experienced factors of exceptional intensity (shelling, injuries, death of loved ones). In accordance with the objective, the main tasks are identified: 1) to determine the essence of the concepts of "stress", "combat stress", "traumatic stress", "post-traumatic stress"; 2) to find out the differences between the course of stress as a psycho-emotional state in conditions of war; 3) to analyze the main theories of stress research; 4) to describe the approaches to overcoming it, which are used within these theories and are appropriate for use in wartime.

Methods. A set of methods of scientific research: theoretical analysis, generalization, comparison, systematization of facts, theoretical modeling, scientific interpretation are used to implement the key tasks.

The results of the research. The paper presents the solution to an important academic issue related to the analysis of methods of overcoming psycho-emotional stress in war. There are three main types of stress that occur during war: combat, traumatic, and post-traumatic. The differences of the described varieties are determined and their nature is established, the latter consists in the action of stressors of exceptional strength, which determines the combination of physiological and psychoemotional symptoms. In this regard, biological (related to the physiological nature of stress) and psychological theories are analyzed.

According to biological theories, stress is a violation of the body's balance between external influences and internal resources of the body, which fact outlines the main methods of overcoming it. According to these theories, methods aimed at attracting physiological resources of the body (rest, sleep, relaxation);

restoration of disturbed psychophysiological functions (normalization of respiration, acquisition of control over the body); provision of basic needs (food, water, heat, hygiene).

According to psychological theories, stress is characterized as an internal mental state of tension that determines the methods of overcoming it. For the treatment of combat stress, the BICEPS program (brevity, immediacy, centrality / contact, expectancy, proximity, simplicity) is presented, which is widespread in US military practice. To overcome the traumatic and post-traumatic stress of civilians, a number of methods of psychological and psychotherapeutic care have been proposed, including psycho-counseling, debriefing, crisis intervention, defusing, autogenic training techniques, rational, cognitive-behavioral, physical therapy, therapy and neurotherapy.

Conclusions. *Summarizing the theoretical and methodological positions of the study, two main areas of influence on the symptoms of psycho-emotional stress are identified:*

1) impact on physiological aspects of life, including the satisfaction of basic human needs for food, warmth, hygiene; increase of physiological resources of an organism and restoration of the broken psychophysiological functions; 2) influence on psychological factors of behavior (motivation, value system, volitional characteristics) by means of psychological counseling, psychological rehabilitation and psychotherapy.

Their use is effective in a complex, which will increase the impact on both psychological and physiological factors of stress formation.

Key words: *stress, combat stress, traumatic stress, post-traumatic stress disorder, war.*

Introduction

In the conditions of full-scale war, it is natural to significantly increase the psycho-emotional load on both military and civilians. This fact leads to increased emotional burden, which manifests itself in the form of psychological stress. The state of stress affects the effectiveness of daily activities, well-being, and life satisfaction. Citizens of the occupied territories who have witnessed rocket and tank shelling, the constant noise of planes and artillery, the military from the conflict centers have particularly severe experiences, which often lead to exacerbation of various behavioral symptoms. According to R.A. Gabriel

(Gabriel, 1986), the level of stress losses in the European army during World War II is 1 in 10 (101: 1000). Psychological help is an opportunity for them to process their past experience by reshaping it, focusing on own emotions, activating internal and external resources, which helps to cope with the problem.

Analysis of recent research

Analysis of a number of references shows that the problem of stress has often been the subject of special studies. The most common are biological: adaptation hypothesis suggested by H. Selye (Selye, 1956) and psychological: J.S. Greenberg's concept; and the model of coping strategies developed by S. Folkman & R.S. Lazarus (Greenberg, 2002; Folkman & Lazarus, 1991). The research of psychologists who study the overcoming of the effects of psycho-emotional stress in wartime deserves special attention. In particular, we refer to V.A. Alexandria's work on different views on the code of conduct in emergencies (Alexandria, 2022); M.M. Sipko's works on the study of the effectiveness of operational strategic training in stress management (Sipko, 2010); and experimental studies by R.A. Gabriel on emotional disorders related to stress in terms of military conflicts (Gabriel, 1986). At the same time, the problem of war as a factor of stress resistance leaves a lot of room for research in the domestic scientific space.

Purpose of our study

The importance of theoretical and practical elaboration of the problem, the need to determine effective psychological means of solving it led to the choice of the purpose of the article – analysis of psychological theories of stress and identifying methods to overcome it, which should be used in war.

Objectives of the study

1. Define the essence of the concepts of "stress", "combat stress", "traumatic stress", and "post-traumatic stress".

2. Find out the differences between the course of stress as a psycho-emotional state in war.

3. Analyze the main theories of stress research.

4. Describe the approaches to overcoming it, used within these theories.

Research methods and techniques

A set of general scientific research methods was used to solve the set tasks, including: theoretical analysis, generalization, comparison, systematization of facts, theoretical modeling, and scientific interpretation.

Results and discussions

Stress can be seen as the body's response to psychological and psychophysical environmental influences. In modern psychological research, the terms "stress" and "distress" (as its variety) are used to explain a wide range of human conditions that occur due to the negative effects of external and internal factors on the body. The main mechanism of stress is an imbalance of external influences and internal reserves. The amount of resources available to man is insufficient to effectively cope with external psycho-emotional and physical stress. This indicates that the body's natural resistance is lower than the strength of emotional and physical influences of the environment, which leads to stress.

In psychology, along with the concept of stress, there is the term "distress", which is more common in hostilities (from the English "distress" – grief, suffering, exhaustion). It has a negative effect on the body and can transform human behavior. Chronic distress causes serious dysfunctional and pathological disorders in the body. Their signs and consequences often include difficulties with task-oriented coping; concentration problems; fear and anxiety for the future; apathy and emotional numbness; irritability and anger; sadness and depression; feeling powerless; severe hunger or, conversely, lack of appetite; difficulties in making decisions; crying without any apparent reason; headaches or stomach problems; difficulty with sleeping; excessive use of alcohol, antidepressants, drugs; feelings of alienation (Alexandria, 2022); violation of the sense of security; fear due

to lack of control over the situation; disorganization; panic; excessive fuss or, conversely, numbness; physiological symptoms such as vomiting, tremor, urination, etc. (Gabriel, 1986).

Today, lots of theories indicate methods and technologies for overcoming stress. The biological theory of stress is proposed by Canadian physiologist H. Selye (Selye, 1956) and supplemented by our modern domestic researchers R.V. Alekseenko, O.D. Bulinina, V.P. Bulakh, M.A. Vashchuk, G.M. Zelenska, I.M. Isayeva, I.S. Karmazina, D.I. Marakushin, L.V. Chernobai (Marakushin, Chernobai, Isayeva & others, 2020). According to their approach, stress is a physiological reaction of the body, which occurs due to the influence of physical, chemical, psychoemotional environmental factors and helps the body survive. Researchers point out that in addition to psychological symptoms, a person may experience a variety of physiological symptoms, such as headaches, abdominal pain, chest pain, breathing problems, high blood pressure, and sleep disorders.

The rational grain of biological theories is the doctrine of adaptive reactions of the organism, which deals with the violation of internal homeostasis (balance), but focuses on the inexhaustible potential of human adaptive capacity. The adaptive response usually occurs in several stages, and the time of passage and transition to each of the stages will depend not only on the intensity of the stressor, but also on the level of stability of the organism. It is equally important to understand that each organism has individual reserves of adaptive capacity to overcome stress – taking them into account will allow you to more effectively balance the concept of overcoming a stressful situation. In addition, the removal of physiological symptoms (headaches, high blood pressure) will help to attract physiological resources of the body, such as rest, sleep, relaxation, etc. (Selye, 1956).

Equally important is the consideration of stress stages, among them: a) the stage of anxiety, which consists in the mobilization of defenses, changes in shock and anti-shock, accompanied by changes in physiological responses, respiratory rate,

myocardial contractions, blood glucose, etc.); b) the stage of resistance, which involves the maximum intensity of stress factors and reduce the body's resistance; c) the stage of resistance, which is basically intended to increase the functional reserves of the body (normalization of the hormonal background of the pituitary gland, adrenal glands); d) the stage of exhaustion (distress), which occurs only when the stimulus continues to act, thus causing the depletion of the body's internal reserves (Bulakh, 2014).

The specifics of care is directly related to the stages of stress. For example, in the state of shock (stage of anxiety) the help will be provided to restore impaired psychophysiological functions: normalization of respiration, gaining control over the body.

Isolation from the source of stress or the maximum reduction in the intensity of stressors is important in the resistance phase. However, sometimes it is not possible – the constant danger in combat zones and during shelling in the occupied territories remains unchanged. Therefore, the main task of psychological care at this stage is to increase the body's resistance through rest, relaxation, sleep, etc. factors that allow you to restore the body's strength. Providing basic needs for food, water, hygiene is also the basis for overcoming stressors. The psychological factors are important in this context: the sense of safe of immediate environment (support from friends, family, relatives) and self-organization.

The stage of resistance requires increasing of functional reserves of the body through the use of verbal methods of psychological influence: explanation, persuasion, suggestion; use of physical factors (heat, comfortable accommodation) and, if possible, physiotherapeutic methods: baths, hardware physiotherapy, massage, and aromatherapy.

Considerable attention in the context of the analysis of the negative effects of stress deserves research on methods and psychotechnologies that should be used at the stage of exhaustion. Consideration of this issue is related to the activation of internal

resources. At the stage of exhaustion (distress) support will increase the body's internal reserves (motivation, operational and strategic individual energy potential, motor and mental activity) (Marakushin, Chernobay, Isayeva, Karmazina, Vashchuk, Alekseenko, Bulinina & Zelenskaya, 2020).

Unlike biological, the essence of psychological theories is to focus on the development of psychological personality traits that are involved in overcoming stress. American psychologist J.S Greenberg emphasizes that the structure of stress is a combination of stressors (factors that can potentially cause a stress response) and stress reactivity (changes in mental and physiological state of the body). This interaction reveals the nature of stress quite clearly and defines approaches to it (Greenberg, 2002).

Against the general background of the functioning of various types of stress during the war, combat, traumatic and post-traumatic stress disorders are most pronounced. The concept of stress as a combat trauma is related to the psychological reaction of people in combat zones to the influence of stressors of exceptional strength (shelling, injuries, death). Traumatic stress is a typical emotional reaction of civilians to circumstances that go beyond ordinary life experience. Usually, traumatic stress is characteristic for the inhabitants of the occupied territories, who suffer with shelling, destruction, and witness the death of people. Equally important is post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) – a delayed response to traumatic events which usually occurs during the first three months (Korolchuk, 2016).

Under these conditions, the main emotional symptoms of stress response are: a) anxiety, fear, panic – feelings of tension of varying severity: from fear, anxiety to panic anxiety; b) anger, aggression – the reverse forms of response, which clearly shows the body's response to the inability to meet own needs. They occur when a person cannot reach a goal, so he/she tries to shift their dissatisfaction to weaker objects; c) apathy – an alienated attitude to the situation, which consists in understanding

the inability to control the situation; d) depression – a depressed and prolonged emotional state, exacerbated by understanding of the insurmountability of stressors and the inability to cope with psychological trauma; e) inadequate emotional reactions of a protective nature (Gabriel, 1986).

One way or another, traumatic stress, combat trauma, and other similar disorders exacerbate both psychological and physical suffering. Vomiting, urination, and tremors of the extremities are the most common physiological reactions of newcomers in the early days of shelling and contemplation of the horrors of war associated with death and injury. Psychologists consider this condition to be typical in conditions of war, which is characterized by a physiological course within the norm. Some military, many civilians who have witnessed and survived the horrors of the occupation will try to return to daily life and regain a sense of control and confidence in the future, but others will find it very difficult. This is due not only to the intensity of the stressor, but also to the adaptive capabilities of the human body – the strength of nervous processes and the body's overall resistance.

During the war and military special operations a popular American program BICEPS (Brevity, Immediacy, Centrality / Contact, Expectancy, Proximity, Simplicity) is implemented in the fight against stress (Sipko, 2010); the above abbreviation has the following meanings: a) brevity (shortness) – discussion of critical events should last from 2 to 3 hours, and stay in medical institutions – no more than 3-4 days (this does not apply to those who need further treatment due to mental illness); b) immediacy – help is provided immediately after the onset of symptoms; c) centrality / contact – servicemen in need of assistance are evacuated to establishments in the immediate vicinity of the military unit. After returning to their unit, they are reintegrated through psychologists or military chaplains; d) expectancy – servicemen are informed that their reaction to stress is typical and normal, and comrades need their return. When they return,

they are treated in the unit like all other soldiers; e) proximity – assistance is provided not only in medical units, but directly in the battalion headquarters, on light duty. This is a key factor, according to which the head of a small unit helps to overcome stress, and comrades are emotionally supportive; e) simplicity – treatment is very simple: sleep, food, water, hygiene, encouragement, details of work and conversations that restore confidence – this is more than what is needed to return the serviceman to full operational readiness.

As for civilians, the work to overcome stress is carried out according to the situation. In such difficult conditions, the following are of paramount importance: a) maximum rest, which allows you to relieve emotional stress; b) provision of accommodation, food and water; c) association with people who have experienced a similar situation; d) care for others; e) a lot of communication with loved ones, which allows you to respond to negative emotions; f) self-organization; g) information awareness and information support; g) verbal suggestion and positive self-suggestion; h) change of views on the problem; j) revaluation of values. It is important to realize that their response to stress in the face of emergencies is normal, and similar psycho-emotional states are experienced by other people who are in enemy-occupied territories or under enemy fire.

If it is possible to cooperate with a psychologist (psychotherapist) directly or by phone (on hotlines), they will provide psycho-counseling, psychorehabilitation and (or) psychotherapeutic assistance, depending on the problem. In the telephone mode, the leading method of psychological counseling will be support through psycho-counseling. Direct contact will involve all three forms of assistance. Psychological debriefing, crisis intervention, and defusing are methods of psychological rehabilitation. Psychological therapy can be provided in the form of rational, cognitive-behavioral, physical therapy, and art therapy. A positive effect is obtained by using autogenic training techniques and neurolinguistic programming.

Within the framework of psychological care, it is important to use effective coping strategies to overcome stress, identified by S. Folkman & R.S. Lazarus. According to them, the main components of the stress model are adaptation mechanisms aimed at overcoming difficult situations. R.S. Lazarus and his colleague S. Folkman first used the concept of "coping behavior", which means the sum of cognitive and behavioral efforts spent on mitigating the effects of stress (Folkman & Lazarus, 1991). Accordingly, they define the following strategies which include: a) a strategy of distancing, which consists in trying to abstract from the problem; b) a strategy of self-control, which allows to solve the problem by self-organization and regulation of own behavior; c) strategy of seeking social support as help from other people; d) a strategy of acceptance of responsibility, which allows to realize one's role in overcoming stress; e) an avoidance strategy that in some circumstances reduces internal tensions; f) strategy of planning the solution of the problem as an analysis of own capabilities and outlining the probable results of own actions; g) positive reassessment of the situation due to the change in attitude to it (Folkman & Lazarus, 1991).

This approach to the problem makes it possible to compose an individual set of behavioral, emotional and cognitive forms of response, which are most appropriate to use in wartime.

Conclusions and recommendation

Summarizing the main positions of the study, carrying out research analysis of the main theories of stress, we have grounds for the following conclusions.

Stress in war conditions (combat, traumatic, post-traumatic) is characterized by the influence of stressors of exceptional strength, which causes a combination of psycho-emotional and physiological symptoms.

Biological and psychological theories are the most widely represented in scientific research. According to the first, stress is a violation of the body's balance between its external inf-

luences and internal resources. The main methods of overcoming it are resistance to individual reserves of adaptive capacity, attracting physiological resources of the body, such as rest, sleep, relaxation, restoration of impaired psychophysiological functions: normalization of respiration, gaining control over the body, providing basic needs for food, water, hygiene, physical (heat, cozy accommodation) and physiotherapy (baths, massage, aromatherapy) methods.

According to psychological theories, stress is the internal mental state of tension and excitement, which determines the methods of overcoming it. The BICEPS program (brevity, immediacy, centrality / contact, expectancy, proximity, simplicity) is officially sanctioned in the US military practice for the treatment of combat stress. To overcome the traumatic and post-traumatic stress of civilians, a number of methods of psychological assistance are used: psycho-counseling, debriefing, crisis intervention, defusing, autogenic training techniques, rational, cognitive-behavioral, physical therapy, neurolinguistic programming, artography. Equally important are self-help techniques – reuniting with people who have experienced a similar situation; caring for others; communication to respond to negative emotions; information support; positive self-suggestion; and revaluation of values.

A complex of these methods will be the most effective in their combination, which will increase the impact on both psychological and physiological factors of stress formation.

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Гончарук Наталія, Онуфрієва Ліана. Аналіз методів подолання психоемоційного стресу в умовах війни.

Мета дослідження *– проаналізувати психологічні теорії стресу та виокремити методи його подолання, які, можливо, і доцільно використовувати в умовах війни. Її актуальність обумовлена необхідністю надання психологічної допомоги військовослужбовцям і цивільним, котрі пережили дію чинників виняткової інтенсивності (обстріли, поранення, загибель близьких). Відповідно до мети виокремлено основні завдання: 1) визначити сутність понять «стрес», «бойовий стрес», «травматичний стрес», «посттравматичний стрес»; 2) з'ясувати відмінності перебігу стресу як психоемоційного стану в умовах війни; 3) здійснити аналіз основних теорій дослідження стресу; 4) описати підходи до його подолання, що застосовуються у межах цих теорій та є доцільними для використання в умовах війни.*

Методи. *Для реалізації ключових завдань використано комплекс методів наукового дослідження: теоретичний аналіз, узагальнення, порівняння, систематизація фактів, теоретичне моделювання, наукова інтерпретація.*

Результати дослідження. *У дослідженні представлено варіант вирішення важливої наукової проблеми, пов'язаної з аналізом методів подолання психоемоційного стресу в умовах війни. Виокремлено три основних різновиди стресу, які зустрічаються під час війни: бойовий, травматичний, посттравматичний. Визначено відмінності описаних різновидів і встановлено їх природу, яка полягає у дії стресорів виняткової сили, що зумовлює поєднання фізіологічної та психоемоційної симптоматики. У зв'язку з цим проаналізовано біологічні (пов'язані із фізіологічною природою стресу) та психологічні теорії.*

З'ясовано, що згідно з біологічними теоріями, стрес є порушенням рівноваги організму між зовнішніми впливами та внутрішніми ресурсами організму, що окреслює головні методи його подолання. Відповідно до цих теорій виокремлено методи, спрямовані на залучення фізіологічних ресурсів організму (відпочинок, сон, релаксація); відновлення порушених психофізіологічних функцій (нормалізація дихання, опанування контролю над тілом); забезпечення елементарних потреб (у їжі, воді, теплі, гігієні).

Стрес охарактеризовано як внутрішній психічний стан напруги, що визначає методи його подолання. Для лікування бойового стресу представлено програму BICEPS (brevity, immediacy, centrality/contact, expectancy, proximity, simplicity – у перекл. стислість, безпосередність, центральність/контакт, очікування, близькість, простота), розповсюджену у військовій практиці США. Для подолання травматичного та посттравматичного стресу цивільних осіб запропоновано низку методів психологічної і психотерапевтичної допомоги, до яких входить психоконсультативна бесіда, дебрифинг, кризова інтервенція, деф'юзинг, техніки аутогенного тренування, раціональна, когнітивно-поведінкова, тілесна терапія, нейролінгвістичне програмування, арттерапія та ін.

Висновки. Узагальнюючи теоретико-методологічні позиції стосовно дослідження, визначено дві основні сфери впливу на симптоматику психоемоційного стресу:

1) вплив на фізіологічні аспекти життєдіяльності, серед яких задоволення основних базових потреб людини у їжі, теплі, гігієні; підвищення фізіологічних ресурсів організму та відновлення порушених психофізіологічних функцій;

2) вплив на психологічні чинники поведінки (мотивацію, систему цінностей, вольові характеристики) засобами психологічного консультування, психологічної реабілітації та психотерапії.

Їх застосування є ефективним у комплексі, що уможливить посилити вплив як на психологічні, так на фізіологічні чинники формування стресу.

Ключові слова: стрес, бойовий стрес, травматичний стрес, посттравматичний стресовий розлад, війна.

Dependence of the Success of Testing Pupils on Social Intelligence of Teachers

Залежність показників успішності вчителя тестувати учнів від рівня розвитку соціального інтелекту педагогів

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ABSTRACT

The purpose *of our article is: to describe the most effective means of a cognitive control in the learning process of a foreign language, to describe three main stages of a test creation, to identify final or intermediate (thematic) tests; to show the dependence of the success of testing on social intelligence of teachers.*

Methods of the research. *The following theoretical methods of the research were used to solve the tasks formulated in the article: a categorical method, structural and functional methods, the methods of the analysis, systematization, modeling, generalization. Also in our research we used empirical methods of the statement study and molding experiment. With the aim to diagnose the level of the development of social intelligence of teachers we used the test of J. Gilford and M. O'Sullivan "Research of Social Intelligence", adapted by O.S. Mykhailova (Гилфорд & О'Салливен, 2021).*

The results of the research. *According to our research it is proved that the structure of social intelligence of a teacher had four components, such as: communicative potential, characteristics of self-awareness, social perception and energy characteristics of the individual. The outlined characteristics determine a teacher's prediction of the development of interpersonal situations, the ability to interpret the information he/she has heard or seen and the behavior of others, readiness for effective social interaction and decision-making. Thus, social intelligence of a teacher contains individual inclinations, abilities, characteristics that facilitate the acquisition of individual personal experience, skills and abilities of social actions and contacts.*

Conclusions. *Studying the social intelligence of the teacher is defined as the ability to perceive the surrounding and inner world, which allowed professionals at different levels to easily navigate in interpersonal interaction, harmonize their behavior. The structure of social intelligence of the teacher includes social*

sensitivity, empathy, self-knowledge and self-regulation. Social intelligence of a teacher is identified with certain psychological mechanisms. Social intelligence includes social thinking and wisdom. In such a way we analyze the concept of "social thinking" as a structural component of social intelligence. Social thinking is defined as the ability of the subject to understand and to operate with perceived information. A high level of the development of social thinking allows a teacher to solve problems effectively that are arisen in the process of interpersonal interaction; efficiency means speed, flexibility and accuracy in dealing with the facts of social reality.

Key words: *social intelligence, the success of testing, social thinking, social interaction, decision-making, stages of test's creation, social sensitivity, empathy, self-knowledge, self-regulation.*

Introduction

From the point of view of scientists the most important components of socio-psychological development of the individual, ensuring his/her social adequacy in the macro- and micro-social environment, are the social imagination and social intelligence. Thus, scientists (Гончарук & Онуфрієва, 2018) believe that social intelligence should be perceived as a special ability of a man, which is formed during his/her professional activities, activities in the social sphere, in the field of communications and social interactions.

Social intelligence in the conditions of practical psychological activity was studied by other scientists (Benson, 2001; Nunan, 2003). Based on the results of empirical researches, they note that the scope of subject-subject cognition of individuals by each other can be called social intelligence, which is a fairly stable ability to understand themselves and other people, their relationships, as well as to predict the course of interpersonal events.

Similar to these scientists (Onufriieva & Ivashkevych, 2021a; Onufriieva & Ivashkevych, 2021b) social intelligence is understood in other psychological researches (Mykhalchuk & Ivashkevych, 2018; Mykhalchuk & Kryshevych, 2019). Scientists believe that social intelligence as the ability to social cogni-

tion is a leading component of individual readiness of the person for professional activity.

We consider social intelligence from a slightly different point of view, but also in the paradigm of social interaction. We analyze social intelligence through the concept of innovativeness, which is understood by us as a complex ability of the teacher to perceive, evaluate and understand the pupil adequately. From this point of view we predict the dependence of the success of testing on social intelligence of teachers. So, **the purpose** of our article is: to describe the most effective means of a cognitive control in the learning process of a foreign language, to describe three main stages of a test creation, to identify final or intermediate (thematic) tests, to show the dependence of the success of testing on social intelligence of teachers.

Methods of the research

The following theoretical methods of the research were used to solve the tasks formulated in the article: a categorical method, structural and functional methods, the methods of the analysis, systematization, modeling, generalization. Also in our research we used empirical methods of statement study and molding experiment. With the aim to diagnose the level of the development of social intelligence of teachers we used the test of J. Gilford and M. O'Sullivan "Research of Social Intelligence", adapted by O.S. Mykhailova (Гилфорд & О'Салливен, 2021).

At this stage of the empirical research 218 teachers of secondary schools of different regions of Ukraine were participated:

1) N group includes 108 teachers of the I-st category (professional experience is from 10 to 15 years, the age is from 30 to 35 years), among them there are 47 teachers of secondary schools № 5, № 15 of Rivne town, 30 teachers of Shpanivska and Alexandria secondary schools of Rivne region, 31 teacher of secondary schools № 45, № 96 of Odesa city. Teachers of N group were divided into such micro-groups:

– N1 group includes 39 primary school teachers (all of them are women);
– N2 group includes 37 teachers of teenagers who teach the natural sciences and humanities (among them there are 17 men and 20 women);
– N3 group includes 32 teachers of senior pupils of the physical and mathematical cycle (16 of them are men and 16 are women);

2) M group includes 110 teachers of the highest category (professional experience is from 15 years and more, age is from 35 years old and older); among them there are 55 teachers of secondary schools № 5, № 15 of Rivne town, 22 teachers of Shpanivska and Alexandria secondary schools of Rivne region, 33 teachers of secondary schools № 45, № 96 of Odesa city. Teachers of M group were divided into such micro-groups:

– M1 group includes 26 teachers of primary school (all of them are women);
– M2 group includes 42 teachers of teenagers who teach subjects of physical-mathematical cycle (there are 22 men and 20 women).

Results and their discussion

One of the most effective means of a cognitive control in the learning process of a foreign language is a test. A great number of the researches in this area were responded to the needs of nowadays, but they were addressed to some certain aspects and testing issues, often under which the test was understood only as some types of test tasks.

Test is often understood as a procedure intended to identify a particular sample of the person's behavior (in our case – it is the linguistic one), where you can draw conclusions about certain characteristics of the individual.

The main difference from the traditional test activity is that type of learning which always involves some measurement. Therefore, the evaluation based on the results of the test is more

objectively and independent of the teacher's possible subjectivity than the assessment of the performance of traditional test, which is always subjective, since it is based on the impression of a teacher not always free of his/her personal sympathies or antipathy in relation to that or another pupil. The main distinguishing feature of the test is the objectivity guaranteed by the measurement function of which test is to supply quantitative information.

To maximize the reliability of the measurement and the validity of using the test the teacher can follow by three main stages of test's creation:

– to give a clear and unambiguous theoretical and scientifically substantiated definition of skills to be checked;

– to determine the condition and operations precisely that should be followed during the test and monitoring its implementation;

– to determine the results of observations quantitatively in order to ensure that the measuring scales used have all the necessary qualities.

There are various definitions of the concept of "test" – from the type of a simple control task to a set of tasks that have the form of "multiple choice". In foreign practice of language testing differences in the interpretation of the concept of "test" are presented in such a way as the differences between the concepts of "control activity" in general as the basis of evaluation thought and "testing activity", which involves a specially organized verification of knowledge which display a great interest to us (knowledge, skills, abilities). The quality of any measuring instrument, including the test, is determined primarily by its reliability and validity.

The reliability indicator shows how consistent the results of these measurements are. For example, a reliable test would exclude the chance of this or that result. A test that measures the level of the development of those (and only those) abilities, skills, knowledge, for which it is necessary to be intended by the developers, it is understood by us as a valid one.

Validity (it is practical in any form) will determine the legality of the interpretation of the test's results. Obviously, the use of a test for some purposes for which it was not intended will automatically make it unfit for the compilation.

Testing in foreign language learning is used to identify:
- the level of achievements in a certain type of activity;
- the abilities to a certain type of activity;
- the difficulties in mastering one or another type of activity and in presenting some possible ways of overcoming them.

In practice teachers often have to meet the tests of the first group. Such tests can measure general skills in the linguistic activity or achieve a certain level of skills in the process of learning a specific course of study.

Tests can be *final or intermediate (thematic)*. Final tests are designed to confirm the level of pupils' learning objectively. The thematic test is intended to help to improve the educational process itself.

Tests can determine the level of training or developing linguistic competence of other pupils (norm-oriented test), relative to different pupils or using with some specific criterion, such as a level of training (criterion oriented tests).

Thus, the test results can be used to assess the level of students' learning, to select them in one or another educational institution, to certify tests achievements in a particular type of the activity (for a subject), for distribution in groups of learning depending on the level that has to be reached, for diagnosis learning difficulties.

We also understand tasks that have a specific organization allowing all the pupils to work simultaneously under the same conditions and write answers to the questions using symbols. Test's tasks always have the unambiguous decision, determining the correctness of the responses which are carried out according to the prepared key. The use of tests for control is appropriate approach in studying because they specify the direction of men-

tal activity of pupils, teach them to vary the process of understanding the information having been perceived.

Testing is an important structural component of the educational process, associated with its goals, content and methods. The results of testing largely depend on the formulation of goals and objectives of learning, choice and consistency of its methods. Due to the testing, the feedback is implemented. It allows the teacher to regulate quickly, to correct the learning process and to set specific tasks for the next lesson.

In the psychological literature the concepts of "testing", "verification", "evaluation", "accounting" sometimes are used as synonyms, but they can not be identified. Verification is a component (means) of testing and it means the detection and measurement of the level and the quality of knowledge, the workload of each pupil. In addition to verification, test elements are the evaluation (the factor of process) and the assessment (the result of the verification). Grades are recorded in the form of points in journals, performance charts, databases. The results of testing are the basis for assessing the pupil's progress. The success involves fixing the results of testing in the form of the estimation, judgment or numerical score in order to analyze the state of the educational process for a certain period, the reasons for tests' ineffective functioning. Consequently, the tests' structure consists of verification, evaluation and accounting.

Testing helps to solve a number of tasks in the learning process:

- identifying pupils' readiness to perceive, comprehend and master new knowledge;
- determining the effectiveness of using of organizational forms, methods and means of teaching;
- detection of the degree of correctness, volume and depth of knowledge acquired by pupils, their skills and abilities.

These and some other tasks define the content of testing, which are changed because of change of didactic and psychologi-

cal tasks of the lesson. The main *objective of testing* as a didactic teaching management tool is to ensure the effectiveness of learning by systematizing knowledge, skills and abilities of students, the independent application of their knowledge into practice. These tasks also include encouraging pupils to study diligently and forming their desire for self-education.

Monitoring and evaluation of pupils' knowledge, skills and abilities are an integral part of the educational process. Based on the logics of the learning process, on the one hand, it is a final component of mastering a certain content block, and on the other one it is a kind of connecting link in the system of educational activity of the individual. In this case, testing is performed solely for the purpose of assessing the knowledge, skills and abilities of pupils. The final act of testing in this case is the teacher's presentation of a certain score.

Testing is the identification, measurement and evaluation of pupils' knowledge and abilities. It has its own functions, own objects and methods.

In a way of correct organization of the educational process testing helps to develop the memory, thinking and language of pupils, systematizes their knowledge, promptly reveals the miscalculations of the educational process and serves to prevent them. A well-organized testing of pupils' knowledge contributes to the democratization of the learning process, its intensification and differentiation of learning. It helps the teacher to obtain objective information (feedback) on the progress of pupils' educational and cognitive activity.

Testing is an integral part of the learning process as the tool for managing, correction and stimulation. Without these processes there can be neither study nor school itself. But for successful testing and tracking of pupils' progress it's not enough just to discover what they know. Their knowledge and skills need to be assessed properly. The assessment is the meaning of knowledge testing. It can act in various forms: verbal and estimated, qualitative and quantitative ones.

The assessment of pupils' success is a system of certain indicators that reflects the objective knowledge and skills of pupils. In such a way the assessment can be understood as a determination of the degree of assimilation of pupils' knowledge, skills and abilities in accordance with the requirements presented to them by school curricula.

First of all, the assessment is characterized by the level of assimilation and quality of knowledge acquired by pupils in the learning process, as well as their development and readiness to apply this knowledge into practice, and shows the relations between what each pupil knows about certain program issues and what he or she can know from the same questions at the moment of studying. In our opinion, this definition characterizes some important moments of evaluation, the essence of which, however, is much deeper and functionally significant.

So, testing is an integral part of the foreign language learning system. Unlike teaching a foreign language, the purpose of which is the formation of foreign language skills and abilities, the task of testing is primarily determination and evaluation of the level of their formation. The main purpose of testing in the process of teaching a foreign language is to manage this process. As a component of the training system, testing has its own functions, types, forms, means and objects.

Testing is important for pupils themselves. We believe, that in a way of conjunction with self-control it affects the learning motivation, increases the pupils' responsibility for studying, forms the features of discipline, accuracy and systematic activities. Testing involves continuous monitoring of the learning process and specially organized examination of pupils' knowledge, skills and abilities through the interrogation, oral homework checking, conducting tests, checking of compositions, essays, etc.

Testing of pupils' knowledge is enable to learn the gaps in pupils' knowledge (whereas, there are some gaps in the teacher's activities, when he or she has the opportunity to learn about his/

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her personal disadvantages); to find out, whether the pupils understood everything clearly and correctly; to check the completeness of knowledge, awareness and strength of their assimilation, their ability to apply; to stimulate mental activity of pupils; to develop their skills of synthesis and systematization of educational material; to teach pupils to be persistent and responsible in educational activities; to provide operational external and internal feedback in education.

There are some functions of testing, which are very important. These functions are divided into specific control and general one. *Specific functions* are the identification, measurement and evaluation of knowledge. *Common control functions* include:

- diagnostic (determining the level and quality of pupils' knowledge, identifying gaps in knowledge and their causes);
- educational (systematization of pupils' knowledge, correction of the results of their educational activities);
- upbringing/educational (formation of moral qualities of pupils, education of adequate self-esteem, discipline, independence, sense of responsibility);
- developing (formation of autonomy and critical thinking of pupils, development of their cognitive processes);
- stimulating (motivating pupils to systematic activity, achieving the best results in learning, overcoming the gaps in knowledge);
- prognostic (determination of different ways to improve the efficiency of the teacher and cognitive activity of pupils);
- evaluation (comparison of revealed level of knowledge, skills and abilities with the requirements of the curriculum);
- management (adjusting of pupils' activity and also teachers' activities themselves, improving the organization of teaching process in general).

General and specific functions of testing are determined by the main objectives of teaching, and they are closely interrela-

ted. Taking into account the importance of testing, we'd like to say they are also subjective to certain specific requirements.

1. Testing should have a systemic nature, because only in this case its impact on the process of evolution will be sustainable. Random and unsystematic (occasional) testing always makes an element of nervousness and negatively affect the processes of learning and teaching.

2. Processes of learning, monitoring and evaluation should be individual and have to be taken into account both, according to personal capabilities and specific living conditions of each child.

3. The teacher must constantly strive for his or her assessment of the students' activity to be objective and, if it is possible, be closer to the pupils' self-esteem. Conscious or unconscious mistakes of the teacher can cause great harm to the moral and educational character of the process of teaching.

4. The monitoring system should be open, and each assessment should be accompanied by a justification.

5. The teacher's control and assessment of pupils' achievements involves obligatory benevolence between the subjects of study. Testing is not also a simple punishment, but it helps pupils to understand their success and new tasks in further learning.

Observing the pupils' activities during classes, studying the products of the students' educational activity, verification of knowledge, skills and abilities are the main means of control. The basic principles of knowledge testing include the individual character of verification, objectivity, systematic, thematic orientation, unity of requirements, optimality and integrity.

Also, we distinguish *different stages* of testing by their place in the educational process (Table 1):

– *the previous stage* is performed before learning a new material to ascertain the quality of reference knowledge, skills and abilities in order to update and correct them, to establish the necessary relationships;

- *the current stage* is performed in the process of studying a new material, to learn the quality of pupils' assimilating with knowledge, skills and abilities in order to correct them;
- *the periodic (thematic) one* is performed after examining the sections of the curriculum, the teacher has to check, evaluate and adjust the mastering of a certain system of knowledge, skills and abilities;
- *the final stage* consists in the evaluation of the pupils' progress at the end of the academic quarter;
- *the conclusive one* is performed at the end of the school year to record the success of each student during a year. Exams (transitional and graduate) are the most important type of the examination.

Table 1

Means of testing of pupils' achievements

Testing of pupils' achievements		
Forms		Stages
By the way of organization:	By the way of obtaining the information:	Previous Current Periodic The final one Conclusive
• individual • differentiated • group • frontal	• oral • written • experimental • computer	

The effectiveness of testing depends on its *organization*: the time of independent and testing exercises, their frequency and sequence, the nature of independent activity of pupils (individual, group, frontal), a combination of methods of testing and self-control (oral, written, graphic, practical tests), the fixation and registration of testing data of learning process.

From the foregoing we can conclude, that the teacher has to adhere to didactic requirements, use different forms of evaluation, remember about impact of assessment on the pupils' emotional state, when he or she evaluates and testing pupils' achieve-

ments. Testing of the process of learning outcomes occurs at all stages of the learning process. It becomes of particular importance after studying any section of the program or the completion of the learning stage. The main task of checking the learning outcomes is to identify the level of mastering the knowledge, skills, competencies that have to meet the educational standards.

Empirical results are shown in Table 2.

Table 2

The levels of the development of social intelligence of teachers of groups N1, N2, N3 (in %)

The level of social intelligence of teachers by subtests of the test of J. Gilford and M. O'Sullivan "Research of Social Intelligence", adapted by O.S. Mykhailova	Groups					
	N1		N2		N3	
	men	wo-men	men	wo-men	men	wo-men
I Subtest "Stories with completion" High level	-	65.3	62.5	64.0	68.0	37.5
Middle level	-	30.7	19.4	18.4	32.0	44.2
Low level	-	4.02	18.1	17,6	0	18.3
II Subtest "Groups of expressions" High level	-	62.1	29.9	42.2	69.0	36.2
Middle level	-	28.5	47.3	37.8	18.9	41.4
Low level	-	9.41	22.7	20.0	12.2	22.5
III Subtest "Verbal expression" High level	-	64.0	31.0	41.2	71.0	37.9
Middle level	-	24.5	39.7	34.9	12.0	40.0
Low level	-	11.5	29.4	24.0	17.0	22.2
IV Subtest "Stories with additions" High level	-	73.2	42.4	29.3	69.0	41.2
Middle level	-	26.8	38.6	48.3	31.0	40.6
Low level	-	0	19.0	22.5	0	18.3

In general, the data obtained indicates that women (teachers of the natural sciences) were more sensitive to the nature and various manifestations of human relationships and they were able to show considerable role of flexibility in the situations that were arisen. This may be explained by the fact that education in the paradigm of "love" (passion) for the natural sciences contributes to the development of women's style aimed at emotional sensitivity, communicative compatibility. Men, on the contrary, are encouraged to develop the ability to hide and suppress their feelings, that is, emotional restraint, competition, activity, the ability to control the situation are encouraged.

For the subtest of the "The Groups of the Expressions", which measures the factor of knowledge of different classes of behavior of people, namely the ability to logical generalization and the allocation of common essential features in various non-verbal reactions, the teachers of the disciplines of natural sciences and humanities did not receive very high (or better, mediocre) results. At the same time, with a high level of the development of social intelligence there is a statistically significant difference in the results of men and women, which is diagnosed at the level of reliability $\rho < 0.01$. So, women are better than men in evaluation the states correctly, in feelings and intentions of people for their nonverbal manifestations: facial expressions, poses and gestures. The high results for this subtest are characterized for 29.92% of men and 42.16% of women in N2 group; for 31.06% of men and 42.18% of women in M2 group.

So, social intelligence is also a basic personal ability that arises on the basis of a set of intellectual, personal, communicative and behavioral traits, as well as psychomotor qualities of the individual, processes of self-regulation of its activities. According to our research we proved that the structure of social intelligence of a teacher had four components, such as: communicative potential, characteristics of self-awareness, social perception and energy characteristics of the individual. Outlined characteristics determine a teacher's prediction of the development of

interpersonal situations, the ability to interpret the information he/she has heard or seen and the behavior of others, readiness for effective social interaction and decision-making. Thus, social intelligence of a teacher contains individual inclinations, abilities, characteristics that facilitate the acquisition of individual personal experience, skills and abilities of social actions and contacts.

Conclusions

Having studied the social intelligence of the teacher, we defined it as the ability to perceive the surrounding and inner world, which allowed professionals at different levels to navigate in interpersonal interaction easily, harmonize their behavior. The structure of social intelligence of a teacher includes social sensitivity, empathy, self-knowledge and self-regulation.

Social intelligence of a teacher is identified with certain psychological mechanisms. Social intelligence includes social thinking and wisdom. In such a way the concept of "social thinking" is analyzed as a structural component of social intelligence. Social thinking is defined as the ability of the subject to understand and to operate with perceived information. A high level of the development of social thinking allows a teacher to solve problems effectively that are arisen in the process of interpersonal interaction; efficiency means speed, flexibility and accuracy in dealing with the facts of social reality.

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Івашкевич Едуард, Данчук Юлія. Залежність показників успішності вчителя тестувати учнів від рівня розвитку соціального інтелекту педагогів.

Метою нашої статті є: описати найбільш ефективні засоби когнітивного контролю в процесі навчання школярів іноземної мови, описати три основні етапи моделювання тесту, визначити підсумкові або проміжні (тематичні) тести, показати залежність успішності тестування від соціального інтелекту вчителів.

Методи дослідження. Для розв'язання поставлених у роботі завдань використовувалися такі теоретичні методи дослідження: категоріальний, структурно-функціональний, аналіз, систематизація, моделювання, узагальнення. Також у дослідженні використовувались емпіричні методи констатувального дослідження та формувального експерименту. Для діагностики рівня розвитку соціального інтелекту застосовувалась «Методика дослідження соціального інтелекту» Дж. Гілфорда та М. О'Саллівена, адаптована О.С. Михайловою (2021).

Результати дослідження. Відповідно до отриманих результатів нашого дослідження доведено, що структура соціального інтелекту

вчителя має чотири складові, такі як: комунікативний потенціал, характеристики самосвідомості, соціальна перцепція та енергетичні характеристики особистості. Окреслені характеристики зумовлюють прогнозування вчителем розвитку міжособистісних ситуацій, здатність до інтерпретації почутої чи побаченої ним інформації та поведінки інших, готовність до ефективної соціальної взаємодії і прийняття рішень. Отже, соціальний інтелект вміщує індивідуальні задатки, здібності, властивості, що фасілітують набуття вчителем особистісного досвіду, умінь і навичок соціальних дій і контактів.

Висновки. Досліджуючи соціальний інтелект вчителя, ми визначаємо його як здатність сприймати навколишній і внутрішній світ, що дозволяє професіоналам різних рівнів легко орієнтуватися у міжособистісній взаємодії, гармонізувати свою поведінку тощо. До структури соціального інтелекту вчителя входять: соціальна чутливість, емпатія, самопізнання та саморегуляція. Соціальний інтелект учителя ототожнюється нами з певними психологічними механізмами. До них відносимо соціальне мислення та мудрість. Зокрема, проаналізовано поняття «соціальне мислення» як структурний компонент соціального інтелекту. Соціальне мислення визначається нами як здатність суб'єкта розуміти та оперувати сприйнятою інформацією. Високий рівень розвитку соціального мислення учителя дозволяє йому ефективно розв'язувати завдання, що виникають у процесі міжособистісної взаємодії; під ефективністю мається на увазі швидкість, гнучкість і точність в оперуванні фактами соціальної дійсності.

Ключові слова: соціальний інтелект, успішність тестування, соціальне мислення, соціальна взаємодія, прийняття рішень, етапи моделювання тесту, соціальна чутливість, емпатія, самопізнання, саморегуляція.

Communicative and Quasi-Communicative Techniques to Develop Students' Communicative Competence

Комунікативні та квазікомунікативні техніки для розвитку комунікативної компетентності студентів

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ABSTRACT
  The purpose of our article is: to describe communicative and quasi-communicative techniques to develop students' communicative competence; to show the reasons for bad quasi-communication; to describe the types of exercises that are inherent to each of the stages of the development of communicative competence of students of philological faculties; to show how the professional development of students, future translators, depends on their communicative competence.

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Methods of the research. *The following theoretical methods of the research were used to solve the tasks formulated in the article: a categorical method, structural and functional methods, the methods of the analysis, systematization, modeling, generalization.*

The results of the research. *Professional activity is one of the most important ways for everyone to connect with the world, and for many people it is a real factor in building relationships with others. So, the main importance of leading activities in determining the life path of each individual is that it opens a person's guidelines for inclusion him/her into new spheres of life in the society, introduces it to new social structures and allows to establish even more and the quality of social ties.*

Conclusions. *The professional development is presented as a sequence of certain specific phases that differ by content and the form of presentation of professional desires. The way of career should be divided into five stages: growth, search, strengthening, stabilization and decline. The period of choosing a profession and the professional development is the second stage of this five-step model, which covers the age of 14 to 25 years and is characterized by the fact that the individual performs professional activities in different roles, focusing on his/her real professional opportunities. We should also note that professional development is understood by us quite broadly: it is the formation of a person's idea of his/her professional career, and preparation for future professional activity, the initial process of professional activity and the whole career path, change in a career and retirement. The professional development of students, future translators, depends on their communicative competence that in a great degree depends on the processes of real, natural communication, which can be presented in a monologue and a dialogue forms, and also on the process of quasi-communication.*

Key words: *communicative competence, communicative techniques, quasi-communicative techniques, quasi-communication, professional activity, professional opportunities, monologue speech, dialogue speech.*

Introduction

In the scientific literature the process of the professional development is often associated with the characteristics of a particular professional activity, which significantly affects the formation of the person during the mastery of the profession (Mykhalchuk & Onufriieva, 2020). Professional development of

the person depends on the formation of a whole system of professionally important qualities (Максименко, Ткач, Литвинчук & Онуфрієва, 2019). This is a rather complex and dynamic process of the formation of functional and operational actions on the basis of individual psychological characteristics of the individual. That is, professionally important qualities of a specialist determine the productivity of his/her activities, and, consequently, contribute to successful professional development (Ivashkevych & Koval, 2020).

Despite some differences in the process of professional development of the specialist, in the psychological literature there is some unity of the opinion of researchers according to the concept of "professional development", which means the development of specific professional qualities and personality traits. It is a process which is always quite active (Гончарук & Онуфрієва, 2018). Professional development is a gradual and dynamic process that causes positive changes in personal and professional qualities, contributes to the formation of a positive attitude to the sphere of future profession, the desire to master professional knowledge, skills and abilities (Aleksandrov, Memetova & Stankevich, 2020).

There are several reasons that determine the importance of the professional activity as a factor that significantly facilitates the development of the person. This is, firstly, the process of entering the paradigm of the professional activity, which means for the individual the emergence of a completely new social situation of the personal development (Bates, Maechler, Bolker & Walker, 2014). The last process will have the most important formative impact to a person who significantly is changing and, at the same time, enriching his/her motivational and need sphere of the person. After all, it is professional activity that allows to satisfy basic human needs. The researchers (Mykhalchuk & Bihunova, 2019) gave a particular importance in these processes to the role of leading activities in the process of self-actualization of the individual. Thus, scientists (Batel, 2020) note that a socially justi-

fied and valuable way to explain the need for personalization is, first of all, professional activity. At the same time, it is impossible to imagine the formation of the person as a process of passive mastery of one's own professional activity. After all, any activity has a certain system of features. Some of them are perceived by a person as personally significant ones, and due to this they have a great impact on a person, while other signs remain completely insensitive to the individual. The most important role in influencing the formation of the personality as a professional are the so-called internal prerequisites, due to which there is the actualization of external conditions, which are somehow perceived by the individual (Mykhalchuk & Ivashkevych, 2019). Therefore, the same activity can have different effects on a person, which ultimately leads to the formation of different qualities, characteristics, traits and types of the person.

But if we tell about the development of communicative competence of students of philological faculty there are some questions which are not solved in scientific literature. So, **the purpose** of our article is: to describe communicative and quasi-communicative techniques to develop students' communicative competence; to show the reasons for bad quasi-communication; to describe the types of exercises that are inherent to each of the stages of the development of communicative competence of students of philological faculties; to show how the professional development of students, future translators, depends on their communicative competence.

Methods of the research

The following theoretical methods of the research were used to solve the tasks formulated in the article: a categorical method, structural and functional methods, the methods of the analysis, systematization, modeling, generalization.

Results and their discussion

Quasi-communicative techniques include the means of communication in dialogical and monologue speech, also the quasi-

communication in a writing form. When compiling a dialogue, a micro-dialogue, a monologue, the activity with lexical units, students develop their speech, learn to speak as well as it is possible. Quasi-communicative techniques encourage students to communicate, they always have a stimulus to modeling speech, they influence learner's autonomy in developing students' translation competence.

Quasi-communication is the most important factor in the existence of a society. This is a special mode of existence of a human language with a categorical organization of a language quasi-code to be specific and unique. There are no societies without quasi-communication. It is the process that ensures the formation of the society (quasi-communication – a structure of the society, communication – a model of the community). Without effective quasi-communication many economic processes would stop. Therefore, the question of organizing the processes of communication (quasi-communicative processes) is important for the creation of any society. But a correct organization of any process is impossible without the understanding of its nature, the construction of a model of a quasi-communicative process associated with the study of its structure, the factors which influence this process, the system of actions that make up its basis.

Quasi-communication tactics are the means for the realization in a concrete situation of a quasi-communicative strategy based on the possession of a technique and knowledge of the rules of quasi-communication in general. *A technique of quasi-communication* is a set of specific communicative skills (skills to speak) and listening abilities.

True quasi-communication exists for all people without any exception. There is no social public significance being impossible outside of its collective – quasi-communicative, mediated public discussions-recognition, that is outside of any legitimation. Democratically organized community has to achieve unity, consensus, through discourse. Discourse is the practice of quasi-

communicative relationships for achieving social understanding and social consensus. Discourse based on the norms and values of coexistence is the highest instance of a social life. To be universal, quasi-communication has to be also argued, rationally grounded, self-conscious. Therefore, one of the main tasks of organizing quasi-communicative philosophy is to study the norms of universal pragmatics, that is the analysis of the underlying conditions of the possibility of the language existence and quasi-communication in a complex system of social attitudes, relationships, which are based on the processes of the identification of common norms, which form the basis of quasi-communicative practices and are arising in speech interactions of people.

We'll emphasize *the reasons for bad quasi-communication*. They can be:

a) stereotypes – simplified thoughts about any individuals or situations, as a result that there is no objective analysis and understanding of people, situations, problems;

b) "based representations" – the tendency to reject anything that contradicts one's own views, new and unusual information ("We believe in that information we would like to believe"). We rarely realize that the interpretation of events by another person is just as legitimate as ours;

c) bad relations between people, because if the attitude of a person is hostile, it is difficult to convince the justice of our point of view;

d) lack of attention and interest in the partner of communication;

e) mistakes in the construction of statements: the wrong order of words, the complexity of the message, poor persuasiveness, illogicality, etc.

f) incorrect choice of any strategy and use of quasi-communicative tactics.

Strategies for the development of communicative competence and effective quasi-communication are because of such conditions:

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1) open – closed quasi-communication;

2) monologue – dialogical process of quasi-communication;

3) role-playing (based on playing social roles). Open process of quasi-communication is based on the desire and the abilities of the person to express his/her point of view and display the readiness to take into account the positions of others. Closed quasi-communication is a reluctance or inability to express clearly the person's point of view, his/her attitude and present available information.

So, *quasi-communication has three different meanings*:

a) quasi-communication as the activity, as a process of presenting lexical units;

b) quasi-communication as a product of inner speech activity;

c) quasi-communication as a special form of inner oratorical genre.

Quasi-communication in the first, procedural meaning has its synonyms: quasi-communicative activity, quasi-communicative act. Quasi-communication assumes the exchange in the inner form of thoughts and feelings, the information which was carried out not only by inner speech, but also by means of non-verbal characters that study semiotics (facial expressions, gestures, touches). The same process of quasi-communication is a means of verbal communication with the help of verbal sign units: words, syntactic constructions, texts, intonations, which often are supported by non-verbal means.

Within this term *"quasi-communication"* is investigated by us in such a way:

a) as a physiological basis of quasi-communication, quasi-communicative activity;

b) by the use of inner mechanisms of speech according to its types: mechanisms of quasi-communication (inner speech), the mechanisms of listening (perception and understanding of speech), etc.;

c) by using of code transitions;

d) by the relationships of thinking and understanding the information;

e) by the implementation of speech functions in the process of quasi-communication;

f) by the interaction of languages in the bilingual inner speech activity;

g) with use of the process of taking possession of inner speech of a student;

h) by the formation of "linguistic sense" (intuition) at different age stages of the person, etc.

The second meaning of the term "quasi-communication" is "quasi-communication as a result". It has a synonym "a text", which can be not only written but also oral one. In the theory of inner speech the text is defined according to the person's linguistic activity as the result of a creative process, by the analyses of its derivation. There are the examples of the use of the term "the inner speech" in the following sense: a dialect, rhythmic speech, scientific broadcasting, direct and indirect speech and others.

Within this information quasi-communication is analyzed as:

a) structure of the text, its components, connections;

b) speech styles;

c) speech genres;

d) use of linguistic means (lexical, grammatical) in the text;

e) use of stylistic figures, tropes, phraseology, etc.;

f) linguistic norms and their violation (mistakes);

g) means of verbal expression of the text;

h) means of long-term or short-term storage of chapters of oral and written broadcasting, etc.

The third meaning of the term "inner speech" is speech of the inner oratorical genre or as a quasi-monologue in a piece of art (informational, polemical, pathetic ones).

In the process of inner communicative activity the formation of inner speech structural units is considered to be a simple statement. This is a unit of inner speech or quasi-communica-

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tion, having a relative autonomy, completeness. It includes a quasi-communicative modal aspect, intonation (verbal one), non-verbal means, which are available to actual categorization (subject-oriented process). Inner statements always correlate with certain situations of life. They also are characterized by motivation: greetings as at the meeting, like when a person calls a taxi by telephone, a student's response at the lesson, a letter to a friend, a speech at the conference, etc.

All phrases of inner speech are correlated with sentences. Often the components of the inner speech are coincided. However, sometimes the statement is broader, louder in volume. The most important role within the statements is played by: intonation, deictic means (indication of participants in the process of quasi-communication, time or spatial localization of facts and characteristics referred to this process).

The linguistic act is also a unit of inner speech process and the unit of the generation of the whole text. A linguistic act should be understood by us as a purposeful act, a unit of normative lexical forms in a certain inner language group, a social group of inner units of speech behavior, which are presented in each situation of quasi-communication.

In such a way quasi-communication is a universal achievement of mankind and the process of obtaining the universal reality of social existence. Speaking at the same time is a process of verbal communication with the help of verbal sign units: words, syntactic constructions, texts, intonations, often with the support of nonverbal means. The feature of contemporary public speech communication is its dialogicity: various forms of a dialogue (a dispute, a discussion, polemics, TV debates, interviews).

The process of quasi-communication in a great degree influences dialogical speech of students. In such a way a dialogue is a process of interaction between two or more participants in the process of communication. Therefore, within the paradigm of a speech act each participant alternates himself/herself as a listener and also as a speaker.

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The dialogue between the TV presenter and his guest in the studio usually involves the presence of another third person – the audience, which can be expressed by the famous formula: "Thank you to everyone who was today with us". From time to time political opponents, arguing with each other in the media spheres, argue primarily with the audience.

A multi-vector type of communicative process is a dialogue that is a conversation between two or more individuals. A feature of a dialogic communication is a quick change of the roles of a communicant and a communicator. The initiative in the partnership has to be moved from one person to the other one. Thanks to the latest technology, this multi-vector process of interaction makes mass communication multifaceted and high-grade, within the conditions which are created for the efficient exchange of products of information. The interests of the people are realized greater when individuals' needs are met, and the positions of the representatives of dialogue process are timely clarified.

In such a way monologue and dialogical texts differ from each other both from the point of view of the structure of the texts underlying some speech situation, and from the point of view of the regularities of the text formation the partners of communication operate with. So, the dialogue is based on a dialogical unity: the expression of the opinions and their perceptions, the response to them, which is reflected in the structure of this speech act. The dialogue consists of interrelated replicas of the partners of communication.

The main features of the dialogue are: the intention, purposefulness, rules of conduction of the conversation. Purposefulness of the speech activity in a dialogue is the available or hidden purpose of the speaker (a message about something, a question, an order, a counsel, a promise). In order to achieve some goal, each of the partners of communication realizes his/her intentions, facilitating the partner to certain speech actions. The rules for conducting the conversation are necessary for the dialogue: a) the message has to be given in certain acts; b) the

message corresponds to the topic of conversation; c) the partners of communication make the broadcast clear and more consistent.

The role of a teacher is also changed in the learning process. A teacher facilitates the process of communication, helps students to achieve autonomy in determining the goals and ways of learning a foreign language, mastering their speech, linguistic abilities, non-verbal means of communication. Mother tongue is also used occasionally, where it is necessary, when a speech is justified by a difficult situation.

A dialogue, as well as a monologue, is characterized by its reverence. Communication, as a rule, takes place in a direct contact of participants who are well aware of the conditions in which communication takes a right place. A dialogue involves visual perception of the partners of communication and proves a certain incompleteness of statements, supplemented by extra-language means of communication (facial expressions, gestures, eye contact, poses of partners of communication). With their help, the speaker expresses his/her wishes, doubts, pity, assumptions. Consequently, they can not be ignored in teaching foreign language communication.

Dialogue speech is characterized by certain communicative psychological and linguistic features. One of the most important psychological features of dialogical speech is its situational character. Situational dialogical speech is that one when often its meaning can be understood only taking into account the situation in which it is carried out.

A characteristic feature of a dialogical speech is its emotional color. Speech is usually emotionally colored, because the speaker transmits its thoughts, feelings, attitudes to what content is being discussed. This is reflected in the selection of lexical and grammatical tools, in the structure of the replicas, in the intonational design. The present dialogue contains replicas of surprise, capture, appreciation, disappointment, dissatisfaction.

Understanding of incomplete replicas of partners in a dialogue is facilitated by the contact of partners of communication,

by the presence of a common situation, reciprocity replicas, the use of extra-language means (gestures, facial expressions), knowledge of two partners of communication in the circumstances of the reality, and in the most cases – towards each other. In addition, the released members of the sentence can be restored, based on the contents of the previous replica.

Example 1

Peter. *Jean! Would you like a meat sandwich or cheese sandwich?*

Jean. *A chees sandwich, please.*

A dialogue is widely used as "ready" speech units. They are called "formulas", "templates", "clichés", "stereotypes". They are used to express a gratitude, the exchange greetings, congratulations, to attract the attention of the partner of communication at the beginning of the conversation, to confirm or to comment, etc. "Ready" speech units (phrases, suggestions) provide a dialogue with emotionality. Here are some examples ("ready speech units" are highlighted).

Example 2

A. *Excuse me! Is there a chemist's near here?*

B. *Yes. It's over there.*

A. *Thanкs a lot.*

In a dialogical speech, words often referred to as "fillers of silence". They are used to hold a conversation, to fill a pause in it, when the speaker searches for a corresponding replica. For example: *well, well now, you know, Let me see, Look here, I say.*

Any dialogue consists of separate interrelated statements. Such statements, the boundary of which is the change of the partner of communication, are called replica. Replica is the first element of the dialogue. Replicas come in varying lengths, but are closely linked with each other by their communicative functions, structurally and intonationally. The closest connection is between adjacent replicas. The totality of replicas is characterized by structural, intonational and semantic completeness, it is called a dialogue unity (DU).

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ЗБІРНИК НАУКОВИХ ПРАЦЬ
"ПРОБЛЕМИ СУЧАСНОЇ ПСИХОЛОГІЇ"

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The first replica of dialogical unity is always *initiative* (it is also called a replica for inducing or controlling the situation). The second remark can be either *completely reactive* (differently – dependent, or a replica – a reaction), or *reactively initiative*, that is possible to include such reaction into the previous statement and into the whole text.

Example 1
Peter: *What would you like to eat, Edith?*
Example 2
Ben: *Is lunch ready?*
Ann: *Yes. Let's have lunch in the garden.*

In both cases, the first replica of a dialogic unity is usually initiatory, the second one in Example 1 is reactive (here the conversation may also stop), and in Example 2 it is reactive-initiative: firstly, the reaction (the answer to the question), and then – the inducement (proposal statement), by the help of which the conversation continues. In such a way pupils have to learn:

1) to start a conversation using an initiative replica;

2) to respond correctly and quickly to the reactive replica of the partner of communication with a reactive replica;

3) to support the conversation in order to continue it, with not purely reactive statement, but using reactive-initiative replicas;

4) depending on the functional interrelationships of the replica in the dialogue to distinguish between different types of a dialogue unity.

Here are some examples of a dialogue unity.

Example 3. Dialogic unity «Message – Message».
Pretty girl: *I want to buy a hat.*
Assistant: *Hats are upstairs on the next floor.*
Example 4. Dialogic unity «Message – Question».
 Hostess Bradley: *Alice! Perhaps that passanger is without ticket.*
Hostess Alice: *Which passanger, Anne?*

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Example 5. Dialogic unity «Question – Contr-question».
Voice A: *What's wrong with you, Mrs Bloggs?*
Mrs Bloggs: *What's wrong with me?*
Example 6. Dialogic unity «Motivation – Question».
Ann: *Let's eat lunch in the garden?*
Ben: *Shall we sit on this seat?*

The system of exercises for teaching dialogical speech consists of three main stages: **the first stage** is the initial one, on which the presentation of the material takes a place; **the second stage** is the middle one, where the practice of the development of skills of dialogue broadcasting takes place; **the third stage** is the last, creative one – at this stage there is a creative, independent activity of students in the process of a dialogical speech. Let's look at the types of exercises that are inherent to each of the stages we have described.

Each **functional type of a dialogue** is characterized by a certain set of *dialogue unities*.

I. **Dialogue – Question:** Question – Answer, Message – Question, Message – Reply + Message, Message – Message, Message – Reply Message + Additional Message.

II. **Dialogue – Arrangement:** Question – Reply + Message, Message – Reply Message + Additional Message, Message – Reply + Question, Incitement – Consent or refusal, Question – Answer, Message – Question.

III. **Dialogue – Sharing experiences, thoughts:** Message – Message, Question – Reply + Message, Message – Question, Message – Reply + Additional Message, Question – Answer.

IV. **Dialogue – discussion:** Message – Message, Question – Answer, Message – Reply, Message – Message in reply + Additional Message.

Stage I. Exercises of the first stage are of conditionally speech, receptive and reproductive ones. They can be imitative, substitutions, transformations, questions – answers, reciprocation exercises. All exercises at this stage are performed consistently in the following regimes: "teacher – student", "student –

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teacher", "phonogram – student", "student – phonogram", "student – student".

Example: Exercise 1
A: *I'm interested in dancing.*
B: *I'm interested in dancing too.*
A: *I'm interested in reading books.*
B: *I'm interested in reading books too.*

Stage II. The exercises of the second stage have the aim to develop the skills of compiling micro-dialogues and simultaneously improving the skills of mastering dialogical unities. Using previously learned dialogical unities, students form dialogues of two-three dialogic unities.

The exercises of the second stage take place in certain educational-speech situations and with communicative tasks. Pupils offer auditory verbal supports (a phonogram of a dialogue – a sample) and visual verbal supports (a micro-dialogue – substitute table and a micro-dialogue – a schema), which are based on a micro-dialogue-sample. After verifying the understanding of a micro-dialogue – a sample students listen to it again and in pauses repeat each remark by a speaker or a teacher.

Example: Exercise 2
– ....?
– *It made a deep impression on me, too. How did you like the singing?*
– ....?
– *Yes, he is my favorite opera singer.*

Stage III. The exercises of the third stage have the aim of teaching pupils to compile and to conduct their own dialogues according to the training and speech situations at the level of program requirements. Third stage exercises are productive. All supports are removed, exercises are independent. At this stage of teaching the speech situations for pupils are offered, the degree of deployment of each component is gradually changing – decreasing – depending on the pupils' acquired dialogical skills. Here is an example of the exercise of this stage.

Exercise 3. Topic "Shopping".

Tasks for the first partner: *You are an absent-minded customer. Now you are at the Hat Department. Choose the hat.*

A task to the second partner: *You are a shop assistant. Your customer is very absent-minded. Help him to choose the right thing. Be polite.*

The teaching of a dialogical speech through a series of exercises involves mastering the skills and abilities which are necessary to implement a communicative situation in accordance with the communicative tasks of the partners of communication, taking into account the specific conditions of communication, as well as based on various types of interpersonal and inter-rolled interaction of controversial speakers. In such exercises it is also foreseen to train situational use as a versatile linguistic material, as well as various functional types of speech and types of communicative interaction of pupils. Situational-related learning of a dialogical speech can be offered in the content of the following exercises:

1. Make a dialogue to series of drawings, using keywords (pictures depict the sequence of actions of people who communicate).

2. Make a dialogue on the contents of a picture or a picture.

3. Make a dialogue using available data about the situation, the beginning and the end of a dialogue.

4. Make a dialogue based on the keywords.

5. Make a dialogue by reading the text.

Consequently, dialogical speech is characterized by a set of features and represents not only one kind of speech activity of its participants, but a speech act (the exchange of information), in which a real speech and inner speech are inextricably linked types of speech activity. Dialogue communication is manifested in the monologue form. To our mind, a dialogue communication is the best way to develop and to form communicative competence of students.

Professional activity is one of the most important ways for everyone to connect with the world, and for many people it is a

real factor in building relationships with others. So, the main importance of leading activities in determining the life path of each individual is that it opens a person's guidelines for inclusion him/her into new spheres of life in the society, introduces it to new social structures and allows to establish even more and the quality of social ties.

Thus, professional achievements, their evaluation by other people have a significant impact on the formation of many important personal characteristics, such as self-esteem, self-confidence, strengths and abilities. The latter includes the achievement of a certain social status in the society and in the paradigm of the professional sphere. Professional activity facilitates quite serious changes in the professional paradigm of the individual, determines a certain dominant strategy of individual behavior, goals and programs of actions, shows the attitude to the results of own professional activities of future specialists.

Conclusions

The professional development is presented as a sequence of certain specific phases that differ by content and the form of presentation of professional desires. The way of career should be divided into five stages: growth, search, strengthening, stabilization and decline. The period of choosing a profession and the professional development is the second stage of this five-step model, which covers the age of 14 to 25 years and is characterized by the fact that the individual performs professional activities in different roles, focusing on his/her real professional opportunities. We should also note that professional development is understood by us quite broadly: it is the formation of a person's idea of his/her professional career, and preparation for future professional activity, the initial process of professional activity and the whole career path, change in a career and retirement. The professional development of students, future translators, depends on their communicative competence, which in a great degree depends on the processes of real, natural communication,

which can be presented in a monologue and a dialogue forms, and also on the process of quasi-communication.

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Івашкевич Ернест. Комунікативні та квазікомунікативні техніки для розвитку комунікативної компетентності студентів.

Метою нашої статті є: описати комунікативні та квазікомунікативні техніки розвитку комунікативної компетентності студентів; показати причини поганої квазікомунікації; описати види вправ, які притаманні кожному з етапів розвитку комунікативної компетентності студентів філологічних факультетів; показати, як професійний розвиток студентів, майбутніх перекладачів, залежить від становлення їх комунікативної компетентності.

Методи дослідження. Для розв'язання поставлених у роботі завдань використовувалися такі теоретичні методи дослідження: категоріальний, структурно-функціональний, аналіз, систематизація, моделювання, узагальнення.

Результати дослідження. Показано, що професійна діяльність є одним із найбільш значущих для кожної людини способів зв'язку зі світом, і у багатьох цей спосіб стає справжнім чинником побудови взаємостосунків із іншими людьми. Доведено, що основне значення провідної діяльності у визначенні життєвого шляху особистості полягає в тому, що саме вона відкриває людині орієнтири щодо включення до нових сфер життя в суспільстві, вводить її до нових соціальних структур і дозволяє встановити ще більшу кількість та якість соціальних зв'язків.

Висновки. Показано, що професійне становлення розглядається як послідовність певних специфічних фаз, що розрізняються за змістом і формою презентації людиною професійних бажань. Доведено, що професійний шлях має бути розділений на п'ять етапів: зростання, пошук, зміцнення, стабілізація і спад. Період вибору професії і професійного становлення є другим щаблем даної п'ятиступінчастої моделі, яка охоплює вік від 14 до 25 років і характеризується тим, що індивід виконує професійну діяльність у різних ролях, орієнтуючись при цьому на свої

реальні професійні можливості. Професійне становлення розуміється нами досить широко: це і формування уявлення людини щодо своєї професійної кар'єри, і підготовка до майбутньої професійної діяльності, і початковий процес професійної діяльності, і весь професійний шлях, зміни в кар'єрі і вихід на пенсію тощо. Доведено, що професійний розвиток студентів, майбутніх перекладачів, залежить від їх комунікативної компетентності, становлення якої значною мірою визначається процесами реального, природного спілкування, що можна подати у монологічній та діалогічній формах, а також процесом квазікомунікації.

Ключові слова: комунікативна компетентність, комунікативні техніки, квазікомунікативні техніки, квазікомунікація, професійна діяльність, професійні можливості, монологічне мовлення, діалогічне мовлення.

The Issue on Classification of Needs of Families Raising Children with Special Needs (Systematic Approach)

До питання класифікації потреб сімей, які виховують дітей із особливостями розвитку (системний підхід)

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ABSTRACT

Families raising children with special needs differ from other families in the large number and variability of needs. Scientific studies highlight the issue of the specific needs of the family, but for the most part their generalized totality is described.

*Therefore, the **purpose of the article** is to explore and highlight the needs in such families and describe them in the context of the individual, marital, parental and sibling subsystems of the family system.*

*To achieve the goal the following **methods** were used: theoretical – analysis, systematization, classification and generalization; empirical – observation, conversation, interview and method of expert assessments.*

***Research results.** A total of 18 family needs were identified and distributed in accordance with family subsystems – individual, marital, parental and sibling. In the context of the individual subsystem the following needs are identified: the need for emotional response to negative emotions, the need for personal space, the need for support, the need for care in relation to one's own self. For the marital subsystem common needs for both partners are defined (in love, support, guardianship, closeness of the partner, material and sexual needs). In the parental subsystem specific needs are characterized: for truthful information, adaptation and acceptance of the role of "parents of a special child", in finding the meaning of interaction in the "parents-special child" system; in society's acceptance of a special child, the need to confirm the changes/dynamics of the child's development. The needs of brothers and/or sisters in the sibling subsystem are formulated: in attention and love from parents, informing about the somato-psychological characteristics of a special child, distribution of responsibilities according to the age of siblings.*

Conclusions. *Identifying the needs of the family and determining the degree of their severity is of practical importance for the implementation of effective socio-psychological support. Frustration of unconscious needs leads to increased tension and deterioration of the family microclimate. At the same time awareness of the needs of family members will be the impetus for finding the necessary resources and finding the best ways to meet them.*

Key words: *family needs, children with special needs, subsystem, family system, family raising a child with special needs, siblings, parental subsystem*

Introduction

The study of a family with a special child was started by specialists from the middle of the twentieth century. The stimulus for this was the emergence of the idea of a family as a system. From the point of view of the systemic family approach, it is not constructive to focus solely on a child with special needs, since the dynamics of the functioning of the family remains unexplored. "The problem faced by one of the family members affects the system as a whole (which in turn determines its personal situation)" (Seligman & Darling, 2009). It is obvious that a child with specific needs affects the livelihood of the family and it is under constant influence of intra-family interaction, that is, there is a certain interdependence of processes. On the one hand, such children need more effort, time and attention from the other members of family through a set of special needs that cannot be met on their own. As a result, the needs of parents, siblings and other family members become secondary. On the other hand, the existing changes in the life of the family eventually affect the quality of care for a child with special needs. All this leads to an imbalance and negative feelings; causes changes in the level of physical health of family members; mental status (cognitive, emotional, social spheres), general family functioning (Lara & Pinos, 2017). In these families there is a decrease in the level of family functioning (Pisula & Porębowicz-Dörsmann, 2017), a lower level of family cohesion and adaptability, low level of expression and expressiveness of feelings (Heiman & Berger, 2008).

In order to ensure the maximum effective coexistence of family members and children with special needs, attention should be paid to the actual needs of the family as a system. Thus, the **aim of the article** is to investigate and identify the needs of such families and describe them in the context of individual, marital, child-parent and sibling subsystems of the family system. Obviously, a family that understands their own needs, has the ability to satisfy them and cares about their own resources, can give the child with the peculiarities of development the necessary level of support for successful socialization and integration.

Research methods

The study used a set of theoretical methods, such as analysis, systematization, classification and generalization. The group of empirical methods includes: observation, conversation, interview and expert evaluation method.

Results and discussion

To determine the most pressing needs of families raising children with special needs, the method of expert assessment was used − a survey of a group of experts. The experts in this study were 20 leading specialists: 12 psychologists and 8 social workers who have significant experience in socio-psychological support of this category of families. Their practical work experience averaged 16.5 years. The expert assessment was carried out in Mykolaiv (Ukraine).

The research procedure included 3 stages: 1) experts' selection of the list of needs of families having children with special needs, which are most often manifested in working with different family subsystems: individual, marital, parent-child, sibling; 2) ranking by experts of the identified family needs by the factor of significance for families raising a child with special needs; 3) determining the consistency of expert opinions − the calculation of the concordance coefficient (M. Kendall). The formula for calculating the concordance coefficient is as follows:

$W = \dfrac{12S}{m^2(n^3 - n)}$ (m − number of experts in the group, n − num-

ber of factors (needs), S – sum of squares of deviations from the arithmetic mean). The concordance coefficient is defined in the range from 0 to 1: if the opinions of experts are completely opposite – it is equal to 0, if they agree, the value of the coefficient should be more than the tabular for the level of significance $p \leq 0.05$. According to the results of the Kendall coefficient, its value (W = 0.982) exceeds the tabular value (W = 0.1035) for the significance level of 0.05, which indicates a high level of agreement of experts on the current needs of families of children with special needs.

The survey of experts identified 18 the most pressing needs of families of children with special needs, which are correlated with individual, marital, parent-child, sibling family subsystems. Needs within the relevant family subsystem are a kind of group of needs, the specifics of which are affected by its functioning. The classification of the needs of families having children with psychophysical features from the standpoint of a systems approach is presented in Figure 1.

Particular needs of families within the individual subsystem. An individual subsystem is a subsystem represented by one member of the family. In the nuclear family, there are so many individual subsystems as there are members of the family system. The needs of family members in the context of an individual subsystem depend on age, gender and personal characteristics.

The need for emotional response to negative emotions. It is known that the birth/appearance of a child with special needs in a family causes stress and the experience of negative emotions. Thus, I. Kandel & J. Merrick note that parents experience a complex of emotions and feelings that are similar to the experiences of a close friend's death (shock, grief, anger, guilt, etc.) (Kandel & Merrick, 2007). Most parents experience frustration, dissatisfaction, anger, shock, and guilt (Heiman, 2002). It is worth noting that brothers and sisters are also experiencing negative emotions. The experiences of healthy children may not have such an intensity and depth as to the presence of a special member of

the family, but they are sensitive to the experiences of parents. Accordingly, it is extremely important for each family member to have the opportunity to experience/react to any emotion that arises in accordance with the actual family situation.
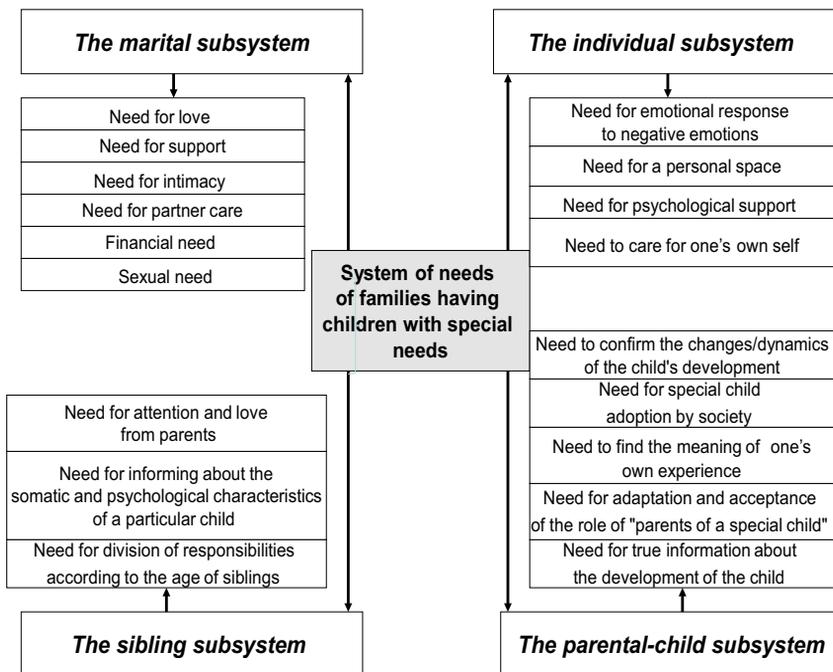
Fig. 1. Classification of needs of children with special needs

The need for a personal space. Personal space is an indicator of physical and topographical parameters of human life; evidence of its subjectivity. Members of families who bring up children with special needs usually experience a decrease in their personal space. This is due to the fact that such children are constantly in need of assistance, extremely demanding or because of existing violations cannot distinguish between the personal space of another person (Asada et al., 2016). Reducing the person's space leads to certain experiences: from discomfort to a

sense of danger. Accordingly, each member of the family should be aware of the importance of his/her own space and find ways to build it within the family.

The need for psychological support. It is known that members of a nuclear family are experiencing chronic stress associated with the implementation of intensive care of a particular child and overcoming emotional reactions to a child (Bonab et al., 2017). Studies show that 70% of mothers and 40% of parents of children with complex forms of disability experience a high degree of distress (Jones & Passey, 2004) The experience of stress and certain symptoms of depression is also characteristic of siblings (Breslau & Prabucki, 1988). Therefore, psychological support at different levels is extremely important for every member of the family system. At the same time, it should be emphasized that in programs of support, for the most part, universal strategies are used, however, it is desirable to rely on the individual vision of family members for an effective type for them, a way of psychological support. In other words, it is up to family members to ask: How would you like to be supported?

The need to care for one's own self and meet individual needs. It is known that family members mostly take care of a child with special needs: caring for, implementing educational functions, solving urgent problems etc. Satisfying the needs of the child is a priority in such families. Consequently, awareness and satisfaction of the personal needs of family members remains beyond the scope of attention. At the same time, it is known that ignoring their own actual needs leads to the emergence of stress and, consequently, the emergence of psychological, somatic and social problems. In this way, the situation may get worse, because it is similar to a "closed circle": dissatisfaction with the needs of the individual subsystem produces tensions, accordingly, the person gradually loses his own resources and, consequently, cannot support and care for the child with peculiarities of development. The basis for the classification of the basic individual needs may be the proposed pyramid of needs

(Maslow, 1970), needs of children (Borg-Laufs, 2013). However, it should be noted that the key aspect in this issue is the awareness that each individual has individual needs that, in their totality, are unique. That is why in modern psychological science there is no universal classification of human needs. Thus, it is extremely important for each member of the family with a special child to focus on understanding their own diverse needs and take care of their satisfaction.

Needs of marital subsystem. The marital subsystem consists of a spouse – husband and wife. Within a family relationship system, marital relationships are fundamental and pivotal.

A number of studies have found that the development of a child causes a significant stress, a low level of marital satisfaction, causes the risk of divorce between partners (Urbano & Hodapp, 2007; Hartley et al., 2017). It has been established that marital partners raising children with different developmental disorders are 5.97% more likely to be divorced than families with healthy children (Risdal & Singer, 2004).

Sufficiently tense relationships can arise for a number of reasons. In such families, the relationship between partners is deformed: on the one hand, formal well-being is maintained, and on the other hand, the spouses are emotionally removed from each other, changing their vision of oneself and their perceptions about the partner. Birth of a child with developmental disabilities leads to an increased level of care for it and, accordingly, reduces the amount of time partners spend with each other (Hartley et al., 2017). Problems with the child's externalization, its behavior and peculiarities of development lead to conflicts between partners and the appearance of frequent, intense and unresolved conflicts in the marital subsystem (Hartley et al., 2017). In addition, the presence of a child with peculiarities of development can serve as a kind of catalyst that actualizes latent problems of partners.

However, modern research psychologists show that harmonious relationships in marital subsystem reduce feelings of

stress and depressive symptoms in families with a special child, regardless of the quality of social support, the characteristics of the child and social and economic status of the family (Kersh et al., 2006). Obviously, in such families partners invest their time and energy on building a dyadic relations and meet the needs of each other, which helps them cope and survive the crisis family situations.

The study identified a number of needs that are important to marital partners, namely the need for love, support, affinity, partner care, as well as material and sexual needs. These needs are common to both men and women. We can assume that these needs are similar to most of the marital subsystems of different categories of families. The essential difference is that for parental families with peculiarities of development, the parent subsystem is more significant and significant in their ideological system, in contrast to the marital one. The systematic frustration of the needs of men and women leads to the accumulation of tension and gradually causes the destruction of the relationships in this subsystem.

A group of needs in the parental-child subsystem

Parental subsystem (mother-child, father-child) is a subsystem that unites family members who perform parental functions: they care about the upbringing, development and socialization of children. In families with special children, the parent subsystem is extremely overloaded. For the most part, this is due to many factors: constant search for parents for optimal ways of developing a child, lack of hope for relief, long-term dependence of the child from adults, isolation from society, etc.

The need for true information about the development of the child. The birth of a child with special needs requires a family of additional resources for appropriate care and upbringing. Accordingly, parents need to be informed about different aspects of the life of a particular child. Parents' main problems are focused on how to ensure that the child is effectively adapted and integrated into society. That is why the information needs concern

regarding the peculiarities of education, the search for additional resources and understanding of the rights of children who have a developmental disorder. Parents need accurate information about the child's condition and further steps as they must realize a new vision of themselves and their further family life (Hedderly et al., 2003). Research shows that most parents need information about the ways and means of disclosing the potential of a child with specific needs (Gowen et al., 1993). However, this need in different categories of parents is uneven: mothers are more interested in information about the education of special children than their parents; most mothers and parents are interested in the peculiarities of social, emotional and cognitive development of children (Gowen et al., 1993).

Some studies emphasize that the information needs of families don't relate only to the specifics of the child's life. Thus, parents need information on paternal self-efficacy and ways to receive support. Those parents who experienced a higher degree of control over services showed a low need for information (Huus et al., 2017).

The need for adaptation and acceptance of the role of "parents of a special child". The birth of a child with special needs drastically changes the usual way of life of the family. To the usual stressors associated with the upbringing of any child the following is added: uncertainty about health and further prediction of the child's development; systematic visits to the doctor and additional medical procedures; specific care for a child. Accordingly, such parents have a need to adapt to the situation that arose, and realize their parental role in some other way.

Adaptation to the role of "Parents of a Special Child" involves the process of experiencing the destruction of dreams by parents and building new, more realistic expectations for the future of the child and further performance of parental functions. In addition, parents must be ready for a long, sometimes lifelong exercise of their guardian functions regarding the child. The children in this category express the need for the presence of another person, since they are significantly restricted in their

own independence and cannot satisfy most of the basic needs (Kuchmanych & Opanasenko, 2018).

Adaptation also implies the implementation of parental roles in a number of other family and social roles of men and women. It is a question that the role of "special children's parents" should occupy only one of a number of social roles, rather than supersede most of the roles that occurred before the birth of a child with special needs.

Simultaneously with the notion of "adaptation" the concept of "adoption" is used. The validity of the use of this term is due to the fact that adaptation is a continuous process, and "acceptance of a role" determines the level of readiness of parents to the conscious, not distorted illusions of interaction in a certain period of time in accordance with the individual properties of the child. In addition, the constructive acceptance of parental role involves the inclusion of it in the system of male/female interpersonal roles. Thus, the adoption of the role of "parents of a special child" involves finding a peculiar balance between acknowledging the limitations of the child and the excessive desire to compensate them; providing love for a child without excessive care or rejection (Kandel & Merrick, 2007).

Consequently, the need to adapt and adopt the role of "parents of a special child" is manifested in the realization of the real situation, readiness to interact with the child, modifications of expectations and prospects for future planning in accordance with the diagnosis and condition of the child, finding an optimal balance between parent's role and other male/female roles, building a joint child development strategy with supporting specialists.

The need to find the meaning of one's own experience. Many studies emphasize that the presence of a child with special needs changes the configuration of family relationships, habitual lifestyle, requires extraordinary emotional and financial resources (Baker-Ericzen et al., 2005). However, a number of studies suggests that in the process of successfully adapting parents to

the situation and their role, positive points are also highlighted. Parents can transform their own negative experiences in a positive way by finding the positive aspects that have occurred because of the appearance of a child with a developmental disability in the family. Studies have documented that childhood disability has contributed to raising awareness of goals; personal growth; improvement of mutual relations and social relations; raising spirituality; enhancing tolerance and sensitivity; more positive view of the future (Neely-Barnes & Dia, 2008). Accordingly, parents who care for a child with special needs, have one of the basic needs – the desire to find meaning for their own experiences; to transform the existing negative experience into a positive one; find the benefits that take place in the situation of raising a particular child.

The need for special child adoption by society. In the general context, "adoption" is a complex process based on such a perception of reality that is not distorted by stereotypes, negative guides, fears, illusions, expectations, etc. Adoption of a child with special needs by others is an active process of awareness and adequate treatment of personality constraints (that is, something that a person cannot change); the recognition of multivariance and "other" forms of existence. At the heart of this perception there are no estimates. Adoption by parents of a child with special needs requires a lot of time and resources, however, this process is natural. At the same time, the attitude of the society and adoption of a child with developmental problems is a problem that is very relevant today.

The external factors that impair the process of successful integration and adoption by the child's society with peculiarities of development are stigmatization. Parents of children are often separated from society by accusing them of disabling the child. It was found that 21.7% of parents were accused of having their own children's social disabilities: 46.2% of those accused were relatives, 38.5% were neighbors, and 15.3% were married partners (Duran & Ergün, 2018).

The need to confirm the changes/dynamics of the child's development. A child with special needs has an individual trajectory of development. Quite often in such a child there are not so bright and visible markers of its formation. Accordingly, parents make great efforts to support the child in its maturation. In addition to physical care, parents' activities are aimed at socializing children and improving their psycho-emotional state. Parents' actions are aimed at bringing happiness to the child, maintaining a sense of dignity and maximizing and unleashing its potential.

At the same time, parents desperately need others (specialists, relatives, acquaintances) to provide support and be part of a team involved in the child's development (Ilias et al., 2018). It is important for parents that close people with them are aware of and note the changes that are happening to the child. On the one hand, it helps parents find a positive meaning for their own experience. Thus, 73% of parents raising children with autism spectrum disorders reported that even the small achievements of their child helped them maintain a sense of hope and overcome difficulties (Ilias et al., 2018). On the other hand, children's success (in some situations they may be insignificant) emphasizes the success of parenting and upbringing and contributes to the formation of parents' sense of competence and effectiveness (Katkis et al., 2017).

Needs in sibling subsystem

The sibling subsystem consists of siblings of the nuclear family. The main function of the subsystem is to promote the development of children's interaction skills with peers. It is in relationships with peers that a child develops leadership qualities; learns to negotiate and, at the same time, defend one's position; compete; make friends, etc.

For children who have developmental disabilities and experience significant difficulties in the process of socialization, the subsystem of siblings is important, because this is where

the first and most intense experience of building relationships with peers. Siblings provide communication, help and emotional support, which is crucial for the socialization and integration of children with special needs. At the same time, siblings of children with special needs often do not have the opportunity to understand and articulate to parents their own needs, which may be somewhat frustrating. Three specific needs of siblings of a child with special needs have been identified.

The need for attention and love from parents. Having a child with special needs can cause emotional (negative experiences) and structural (coalition of a sick child and one of the parents) transformations in the parental subsystem. Accordingly, changes in the parental subsystem affect all other subsystems, including sibling. In addition, parents can spend a lot of time on a child with special needs and much less on meeting the needs of healthy children (Ilias et al., 2018). Usually children are extremely sensitive to such a differentiated attitude of their parents and react painfully to it. Children experience depression, anxiety, and low self-esteem if they are dissatisfied with their parents' attitudes toward themselves (compared to their parents' attitudes toward other children). At the same time, if children can realize the meaning that parents pay more attention to the other child and see justice in it, it does not cause their resistance (Kowal et al., 2002).

It is important to understand that healthy siblings often cannot identify and verbalize their current needs. Due to the systematic frustration of their own needs, they begin to show certain deviations in behavior in order to attract the attention of parents. Accordingly, parents should adapt to the individual needs of healthy children, respond in a timely manner and find the best ways to meet them.

The need for informing about the somatic and psychological characteristics of a special child. Information about the peculiarities of the development of a special child is usually discussed with parents, adult relatives and acquaintances. In most cases, children are left out of the discussion of issues related to

their sister / brother with special needs. In addition, parents may not pay attention to the current needs of healthy children for information on the health of siblings with developmental disabilities.

Instead, a lack of awareness of healthy children raises a number of questions: Who is to blame for the sibling disorder? Is it possible to get this disease? Is it worth telling acquaintances and friends about it? How best to talk about it? What does it mean to have limited sibling opportunities for each family member's future and their own future? How to deal with negative emotions that arise (anger, pain, guilt, fear)? How to behave with a brother/sister and other people in the immediate environment? (Seligman & Darling, 2009). These and other questions, which the child does not find answers to themselves and cannot get from parents, cause extreme stress and the emergence of negative emotions.

Therefore, at different stages of ontogenesis, siblings of people with disabilities need comprehensive information. And this information should be adequate to the question and age of the child, clear, concise, true.

The need for division of responsibilities according to the age of siblings. It is known that in families raising a child with special needs, the relationship between siblings is more adult, because siblings, regardless of age, care more and are responsible for children with certain developmental disabilities. The need to be constantly present, pay attention, care and help parents causes a set of negative emotional experiences (anger, irritation, guilt, etc.). Moreover, these experiences can have several vectors of direction: brother/sister; parents who are unable to provide adequate care on their own; himself. In addition, the intensity of the experience depends on the size of the family and the number of sibling subsystems. Thus, research has shown that in families with several healthy children, each of them feels less pressure and, accordingly, is not so obliged to "compensate" parents for the developmental disorders of their siblings (Seligman & Darling, 2009).

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It should be emphasized that the so-called "role conflict" (when siblings become "parents" of a child with special needs) is not typical for all families. Mostly, it occurs if the parents ignore the individual needs of a healthy child and at the same time delegate their own parental responsibilities to her/his part. Instead, in cohesive and friendly families, where care for a particular child is recognized as a shared responsibility and takes into account the age characteristics of healthy children, siblings are actively involved and help parents.

Besides identifying groups of urgent needs for families raising a child with special needs, we determined the severity of these needs (see Figure 2).
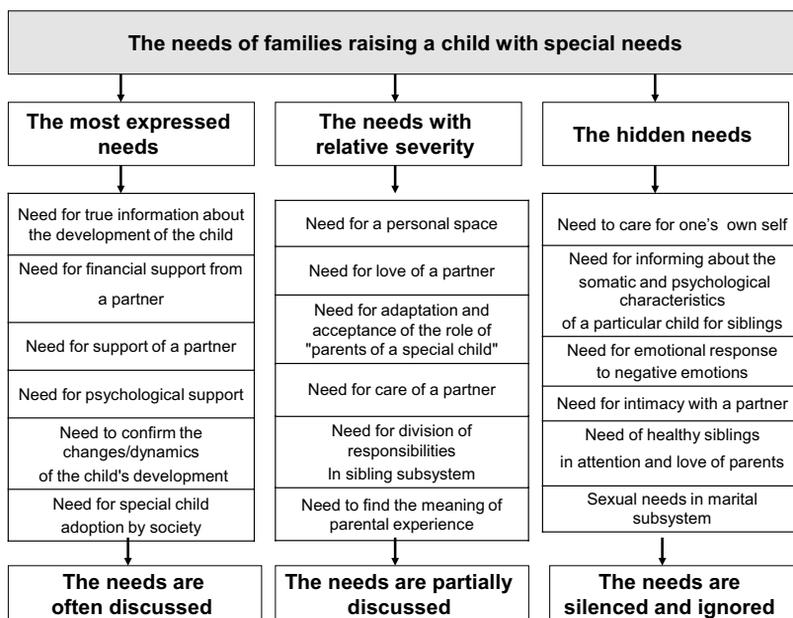
Fig.2. The degree of expressiveness of needs of families raising a child with special needs

The application of the expert assessment method (ranking stage) allowed to identify 3 groups of needs according to their

importance for families of children with special needs: the most pronounced needs (often discussed), needs with relative severity (partially discussed) and hidden needs (silenced and ignored). Outlining the essence of the above needs to some extent determines the areas of work of specialists in the implementation of quality socio-psychological support for families of children with special needs. Thus, the specialist must understand that beyond the more "expressive" needs for the family there are a number of other, no less important. The needs that are often discussed in the family circle or with specialists are mostly related to the parent subsystem. They are recognized by family members and determine their movement towards these needs.

Those needs, which are only partially discussed, are mostly related to other subsystems and do not attract the attention of adult family members. Accordingly, they may be partly aware and satisfied. The group of needs that experts have categorized as "Silenced and ignored ones" is that is not expressive and well-informed by members of the family. On the one hand the needs are important to the psychological health of each member of the family. On the other hand, they are ignored, and silenced. Therefore, social and psychological support should be aimed at helping family members find the best ways to meet those needs that are realized; support for family members and assistance in understanding the needs of the group, which are partially discussed or generally kept silent.

Conclusion

The study, using the expert assessment method, identified 18 special needs of the family bringing up a child with special needs. These requirements allow to focus on the specificity of the needs of each family member, depending on the subsystem in which it is included. The outlined group of needs was correlated with the functioning of the individual, marital, parent-child and sibling subsystems within the family system. In addition, by experts' ranking the identified family needs as a factor of relevance for families, they were categorized into three categories:

those that are often discussed, partially or generally ignored and ignored. This approach, in our opinion, will help to implement more effective socio-psychological support by focusing on different needs groups and developing the best ways to meet them.

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Кучманич Ірина, Опанасенко Людмила. До питання класифікації потреб сімей, які виховують дітей із особливостями розвитку (системний підхід)

Сім'ї, які виховують дітей із особливими потребами, відрізняються від решти сімей більшою кількістю та варіативністю потреб. У наукових

дослідженнях висвітлюються питання специфічних потреб сім'ї, однак здебільшого описано їх узагальнену сукупність.

Отже, **мета** *статті – дослідити та виокремити потреби у таких сім'ях та описати їх у контексті індивідуальної, подружньої, дитячо-батьківської і сиблінгової підсистем сімейної системи.*

Для реалізації мети використовувались такі методи: теоретичні – аналіз, систематизація, класифікація та узагальнення; емпіричні – спостереження, бесіда, інтерв'ю та метод експертних оцінок.

Результати дослідження. *Загалом було виокремлено 18 потреб сім'ї і розподілено їх відповідно до сімейних підсистем – індивідуальної, подружньої, батьківської та сиблінгової. У контексті індивідуальної підсистеми виокремлено такі потреби: потреба в емоційному відреагуванні негативних емоцій, потреба в наявності особистого простору, потреба в підтримці, потреба в піклуванні щодо власного Я. Для подружньої підсистемі визначено спільні потреби для обох партнерів (в любові, підтримці, піклуванні, близькості з боку партнера, матеріальні та сексуальні потреби). У батьківській підсистемі схарактеризовано специфічні потреби: у правдивій інформації, адаптації та прийнятті ролі «батьки особливої дитини», у знаходженні сенсу взаємодії в системі «батьки-особлива дитина», у прийнятті суспільством особливої дитини, потреба в підтвердженні змін/динаміки розвитку дитини. Сформульовано потреби братів та/або сестер у сиблінговій підсистемі: в увазі та любові з боку батьків, інформуванні щодо сомато-психологічних особливостей такої дитини, розподілі обов'язків відповідно до віку сиблінгів.*

Висновки. *Виокремлення потреб сім'ї та визначення ступеня їх виразності має практичне значення для здійснення ефективного соціально-психологічного супроводу. Фрустрація неусвідомлених потреб спричинює посилення напруження та погіршення сімейного мікроклімату. Натомість усвідомлення потреб членами сім'ї стане поштовхом для знаходження необхідних ресурсів та оптимальних шляхів їх задоволення.*

Ключові слова: *потреби сім'ї, діти з особливими потребами, підсистема, сімейна система, сім'я, що виховує дитину з особливостями розвитку, сиблінги, батьківська підсистема.*

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Psychological Characteristics of Using Video-Phonograms in Teaching Teenagers Foreign Languages at Secondary Schools

Психологічні особливості використання відеофонограми у навчанні підлітків іноземним мовам у закладах середньої освіти

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of our research is: to determine psychological characteristics of using video-phonograms in teaching pupils foreign languages at secondary schools; to build a model of educational process with using video-phonograms; to show the characteristics and tasks of each sub-cycle of a video-phonogram; to describe this model in the stage of its experimental verification.

Methods of the research. The following theoretical methods of the research were used to solve the tasks formulated in the article: a categorical method, structural and functional methods, the methods of the analysis, systematization, modeling, generalization. The experimental methods are observation and analysis. The participants of our research were 45 pupils of the 7th-B form of school №15 of Rivne (Ukraine). The experiment lasted during 2020-2021 years.

The results of the research. Based on the theory of a dialogue in a paradigm of Secondary Predication (Mykhalchuk & Ivashkevych, 2019), we define the following main characteristics of the concept of "a dialogic text" which is the basis of video-phonograms in teaching teenagers the foreign languages at secondary schools: 1) an attempt to include the listener into a joint search with the author of the truth, focus on the reflection and thinking; 2) the author's desire to make direct contact with a listener, which is expressed in the variability of the material for analysis and understanding, the possibility of providing a creative approach to understanding the content, because only personal involvement of the listener makes the text a work of art.

Conclusions. It is emphasized that any video-phonogram has a triple meaning: 1) a primary or common meaning; 2) a secondary one – which arises due to the syntagmatic reorganization of the text and the opposition of the primary units; 3) tertiary meaning, which is based on non-textual associations of different levels – from the most general to purely personal, authorial ones (they are fixed at the level of authorial paradigms or the author's dictionary).

Therefore, we define the text of a video-phonogram as an extremely complex phenomenon, which emphasizes the impossibility of comprehensive delineation of textual parameters, all components of its content. This, in turn, somewhat prevents the listener from fully understanding the richness and diversity of the meaning of a video-phonogram. It was proved that the semantic structure of the text changed from a reader to reader. And nothing is able, even the development of science, to stop the movement of the text, to master all its semantic richness, because the text is infinitely open to infinity, and the constants of individual style create the openness of the video-phonogram, the possibility of a listener entering the process of dialogical quasi-communication with the text.

***Key words:** psychological characteristics of using video-phonograms, reflection, thinking, a direct contact with a listener, the syntagmatic reorganization of the text, non-textual associations, dialogical quasi-communication with the text.*

Introduction

Regardless of what features underlie cyclization of text fragments, the influence of cyclical context on the understanding of video-phonograms in teaching teenagers the foreign languages at secondary school is not disputed by researchers. Each individual text included into the cycle undergoes of a retrospective rethinking by the reader in the connection with the introduction of new points of view (Гончарук & Онуфрієва, 2018). New situations, new characters make a lot of changes in the comparative significance of the components of the cycle (a story, an essay, etc.). The tension that is arisen in the case of a combination of integrity and fragmentation and occurs due to a syntagmatic combination of texts, the effect of rethinking of each previous link (for example, a whole text) in the connection with the next one and depending on it, allow us to speak about the value of the cycle as a syntagmatic text education, which is not reduced to the sum of its components (as in the case of individual sentences) (Aleksandrov, Memetova & Stankevich, 2020). Thus, the syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations of whole texts are manifested within the individual stylistic author's paradigm (Mykhalchuk & Bihunova, 2019).

Thus, we can conclude that in modern humanities there are different approaches to the definition of a video-phonogram. This is due to the fact that the concept of "a video-phonogram" is based on slightly different aspects of the researches. Psychologists characterize a video-phonogram as a system with a complex internal organization, the actualization of components at the textual level. In the psycholinguistic aspect, the video-phonogram is marked by wider boundaries, but psycholinguistic research is characterized by an emphasis on the intratextual components of it, due to which the listener has a process of meaning formation (Максименко, Ткач, Литвинчук & Онуфрієва, 2019). The semiotic view is characterized by the understanding of a video-phonogram as a space for certain "methodological operations" (Mykhalchuk & Khupavsheva, 2020), while the reader's attention is paid to the communicative intention of the text, also taking into account the peculiarities of its output in other texts. Psychologists, characterizing a video-phonogram, focus on the presence of textual and non-textual factors, consider it as a mean of communication between the author and the reader (Charles, 2000). Also we mean the individual style of the author's paradigm.

So, **the purpose** of our research is:

1. To determine psychological characteristics of using video-phonograms in teaching pupils the foreign languages at secondary schools.

2. To build a model of educational process with using video-phonograms.

3. To show the characteristics and tasks of each sub-cycle of a video-phonogram.

4. To describe this model in the stage of its experimental verification.

Methods of the research

The following theoretical methods of the research were used to solve the tasks formulated in the article: a categorical method,

structural and functional methods, the methods of the analysis, systematization, modeling, generalization. The experimental method is the method of observation.

The participants of our research were 45 pupils of the 7th-B form of school №15 of Rivne (Ukraine). The experiment lasted during 2020-2021 years.

Results and their discussion

Psychological characteristics of using video-phonograms in teaching pupils the foreign languages of secondary school finds its embodiment in the model of educational process in a whole. *The model of the educational process using video-phonograms* at secondary school should be built in accordance with the concepts and requirements of contemporary teaching methods of foreign languages. The model is developed by us in accordance with the results of experimental training. The basis for creating a model of learning is, first of all, a communicative approach to learning, which involves psycho-linguistic orientation of the learning process. The model is also based on the idea of cycling, which facilitates the optimization of the learning process, so called "phased" formation of skills and the development of pupils' abilities of oral speech in other languages. Cyclicality refers to such an organization of the oral activities of schoolchildren, which is carried out within certain time periods, that is cycled and focused on the continuity of the educational material, the similarity of the methods of instruction and the thematic completeness of the training in general (provided for the solution of the tasks).

The cyclicality involves the systematic use of video-phonograms and the system of exercises on its basis, that is the basic hierarchical set of types of exercises developed in accordance with the modern requirements of Teaching Methodology.

The purpose of each cycle is to reach the pupils with the required level of oral speech competence on the basis of a certain amount of educational material to be mastered.

Each cycle consists of sub-cycles and it is one methodical tool in a whole. A clear distinction between sub-circles is very difficult to be analyzed, since they are interconnected and gradually move from one circle to another one. Each sub-circle has its purpose, characterized by a specific way of organizing learning activities, the appropriate degree of formation of skills and abilities, adaptability to the mental characteristics of pupils and intensive use of the video-phonogram. The type of video-phonogram should also be corresponded to the individual psychological characteristics of pupils, their language level, goals and practical tasks of learning.

Let's turn to the consideration of the characteristics and tasks of each sub-cycle.

In *the first sub-circle of the thematic cycle of lessons* pupils are introduced to a new linguistic phenomenon and speech material using a video-phonogram. It includes also the explanation of the region-specific nature. From this stage we begin the formation of verbal (phonetic, lexical and grammatical) skills of pupils, from which the further success in the formation of speech skills depend on a large extent.

Considering the peculiarities of presenting a new educational material we'll characterize a cycle of lessons with a dominant learning feature of oral speech in other languages. The presentation of a new educational material is carried out with the help of a video-phonogram. The video-phonogram not only acquaints pupils with a new language and linguistic material, but also puts it in probable communicative situations which are based on the reality, which emphasizes pupils' authenticity and importance. The creation of the emotional atmosphere while viewing the video-phonogram helps to understand better and to memorize linguistic units as it increases the interests and the motivation of pupils in the process of learning.

These studies show us that the most effective way to get acquainted with new linguistic material is combined with post-semantics, which occurs when viewing the video-phonogram.

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The means of semantics are translation, using of synonyms and providing general interpretation. Translation by a teacher of linguistic units diverts pupils' attention to only 1-5 seconds, which does not interfere with a general understanding of the situation on the screen. Translation is easier for schoolchildren, but interpreting a foreign language allows them to teach their one-to-one thinking that is difficult to overestimate. During the interpretation, the review of the video-phonogram should be stopped for a few seconds. Semantization of a new material with the help of a video-phonogram can also take place through the visual images of the objects depicted by the video-phonogram, through the gestures, facial expressions and intonation of the speakers who constantly accompany the addresser's speech.

Depending on the size of the video-phonogram, the initial presentation may be integral, and then – fragmentary. Repeated semantics is used as it needed. The video-phonogram at the first and second stages is perceived by us as the basis for introducing new educational material. During further learning of the material it is possible and appropriate use of other types of supports, such as drawings, using Grammar tables, schemes, etc.

New lexical and grammatical units were presented with the help of a video-phonogram and they are activated in exercises that are a part of a general system of exercises and provide the formation of skills for understanding and using new language material in the oral speech of pupils. Exercises are some structural links or components of the lesson, as they have all the main features of the learning process: they always have a task; they have a number of expedient actions, the execution of which is controlled by a teacher. In this sub-circle exercises are performed to train the auditory reception. Exercises have the aim of the development of speech mechanisms of listening (prediction, auditory memory and attention, comprehension). The video-phonogram promotes the formation of intonation skills, listening and speech-driving images of new words. Exercises influence on the perception and recognition of new lexical units, their identifi-

cation and imitative talks. Pupils learn to understand the basic content of audio text. There is also the assimilation of paralinguistic means provided by a video-phonogram. The appropriate use of training video-phonograms, which govern the basis for the perception of new language material, may involve the use of non-learning authentic video-phonogram with incomplete set of authentic attributes.

After completing exercises that are based on intensified linguistic material, and the content of the video-phonogram, pupils are introduced to new grammatical material. The formation of Grammatical skills begins.

The lessons of the second sub-circle of this model begin with the speech charging, which can be represented by the speech of a teacher with selected units for activating the linguistic units or a conversation on the topic for the development of unprepared pupils' speech. Then there is a repeated application of the video-phonogram on the topic, on the basis of which comprehensive operations are carried out that make up the structure of speech skills which contribute to its improvement. Improvement of skills occurs during some certain actions in conditional communication and communicative exercises: actions on combining, transforming, constructing. This sub-circle uses the maximum number of exercises with various supports for learning oral speech. Pupils learn to focus on the actions of the characters, trace the logical sequence of events and observe it during the transmission of the content. If these actions are personally motivated and situational, they will primarily result by a way of the combination of different Grammar models and lexical units in the pupils' statements. These actions provide a significant amount of semantic connections. Consequently, language skills are improved due to specific learning conditions that are adequate to the speech and the situational relevance of the speech units.

Teaching a foreign language at this stage takes a place in such kinds of exercises as the transformation of the samples of speech or their expansion, the answers to the questions of diffe-

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rent types, the association of samples of speech in over-text and dialogical unity. Teaching of oral speech is transferred by the studying of other types of speech activity – reading and writing, which stimulate, support and actualize the development of oral speech. Therefore, at this stage exercises are also used to listen to new texts, to selective reading and writing.

Consequently, the oral speech of pupils at this stage of education is initially primarily reproductive, then – reproductive and productive, and in some exercises they are productive, that is, it is conditioned by some situation and speech task. Teaching of speech takes a place in conditional communicative and communicative exercises that have been recognized by us as the main ones for schoolchildren of 10-15 years old. In this sub-circle we recommend the teacher to use video-phonogram's training, modified and unmodified excerpts from some films and documentaries, cartoons, etc.

The third sub-cycle of the model continues to improve skills and the development of abilities of monologue and dialogue speech. Pupils learn to understand precisely the coherent audio text; they are given the opportunity to use new language units in different contexts and situations. It helps a teacher to perform exercises that stimulate pupils' unprepared listening to the subject. Thus, mastering the educational material takes a place on a qualitatively new language level.

At this stage of the research, there is a border control, which completes the activity of pupils on some topic. Objects of testing are auditory, lexical, grammatical skills and pupils' ability to carry out speech activities on the subject.

In the third subclass it is appropriate to use authentic materials. These can be fragments from educational and ethnographic courses, feature films and documentaries, cartoons. Advertising is limited because it has a complex level of broadcasting and content for pupils of middle school age.

Consequently, the first, the second and the third sub-circles of the model contribute to the development of mental activity of

pupils and the transition of the analytical and synthetic activity of schoolchildren to the inner plan. This testifies to the formation and actualization of complex language actions that allow pupils to perform foreign language activities; teenagers begin to strive for communication, become more free and independent in choosing speech means, the volume of statements comes close to that one defined in the Program of a Foreign Language, they are minimally determined only by some educational and speech situation. The pupils' speech is already predominantly productive. Accordingly, exercises are communicative in nature. Students are practicing the creation of their own statements in various communicative situations that can be presented with the help of a video-phonogram. The information from the screen is perceived through the prism of its own social experience, which increases the motivation of learning, which, from its side, affects the level of speech activity and creates incentives for successful solving of tasks of communication.

Summarizing the results of our research, we have to note that the basis of our model is the communicative approach to learning, which is realized in the predominant use of conditional communication and communicative exercises. The training model based on using a video-phonogram is intended for practical use at secondary school and corresponds to the practical objectives of teaching this level, the peculiarities of the educational process and the age characteristics of schoolchildren of 10-15 years old. In general, we can say that the proposed model of learning using a video-phonogram will help us to implement the requirements of the Program of a Foreign Language, according to which pupils have to obtain a certain level of the formation of receptive and productive skills and skills of oral speech in other languages. So, we'll describe this model in the stage of its experimental verification.

The first chapter of this research describes the psychological and linguistic principles of the use of video-phonogram in the teaching of spoken language of schoolchildren; there were

described by us the technique of using video-phonograms according to its educational capabilities; the video-phonogram classification was created for teaching of English and German, the main backgrounds for the selection of the video-phonogram were determined, the basic requirements for exercises performed on the basis of the language material and the content of the video-phonograms in the cycle of lessons and in their system. Taking into account the results of this part of the research, we developed a model for teaching oral speech with the use of video-phonograms in the cycle of lessons. However, in the course of its preparation, the question of the place in it of the activity with the video-phonogram remained unclear, and this problem we need to solve. Therefore, *we originally created two possible variants of such a model*: one variant is using video-phonogram in the first sub-cycle of the cycle of lessons, that is, at the stage of the formation of speech skills, and in his/her second sub-cycle – at the stage of their improvement. The experiments have the aim at determining the effectiveness of the use of video-phonograms in the first or the second sub-circle of the training cycle allowed us to determine the most effective variant of this model. Accordingly, we'll describe the organization and conduction of an experimental study of the place of the activity with the video-phonogram in the proposed cycle of lessons by us, the analysis and the interpretation of the results having been obtained, provided guidance on the use of video-phonograms in training teenagers English and German.

Principles of the experimental research. In the process of the developing this study we relied on the modern theory of methodical experiment and the requirements to it (Івашкевич & Комарніцька, 2020). The reason for the development of the experimental part of the research were theoretical positions regarding the methods of teaching oral speech using video-phonograms for teaching teenagers to speak a foreign language.

The purpose of the experimental research was to determine the place of use of video-phonograms in the teaching of oral English speech in the cycle of lessons at secondary school.

The hypothesis of the research was: listening material evaluation, selection and adaptation should take a place at the stage of the formation of pupils' skills of oral English speaking, and printed materials – at the stage of their improvement.

During the preparation of the experiment, we proceeded from the need to plan *four stages of the experiment*: 1) a preparatory one (the acquaintance with the literature, setting goals, development of methods and techniques, planning); 2) the stage of providing the actual research; 3) the stage of qualitative and quantitative analysis of the obtained data; 4) the stage of interpretation, generalization, definition of causes, factors that determine the nature of the course of the investigated phenomenon.

The basis of the experiment according to the following requirements were: the exact limitation of the time allowed for us for the experiment; the availability of a pre-formulated goal and hypothesis of the experiment; the adequate purpose of the organizational structure of the experiment; the possibility of the isolated consideration of the methodological influence of the investigated factor; the measurement of the initial and final status of the typical problem of studying the skills and abilities of pupils according to the criteria that corresponds to the specificity of the problem and the purpose of the experiment.

The experiment was educational in nature. It was attended by 52 pupils of the eighth forms (13-14 years old) of the comprehensive school № 15 in the town of Rivne. It took place in the first quarter of 2020-2021 academic year. English teacher in 8-A (experimental form) and in 8-B (control form) was M.Bilunskyi.

The experimental conditions did not vary, we mean:

I. The composition of the groups: the groups were approximately equal (according to the data of the stating section).

2. The total number of hours allocated to the study (1,5 months of classes – 18 hours).

3. Teaching material (video-phonograms, printed textbooks, system of oral and written exercises).

4. The same teacher-experimenter in both groups.

The conditions that were varied in the experiment were the sequencing of the use of video-phonograms and printed teaching materials in the cycle of the lessons.

We determined the conditions to prove the equivalence of experimental and control groups. In order to provide roughly equivalent of experimental and control groups on the mental characteristics of pupils and the level of formation of their English and German speech skills before the experiment, the following steps were made by us: two steps were done for the study of the pupils' mental readiness to learn a foreign language, and two steps – for determining a total level of English proficiency in English and German language skills and abilities.

Two psychological tests were proposed: to verify the accuracy of auditory perception and the sustainability of perceptual attention of pupils.

Test № 1 tested the accuracy of auditory perception.

Task: Today we will check which of you will hear the most clear what I will say. Each of you has a printed card. I will read some of the words, and you have to determine whether they are the same or different. On the one card, along with the corresponding number of words in pairs, put "+" if you think the words are the same, and "-" – if they are different.

Pairs of words presented to pupils orally:

1. Billy – Willy	8. bad – bed	14. touch – much	20. rat – red
2. meat – meat	9. pen – pan	15. glass – guess	21. nose – rose
3. name – red	10. fox – box	16. hand – head	22. fat – cat
4. bread – red	11. write – white	17. knife – five	23. white – while
5.mouth – mouse	12. mouth – mice	18. four – floor	24. flag – cat
6. Pam – Sam	13. three – tree	19. some – son	25. nod – rod
7. lay – play			

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A card of a pupil:

1.	6.	11.	16.	21.
2.	7.	12.	17.	22.
3.	8.	13.	18.	23.
4.	9.	14.	19.	24.
5.	10.	15.	20.	25.

The maximum number of points which one pupil can get was 50 points: each correct answer received two points. Pupils from group A received **1056** points for this test, teenagers from group B – **1088** points from **1300** of possible ones.

Test № 2 has the aim at determining the sustainability of perceptual attention of the person. Before proposing the test the teacher repeated the alphabet with the pupils.

Task: Let's check who is the most attentive. Each of you has a card with typed strings of pairs of letters from the English alphabet. I will call one of the pairs of letters, and you have to strike it. I will call pairs of letters quickly (as quick as it is possible).

A card of a pupil:

A B	A D	D B	C D	A E	E K	L K	B C	B D	M D
A U	E R	D T	H T	N D	L D	O H	H E	B E	D V
T D	N M	A N	C I	K N	A G	F M	A M	E U	U V
W V	P R	R U	H F	M H	Y I	I Z	K S	O K	O Q
O T	M Q	U P	R F	D Y	S N	Y Z	J O	S H	C I

The test was performed by pupils on individual cards. The quantitative assessment of the test for verifying the sustainability of perceptual attention was carried out by a 50-point scale: one correct answer was evaluated at one point. Pupils from group A received **946** points for this test, teens from group B – from **957** points to **1300** points.

This section showed that the groups were almost the same in terms of mental development: the pupils of group A scored the

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first two tests in 2002, the teens in group B – 2045 points. The performed slices showed the almost identical level of such mental qualities of schoolchildren as the accuracy of auditory perception and the constancy of perceptual attention, which gave grounds for considering these groups of pupils to be sufficiently equivalent to participate in the experiment.

In the following two tests the general level of pupils' knowledge of foreign language skills and abilities was checked. These tests were standardized and have the aim at determining the level of language skills and abilities of pupils with a certain degree of accuracy, reliability and possibility. For each person such a test there had 50 points, 10 points for each correct answer.

Test № 1 to determine the level of lexical language skills of pupils.

Task: Solve the short riddles. Up to 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 statements get a correct completion. Example: 6 seconds.

1. A cat has four a/ ears b/ eyes c/ legs d/ heads.	2. We go to school a/ to play b/ to eat c/ to sleep d/ to study.
3. I like to swim a/ in the park b/ in the river c/ in the yard d/ in the bathroom.	4. We use pencils a/ to eat b/ to write c/ to speak d/ to run.
5. A watch tells us a/ the time b/ the weather c/ the temperature d/ stories.	

A card of a pupil:

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.

Pupils from group A received 550 points for this test, teens of group B – 540 points.

Test № 2 for determining the level of lexical language skills of pupils.

Task: Determine which pictures having been proposed by us have the descriptions being match. In the answer box next to the number write the letter of the corresponding picture. But be careful – one drawing is superfluous.

This animal eats meat or fish. It has four legs and it's green or gray.

This is a bird. It can fly. It's white or brown and one of the biggest birds. It eats fish.

This is a bird but it can't fly. It's big. It's black and white. It eats fish.

This animal is a big brown cat. It can't climb trees. It eats meat.

This animal is very tall. It has long legs and neck. It eats leaves. It's orange and brown.

C
penguin

A
giraffe

D
lian
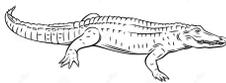
D
crocodile

F
tiger

E
pelican

Questionnaire:

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.

Pupils from group A received 480 points for this test, teens from group B – 510 points.

For the tests number 1 and number 2, the pupils of group A scored 1030 points, and group B – 1050 points. Thus, the general data obtained by us as a result of four sections showed the equivalence of experimental groups on the mental characteristics of pupils and a high level of their language training.

Based on the theory of a dialogue in a paradigm of Secondary Predication (Mykhalchuk & Ivashkevych, 2019), we define the following main characteristics of the concept of "a dialogic text" which is the basis of video-phonograms in teaching teenagers the foreign languages at secondary school: 1) an attempt to include the listener into a joint search with the author of the truth, focus on the reflection and thinking; 2) the author's desire to make direct contact with a listener, which is expressed in the variability of the material for analysis and understanding, the possibility of providing a creative approach to understanding the content, because only personal involvement of the listener makes the text as a work of art.

Conclusions

We emphasize that any video-phonogram has a triple meaning: 1) a primary or common meaning; 2) a secondary one – which arises due to the syntagmatic reorganization of the text and the opposition of the primary units; 3) tertiary meaning, which is based on non-textual associations of different levels – from the most general to purely personal, authorial ones (they are fixed at the level of authorial paradigms or the author's dictionary).

Therefore, we define the text of a video-phonogram as an extremely complex phenomenon, which emphasizes the impossibility of comprehensive delineation of textual parameters, all components of its content. This, in turn, somewhat prevents the listener from fully understanding the richness and diversity of the meaning of a video-phonogram. It was proved that from a reader to reader the semantic structure of the text changes. And nothing is able, even the development of science, to stop the

movement of the text, to master all its semantic richness, because the text is infinitely open to infinity, and the constants of individual style create the openness of the video-phonogram, the possibility of a listener entering the process of dialogical quasi-communication with the text.

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Михальчук Наталія, Коваль Ірина. Психологічні особливості використання відеофонограми у навчанні підлітків іноземним мовам у закладах середньої освіти.

Метою нашого дослідження є: визначити психологічні особливості використання відеофонограми у навчанні підлітків іноземним мовам у закладах середньої освіти; побудувати модель навчального процесу з використанням відеофонограми; окреслити характеристики та виокремити завдання кожного підциклу відеофонограми; описати та проаналізувати отримані результати на етапі її експериментальної перевірки.

Методи дослідження. Для розв'язання поставлених завдань використовувалися такі теоретичні методи дослідження: категоріальний, структурно-функціональний, аналіз, систематизація, моделювання, узагальнення. В якості експериментального методу використано методи інтерв'ю та спостереження. Учасниками нашого дослідження стали 45 учнів 7-Б класу закладу середньої освіти №15 м. Рівне (Україна). Експеримент тривав упродовж 2020-2021 років.

Результати дослідження. Відштовхуючись від теорії діалогу в парадигмі вторинної предикації (Mykhalchuk & Ivashkevych, 2019), визначено такі основні характеристики поняття «діалогічності тексту», що є основою відеофонограм у навчанні підлітків іноземним мовам у загальноосвітній школі: 1) спроба включити слухача у спільний з автором пошук істини, орієнтація на роздуми та розмірковування; 2) прагнення автора здійснювати безпосередній контакт з слухачем, що експлікується у варіативності матеріалу твору для аналізу та розуміння, можливості творчого підходу до розуміння змісту, тому що лише особистісне включення слухача робить текст твором мистецтва.

Висновки. За результатами дослідження встановлено, що будь-яка відеофонограма має потрійне значення: 1) первинне – загальномовне; 2) вторинне – те, що виникає за рахунок синтагматичної переорганізації тексту та протиставлення первинних одиниць; 3) третинне – базується на позатекстових асоціаціях різних рівнів – від найбільш загальних до суто особистісних, авторських (вони фіксуються на рівні авторських парадигм чи авторського словника).

Текст відеофонограми визначено як надзвичайно складний феномен, який наголошує на неможливості всебічного окреслення текстових параметрів, всіх складових його змісту. Це, у свою чергу, дещо заважає слухачеві до кінця зрозуміти багатство і розмаїття смислу відеофонограми. Доведено, що від слухача до слухача змінюється смислова структура тексту. І ніщо не в змозі, навіть розвиток науки, зупинити рух тексту, оволодіти всім його смисловим багатством, бо текст безмежно відкритий у нескінченість, а константи індивідуального стилю створюють відкритість відеофонограми, можливість входження слухача у процес діалогічного спілкування з текстом.

Ключові слова: психологічні особливості використання відеофонограми, рефлексія, мислення, безпосередній контакт зі слухачем, синтагматична реорганізація тексту, нетекстові асоціації, діалогічна квазікомунікація з текстом.

Productive Thinking and the Problem of Creativity of Personality

Продуктивне мислення та проблема творчості особистості

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ABSTRACT

The aim of our research is to study different theories of developing persons' creativity in the paradigm of Gestalt Psychology, which differentiates between creative, productive thinking and reproductive, based on memorization, repetition and reproduction; to show the main concepts of Compensatory theory, by which people develop Science, Art and other areas of culture largely to compensate their shortcomings; to present another theory of creativity – a Cognitive one, by which a researcher who actively interprets the world, processes of gaining the information, the ability to predict effectively and, at the same time, to in-

teract creatively with the surrounding world; to display the problem of creativity in Humanistic Psychology.

Methods of the research. *The following theoretical methods of the research were used to solve the tasks formulated in the article: a categorical method, structural and functional methods, the methods of the analysis, systematization, modeling, generalization.*

The results of the research. *The most important for the theory of creativity is the question of motivation, which A. Maslow described in terms of the hierarchy of needs according to the principles of priority and dominance. At the heart of the creative activity of the individual there are the highest personal needs. They are the need for self-realization, personal growth and development. Satisfying the needs that are fixed from the bottom of this hierarchy makes it possible to understand the needs at the top of the creative paradigm and according to the participation of actors in the creation of motivational domains. The higher a person is able to rise in the paradigm of this hierarchy, the more he/she is able to demonstrate individuality, human qualities, mental health and creativity.*

Conclusions. *It is significant, from the standpoint of the Psychology of Creativity, A. Maslow's (1982) hypothesis about the existence of deficient motives related to biological needs and meta-needs (highest values, motives for personal growth), such as truth, beauty, perfection, justice. Based on our empirical research (Nabochuk, 2021), we concluded that people who lived fully (individuals who were self-actualizing) had the following characteristics: the effective perception of the reality; the acceptance of oneself, other people and the surrounding nature; a desire for self-realization; focusing on the problem, absorbing one's business as an actualization of one's vocation; authenticity – open, understandable behavior in relations to themselves and to other people; the emphasis on the simplicity and naturalness of their behavior; the independence, the autonomy in judgments; self-confidence, adequacy of self-esteem, the ability to actualize peak experiences; public interests; deep interpersonal relationships; initiative and flexibility in the process of decision making; democratic nature of the person's own activity; the ability to distinguish between means and goals; philosophical sense of humor; criticality and a high degree of personal reflection; direct susceptibility to a new information.*

Key words: *productive thinking, the problem of creativity, the creation of motivational domains, self-realization, personal growth, personal development, motives for personal growth, the effective perception of the reality.*

Introduction

Creativity is largely relevant in the intellectual and spiritual activities of a man. Intelligence presents creative products in a new way, as new organized information (Гончарук & Онуфрієва, 2018). At the same time, spiritual activity appears as a process of generating thoughts. Therefore, at all stages of personality development should stimulate and organize its intellectual and spiritual activities (Моляко, 2013). It is believed that a narrow professional specialization restrains the incentives of the individual to creativity in the field of technology and the humanities (Onufriieva, 2017). As a result, both are somewhat leveled. Therefore, contemporary scholars often argue that universal education is needed, but one that does not preclude the formation of special skills of the individual (Теплов, 1985).

The creator and the subject of creativity form a holistic, harmonious system in which they direct and feedback connections are clearly fixed (Івашкевич & Гудима, 2020). The object of creativity can be any phenomenon of the ecosphere, everything that participates in the evolution of the world, including itself creativity and one's own thinking (Пономарёв, 1991). The tool of cognition and transformation is a person who can also be the object of creativity (Mykhalchuk & Kryshevych, 2019).

So, according to a great actuality of this problem ***the aim*** of our research is to study different theories of developing persons' creativity in the paradigm of Gestalt Psychology, which differentiates between creative, productive thinking and reproductive, based on memorization, repetition and reproduction; to show the main concepts of Compensatory theory, by which people develop Science, Art and other areas of culture largely to compensate their shortcomings; to present the another theory of creativity – a Cognitive one, by which a researcher who actively interprets the world, processes of gaining the information, the ability to predict effectively and, at the same time, to interact creatively with the surrounding world; to display the problem of creativity in Humanistic Psychology.

Methods of the research

The following theoretical methods of the research were used to solve the tasks formulated in the article: a categorical method, structural and functional methods, the methods of the analysis, systematization, modeling, generalization.

The results of the research

The first theory to study the problem of creativity and creative thinking of the individual is ***Gestalt Psychology***. Scientists in the paradigm of Gestalt Psychology differentiate between creative, productive thinking and reproductive, based on memorization, repetition and reproduction. Creative thinking is a paradigm of restructuring a holistic, complete situation, the starting point of which is the creative formulation and presentation of the problem. Scientists considered this stage of a creative process to be extremely important: "The formulation of a productive question is sometimes a greater achievement than solving the task set before the individual" (Starkweather, 1998: 81). At the second stage of a creative process is the construction of a holistic image of the situation (gestalt), the essential point of which is the centering, the transition from superficial and incorrect structuring of the problem to an adequate and correctly centered structure (Starkweather, 1998: 82). Finally, the third stage of a creative process is a central link of creative thinking, which involves the emergence of the idea of solving a problem, unexpected insight. That is why the creative process concentrates in its structure the moments of transition from "understanding" to "creative mastery". The fourth stage of a creative process is the implementation of the solution of the problem, a deeper understanding of how to solve a particular problem in general.

Characterizing productive thinking, E. Starkweather (Starkweather, 1998) was one of the scientists who drew attention to the fact that creativity correlated with a variety of personal characteristics. According to this point of view, the thinking of

the individual should be considered as a certain intellectual operation that is fully capable of separating creative thinking from the attitudes of the individual, his/her feelings and emotions.

In empirical researches (Rupprecht, 1993: 119) there was also a negative impact of the usual (associative or formal) perception of the relationships between the components of the problem of its creative solution. In some a way, children who study Geometry on the basis of only a formal method find it much more difficult to develop their own, individual creative approach to solve problems than children who have not studied at all. Thus, in psychological researches of thinking S. Rupprecht found new scientific theoretical and methodological foundations for the restructuring of school education (Rupprecht, 1993: 120).

In the context of the researches made in the paradigm of Gestalt Psychology, psychologists have introduced into scientific circulation such concepts as "problem situation", "insight", "productive thinking", "centered structure", "centering". However, despite the basic elements of the context, a broader view of creativity in general, Gestalt psychologists mainly focused their attention on the operational side of thinking and in fact denied the role of the activity, personal and professional experience gained in the process of solving creative tasks. Scientists were not really interested in the motivational side of creativity, without which a person becomes an instrument, a means of solving certain problems in the psychological field of meaning, which is formed here and now.

In contrast to Gestalt Psychology in the conceptual system of Psychoanalysis (Freud, 1992; Юнг, 1998), the central problems of the creative act are motivation and unconscious components of creative activity. The problem of *motivation* has unconditional heuristic value in Freud's theoretical conception (Freud, 1992). The scientist focuses on the dominance of motives of human behavior, on two basic antagonistic hobbies: on *Eros* – as a desire to live, finding love, making self-preservation, providing unity with other people, showing creative and constructive

tendencies of man; and on $Thanatoshi$ – a desire to die, to make destructions, self-destructions, providing destructive human tendencies. Thus, for the first time in the history of Psychology, S. Freud intuitively formulated two main trends not only in the creative process but also in the laws of culture in general – such as destruction and creation, dissociation and association, re-structuring stereotypes and creative construction of new ones (Freud, 1992).

The motives of creativity, according to S. Freud, are directly related to Eros and are derived from the sexual desires of the individual. In this case, the focus is on desexualization and sublimation – the transfer of sexual energy to the process of creative activity as it is creative construction of new ones (Freud, 1992). The key concept in the Psychodynamic Theory of creativity is sublimation, which is considered the dominant source of cultural evolution. In the theory of scientists (Юнг, 1998) the sexual energy is directed primarily to spiritual goals – Art, Science, Religion, Politics. In addition, the products of creativity, and in particular – professional creativity, are embodied, they are repressed by aspirations and experiences.

The unconscious structures of psyche are one of the most important sources of creativity, as well as for Psychology of Creativity. S. Freud was the first one who actualized the problem of the relationships between unconscious processes and creative activity of the subject (Freud, 1992). According to S. Freud, this connection is manifested both in the process of creative activity and in the content of creative products. The scientist proves that consciousness is only a superficial layer of the psyche, behind which so-called unknown personal depths are recorded (Freud, 1992). The latter, of course, is of great importance for understanding creativity as a process. In S. Freud's conception, the unconscious is the so-called powerful "irrational force", the exclusively creative subject with its personal problems, conflicts, dramas, so-called "creative" part of the psyche of the person (Freud, 1992). Thus, in scientific Psychology, S. Freud was the

first one who introduced the term "collective unconsciousness". The scientist believed that conflicts, experiences, personal tragedies and dramas are inherited and created so-called phylogenetic mental experience of mankind. These creatively meaningful "fantasies" are the kind of foundation on which the individual imagination of the subject is built through the person's experience (Freud, 1992).

The unique theory of creativity was also modeled by a follower, and later – the opponent of S. Freud (Freud, 1992) – C. Jung (Jung, 1998). Unlike S. Freud (Freud, 1992), C. Jung (Jung, 1998) saw libido not as some sexual energy, but as a diffuse creative force that manifests itself in various spheres of the person.

Thus, C. Jung (Jung, 1998) continued to substantiate S. Freud's (Freud, 1992) idea of the collective unconsciousness. The scientist noted that the discovery of the deep layers of the collective unconsciousness was preceded by a situation in the twentieth century, when the formation of the worldview of scientists was largely due to the existence of myths of different peoples of our planet. The analysis of the content of myths emphasized the existence of incredible similarity of dominant motives in different mythologies, theories and cultures. The hypothesis of the intersection of cultural worlds, updated from the very beginning, was not confirmed in the future. C. Jung on the basis of his psychological and culture-based analysis and experiments with transcendent consciousness proved the existence of semantic structures of general order, such as mental determinants of the combination of images in different cultures (Jung, 1998).

Also, C. Jung "dilutes" the depths of the subconsciousness almost to the leveling of its boundaries, "placing" in the subconsciousness not only "personal unconsciousness" (surface layer, individual human experience), and not only universal experience (collective unconsciousness), but also extra-human unconsciousness (the common meaning that man has with the animal world) (Jung, 1998).

Thus, the content of the unconsciousness of each individual subject are mental complexes, such as the unconscious mental frames of the individual, which are organized into certain systemic formations and have an impact on a human life. They are the result of mental trauma, conflicts, constellation of images, ideas, tendencies, pushed by the subject into his/her subconsciousness. So, the innate collective unconsciousness contains spiritual material, which has deep roots, and which explains the inherent desire of all mankind for creative self-expression and creative perfection. The collective unconsciousness is the result of the universal emotional past, the spherical plane of which contains all the spiritual heritage of human evolution, reborn in the brain structures of each subject.

S. Freud's concept of the existence of different levels of the unconsciousness (individual and collective ones) further determined the content of the collective unconsciousness, such as archetypes (in Jungian terminology), which form the general basis of human spiritual life. The peculiarities of archetypes are quite significant, which, in turn, create a supra-individual whole, which causes a kind of synthesis of opposites and incorrectness. Archetypes are not completely defined images, but so-called innate possibilities of personality's representations, mental experiences of the same type. They, in turn, are personified and concretized in the images of the person's imagination, in myths, legends, fairy tales, art, religion (Freud, 1992).

Thus, the individual psyche of the person archetypal content, as a rule, acquires quite different dynamic forms and actively influences the establishment of the subject of different relationships with the world, which, in turn, facilitates the process of content formation, influence the participation of the individual in creative activities of various kinds. In the history of Psychology C. Jung proposed three dominant archetypes: "Shadow", "Anima" ("Animus") and "Meaning". The scientist notes that the archetype "Shadow" crystallizes, above all, aggressive and destructive tendencies. The shadow is "the Devil", "the Satan"

of the inner world of a man, who inherited the traits of a criminal, inferior personality. This archetype in mental sense is quite opposite to the archetype of meaning (Jung, 1998).

In turn, the archetype of "Anima" is a prototype of a woman in the unconscious psyche of a man. Accordingly, "Animus" is a prototype of a man in the unconscious world of a woman. The sexual function of this archetype is interpreted by C. Jung as the archetype of life, the basis of life spontaneity, the natural beginning of a man. From the archetype of "Meaning" one can directly draw a conclusion about the spiritual, religious function of the soul. In order to characterize this archetype, C. Jung defines the term "Self", which determines the integrity of the individual's existence, the combination of consciousness and unconsciousness, also the combination of personal traits of the individual. The Self is a kind of the purpose of a person's life, because it fully reflects the combination of life scripts, which facilitate the implementation of the subject of creative activity (Jung, 1998).

C. Jung called the process of the man's acquisition of Self from the way of the formation of individuation. This process is a kind of integration of various structures of the individual's psyche around his/her "Self" through full awareness and understanding of the unconscious content. Awareness actualizes the attitude of the personal maturity, personal balance, and, consequently, – creativity. The so-called "alienation" of the unconsciousness is the dominant cause of person's deformation, the source of his/her mental illness and neurosis. C. Jung has repeatedly stated that the unconsciousness doesn't only actualize past scripts, but it is a dominant factor in creating future mental situations, ideas, new thoughts, creative discoveries. A collective unconsciousness doesn't only contain creative vitality, spontaneity, impulsiveness, but also is the dominant source of creative talent and creative inspiration (Jung, 1998).

Thus, C. Jung distinguishes two principles in the structure of the personality – subjective and creative ones, which are in antagonistic relationships with each other. Based on this, eve-

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ЗБІРНИК НАУКОВИХ ПРАЦЬ
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ry creatively gifted person can be considered as a person with a synthesis of paradoxical characteristics. On the one hand, a person creates a creative product that is personally meaningful to him/her. On the other hand, each creative product will contain frames of extra-personal human experience that creates scripts of the soul of a person who participates in unconscious creative acts. Therefore, C. Jung believed that the creative essence seems "to live and grow within a man, like a tree in the soil, from which it takes the necessary juices". Analytical Psychology calls this phenomenon "an autonomous creative complex", which appears as a separate part of the subject's soul, leading its own independent, removed from the hierarchy of consciousness, mental life and according to its energy level, its power on the rights of dominant characteristics which, in turn, mobilize Creative Personality in the whole. In turn, the autonomous subject-oriented creative complex in the structure of the individual is in no way "a Subject" to the conscious management of the subject by all its instances. This complex largely appears and disappears because it meets the desires of the individual. Thus, a creative gift, according to C. Jung, is a personal education, largely not a subject of a conscious will of a man (Jung, 1998).

Later, these ideas of C. Jung were confirmed and reflected in the theory that was differentiated between two types of creative personalities (Jung, 1998): "Arbitrary creative person" – this one that is characterized by a conscious attitude to creative activity (in the literature are cited as examples of G. Longfellow, W. Shakespeare). The other one is "Involuntary Creative Person". It is a creative personality who is characterized by the acquisition of an autonomous creative complex (figures of S. Freud, V. Mozart, I.F. Stravinskyi).

Despite the fact that the content of Psychoanalytic Theory focuses mainly on the problems of artistic creativity, the discoveries of S. Freud (Freud, 1992) and C. Jung (Jung, 1998), of course, are quite universal. There are scientific publications that update the unconsciousness and motivational components

of the subject's activity, and they are fundamentally important for our research.

Another theory of creativity is ***Compensatory one***. This theory of inferiority feelings was proposed by A. Adler according to the subject. It is based on the idea of compensation. According to Compensatory theory, people develop Science, Art and other areas of culture largely to compensate their shortcomings. Undoubtedly, A. Adler's theory has certain concrete advantages and remains one of the most important scientific achievements. To agree with this theory, we should note that compensatory mechanisms greatly influence the forms of the creativity that individuals are engaged in, but they do not explain the creative process itself and only outline it (Adler, 1997).

A. Adler's views on the problem of creative activity are quite thorough and contain other productive ideas: creative "Self", self-determination, lifestyle, life scenario, creative frames, life scripts. The basis of Adler's individual theory of the person is the belief in the creative nature of a man. Recognizing the importance of the heredity of the environment for the subjective development of the individual, A. Adler insisted that the individual is a slightly more significant creature than the product of these two influences. Neither heredity nor environment is a determinant. These moments only provide a starting point for the creative development of the individual and the impact on him/her of the world around the person, to which the individual responds using his/her creative power. Thus, creative "Self" affects only some areas of personal experience, as well as the cognitive processes of the subject: perception, memory, imagination, fantasy and dreams, which make each person an individual who self-determines, creatively builds his/her own life and becomes a real Creator of his/her personality (Adler, 1997).

Thus, theories of the formation of creative "Self" of the individual (Моляко, 2013) are dominant for the development of the Psychology of Creativity. This scientific construct, of course, embodies an active creative principle of a human life. Creative

"Self", or, in other words, "the position of the Creator" can also be considered as a motivational component in the structure of creativity of adults. Also A. Adler tried to identify the origins of Creative Energy, which, in his opinion, is the result of a long history of evolution, in which creativity doesn't take the last place. The scientist believes that people are usually endowed with a creative power from the early birth, so the creative abilities of subjects "flourish" from the early childhood, and this generally contributes to the development of social interest if we tell about the problems of creativity.

Another theory of creativity is *a Cognitive one*. This theory has been arisen in the context of J. Kelly's Theory of Theoretical Constructs, and it was called "the Theory of personal constructs". Virtually without using the terms "creativity" and "creative process", J. Kelly created a rather original theory of creativity and creative personality (Келли, 2000).

On the basic of Kelly's theoretical frames there is essentially humanistic view of a man as a scientist, a theorist, a researcher who actively interprets the world, processes of gaining the information, the ability to predict effectively and, at the same time, to interact creatively with the surrounding world. According to J. Kelly, a personality is a unique system of subjective constructs, which an individual uses to interpret his/her life experience, to create his/her own model of the world (Келли, 2000).

The scientist built his theory on the basis of the already existing at that time philosophical concept of *Constructive Alternativeism*, which, in its essence, reflects the leading principles of creativity. The constructive Alternativeism captures and provides a person with a considerable number of opportunities to choose creative, often alternative or banal concepts, which prove a need to revise, compress or replace existing stereotypes of modern interpretation of the world. J. Kelly sees the world around us as a stimulus to interpret a man as a creator, a scientist, a researcher, and a researcher perceives a human life as a constant experimental study, as a formulation of hypotheses

about our reality, a World of Life, through which the individual tries to predict and to control all the events in the surrounding world (Келли, 2000).

Human awareness of the reality is always a central subject for the interpretation of the person's creative activity. The subject understands that nothing is permanent or finished. Accordingly, any event can be understood by a person from different points of view. "...Whatever the nature or whatever, in the end, the search for truth turns out, today we are faced with the facts that can be given as many explanations as our mind can come up with" (Келли, 2000: 11). Therefore, any Picture of the World for a person is hypothetical and creative in its own way. People formulate hypotheses, test them, involving into this activity the same mental processes as scientists do in carrying out their scientific researches. Thus, J. Kelly didn't only describe for the first time the structure and the course of alternative hypothetical thinking, but he also tried to use the basic, a key to his theory of "personal constructs" to explain a human life as a purely creative experimental process. The personal construct in the theory of a scientist is an idea, a thought, a model that a person uses to understand or to interpret, to explain or to predict this experience, including creative one. This structure is a fairly stable way of understanding the subject of the surrounding reality, through which a man perceives, explains the world and creates and substantiates a consistent Picture of the World in the space of opposites (good – evil, smart – stupid, good – bad, etc.). Thus, personal constructs are bipolar and dichotomous (Келли, 2000).

In turn, the degree of individual freedom and creativity is determined by the dominant types of personal constructs used by this or that person. J. Kelly distinguishes the following types of constructs: preventive ones, also those ones which standardize individual structural elements of constructs. The other constructs are paradigmatic ones, which generalize a creative activity in general. The dominance of these constructs indicates the rigidity of thinking; constellation constructs also illustrate ste-

reotyped thinking and greatly limit individual possibilities for the subject's alternative views, providing some dominant constructs, which are open to alternatives and new personal experiences. The latter indicates the flexibility of individual thinking. So, alternative constructs correspond to the creative decisions of the individual and, according to J. Kelly, without them we would be doomed to a constant, stereotyped and completely ineffective way of understanding the surrounding reality (Келли, 2000).

Personal constructs have fairly defined some formal characteristics: a range of use and permeability-impermeability. The scale of permeability-impenetrability is such that determines the possibility of empirical modulations and the inclusion of new information into the context of existing personal constructs. The more perceptive the personal constructs are, the more it is possible to diagnose the possibility of change within these structures, the higher are the mobility, flexibility, creativity of individual decisions. The another key to the theory of creativity is Kelly's conclusion about the model of individuality, which the scientist interprets in terms of the uniqueness of the system of personal constructs of each person: "People differ from each other in a way how they interpret events" (Келли, 2000: 56). The latter largely actualizes individual creativity.

The problem of creativity in ***Humanistic Psychology*** has been arisen as an alternative to behaviorism and psychoanalysis and it is largely related to the philosophy of existentialism (Маслоу, 1982). Humanistic Psychology is characterized by an optimistic conceptual view of humanity and the nature of creativity. In itself, the essence of a man, according to psychologists in the paradigm of Humanistic Psychology, moves him to the direction of personal growth, to creativity, self-realization and self-sufficiency. This allows us to consider creativity in the context of all human life as a way of life (and not just as a way to solve specific problems), as an opportunity for freedom of choice. A Man, in turn, is an active creator of his own life (Mykhalchuk & Kryshevych, 2019).

E. Fromm defines creativity as the ability to wonder and to learn, the ability to find solutions in unusual situations, to understand the focus on discovering new things and the ability to understand deeply the acquired personally significant experience. Following the logic of this formulation, the criterion of creativity for E. Fromm is not so much the quality of the result (as a kind of a product of creative activity), but rather as processes that greatly enhance the creativity in general. Productive orientation of a man in the theory of E. Fromm is the ideal state of the person, the ultimate goal of his/her development. E. Fromm's issues claim that he considered this orientation as a response to the contradictions of human existence in a modern society (Fromm, 2007).

A. Maslow's concept is akin with these ideas. Unlike classical psychoanalysis, A. Maslow studied "the positive dimensions of human experience", mental health, conditions of full development as the ways to realize a creative potential of the individual. The theory of self-actualization of the scientist corresponds, first of all, to humanistic views in understanding the unique essence of a man, his existence, potential, self-regulation, effective functioning and positive prospects for personal development. Universal trends of individual development in A. Maslow's theory are personal growth, self-actualization, a desire for a healthy lifestyle, the search for identity and autonomy, sovereignty, etc., the desire to embody the beautiful world in its own creative achievements or wishes (Maslow, 1982: 115).

The recognition of the priority of creative abilities of each person is the most significant emphasis of Humanistic Psychology of A. Maslow. The creativity is considered by a scientist as a rather universal characteristics, an innate quality that is potentially explicit in the structure of the psyche of all people from the birth: so, trees give leaves, birds fly, people are creative. However, most people lose this ability in the process of entering the paradigm of a certain culture, which contributes to their acquisition of a certain education. A. Maslow argues that the need

for self-actualization is in the structure of each individual, but, as a rule, the person is realized by only a few percent of humanity. The reason for this, the scientist says, is that people are not aware of their potential. They are afraid to show their abilities (the emergence of so-called Ionian complex or fear of success) (Maslow, 1982).

The most important for the theory of creativity is the question of motivation, which A. Maslow described in terms of the hierarchy of needs according to the principles of priority and dominance. At the heart of the creative activity of the individual there are the highest personal needs. These are the need for self-realization, personal growth and development. Satisfying the needs that are fixed from the bottom of this hierarchy makes it possible to understand the needs at the top of the creative paradigm and according to the participation of actors in the creation of motivational domains. The higher a person is able to rise in the paradigm of this hierarchy, the more individuality, human qualities, mental health and creativity he/she is able to demonstrate (Maslow, 1982).

Conclusions

It is significant, from the standpoint of the Psychology of Creativity, A. Maslow's hypothesis about the existence of deficient motives related to biological needs and meta-needs (highest values, motives for personal growth), such as truth, beauty, perfection, justice. Based on our empirical research (Nabochuk, 2021a; Nabochuk, 2021b), we concluded that people who lived fully (individuals who were self-actualizing) had the following characteristics: the effective perception of the reality; the acceptance of oneself, other people and the surrounding nature; a desire for self-realization; focusing on the problem, absorbing one's business as an actualization of one's vocation; authenticity – open, understandable behavior in relations to themselves and to other people; the emphasis on the simplicity and naturalness of their behavior; the independence, the autonomy in judg-

ments; self-confidence, adequacy of self-esteem, the ability to actualize peak experiences; public interests; deep interpersonal relationships; initiative and flexibility in the process of decision making; democratic nature of the person's own activity; the ability to distinguish between means and goals; philosophical sense of humor; criticality and a high degree of personal reflection; direct susceptibility to a new information.

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Набочук Олександр. Продуктивне мислення та проблема творчості особистості.

Метою нашого дослідження є вивчення теорій розвитку креативності людини в парадигмі гештальт-психології, яка розрізняє творче, продуктивне та репродуктивне мислення, засноване на запам'ятовуванні, повторенні та відтворенні; розкриття основних концепцій компенсаторної теорії, за допомогою яких люди розвивають науку, мистецтво та інші галузі культури значною мірою для компенсації своїх недоліків; репрезентація іншої теорії творчості – когнітивної, за допомогою якої дослідник, який активно інтерпретує світ, аналізує процеси отримання інформації, вміє ефективно прогнозувати і водночас творчо взаємодіяти з навколишнім світом; окреслити проблему творчості в гуманістичній психології.

Методи дослідження. Для розв'язання поставлених завдань використовувалися такі теоретичні методи дослідження: категоріальний, структурно-функціональний, аналіз, систематизація, моделювання, узагальнення.

Результати дослідження. Показано, що найбільш важливим для теорії творчості є питання мотивації, яку описано в термінах ієрархії потреб за принципами пріоритету та домінування. В основі творчої діяльності особистості покладені найвищі особистісні потреби – потреба в самореалізації, зростанні та розвитку. Доведено, що задоволення потреб, які фіксуються із самого низу зазначеної ієрархії, робить можливим цілковите усвідомлення потреб, розміщених зверху творчої парадигми, та участі суб'єктів у створенні мотиваційних доменів. Показано, що чим вище людина здатна піднятися в парадигмі цієї ієрархії, тим краще вона здатна продемонструвати індивідуальність, людські якості, психічне здоров'я та здатність до творчості.

Висновки. Найбільш істотною, з позицій психології творчості, є гіпотеза А. Маслоу (1982) щодо існування у людини дефіцитарних

мотивів, пов'язаних із біологічними потребами, та мета потреб (найвищих цінностей, мотивів особистісного зростання), таких як істина, краса, досконалість, справедливість. На основі проведених емпіричних досліджень (Nabochuk, 2021) зроблено висновок, що люди, які живуть повноцінно (особистості, які самоактуалізуються), мають такі характеристики: ефективне сприйняття реальності; прийняття себе, інших людей та оточуючої природи; прагнення до самореалізації; центрація на проблемі, поглинання своєю справою як актуалізація свого покликання; автентичність – відверта, відкрита поведінка у ставленні до себе та інших; наголошення на простоті та природності своєї поведінки; незалежність, автономність у судженнях; упевненість у своїх силах, адекватність самооцінки, здатність до актуалізації вершинних переживань; суспільний інтерес; глибокі міжособистісні взаємостосунки; ініціативність та гнучкість у прийнятті рішень; демократичний характер власної діяльності; здатність до розмежування засобів та цілей; філософське почуття гумору; критичність та висока ступінь особистісної рефлексії; безпосередня сприйнятливість у ставленні до нового.

Ключові слова: продуктивне мислення, проблема творчості, створення мотиваційних доменів, самореалізація, особистісне зростання, особистісний розвиток, мотиви особистісного зростання, ефективне сприйняття дійсності.

The Causes of Logoneurosis in Childhood

Причини виникнення логоневрозу в дитячому віці

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ABSTRACT

The **purpose** of our research is to develop the problem of stuttering in the psychological aspect to reveal its genesis, to understand the behavior of people who stutter in the process of communication, to identify their individual psychological characteristics.

Research methods. The research methods were the method of observation and the empirical study of patients. The place of organizing the empirical stage of our research was the psychiatric hospital № 1 in Kyiv. With the help of clinical, pathopsychological and anamnestic methods 86 children at the age 3-12 years old (the average age is 8 ± 0.5 years old) with logoneurosis in anamnesis were diagnosed.

The results of the research. The pathogenesis of stuttering is studied and those who stuttered are noted to have various autonomic changes. 84% of people who stuttered are considered to have autonomic dystonia. Among 98% of people who suffered from logoneurosis, 20% had a high intracranial pressure and extrapyramidal disorders. It is studied that those people who stuttered were born with vasoneurotics. It was quite objectively showed a change in the neurovegetative response in those ones who stuttered during seizures: in 100% of cases there was dilation of the pupils (mydriasis), while in a case of people who spoke correctly, the width of the pupils during speech did not change or there was some narrowing (miosis).

Conclusions. The reasons of logoneurosis are: neuropathic burden of parents (nervous, infectious and somatic diseases that weaken or disrupt the functions of the central nervous system); neuropathic features of a stuttering person (night terrors, enuresis, irritability, emotional tension); constitutional predisposition (diseases of the autonomic nervous system and increased susceptibility to higher nervous activity, its special predisposition to mental trauma); hereditary burden; brain damage in different periods of the personal development.

Key words: logoneurosis, the causes of logoneurosis, neuropathic burden of parents, neuropathic features of a stuttering person, constitutional predis-

position, hereditary burden, brain damage in different periods of the personal development.

Introduction

Some researchers (Huang, Oquendo, Friedman, Greenhill, Brodsky, Malone, Khait & Mann, 2003) doing their empirical researches on logoneurosis, explained it by various deviations in the activities of the peripheral and central departments of the speech apparatus. Thus, scientists (Lin, Chen, Chan & Hsu, 2019) associated the mechanism of logoneurosis with a lack of cerebral responses to the muscular system of the speech organs, such as with the activity of the central nervous system. Other researchers (Hardeman, Medina & Kozhimannil, 2016) explained logoneurosis as a result of distortion of sound pronunciation (rotacism, lambdacism, sigmatism), organic damage to the vocal apparatus or defective brain function. He was the first one who had noted the focus of acoustic attention stuttering on his language. Some other scientists (Tabachnikov, Mishyiev, Kharchenko, Osukhovskaya, Mykhalchuk, Zdoryk, Komplienko & Salden, 2021) considered logoneurosis as a certain contracture of the muscles of the vocal apparatus, which occured due to its lack of innervation.

A lot of researchers (Mykhalchuk, Pelekh, Kharchenko, Ivashkevych, Ivashkevych, Prymachok, Hupavtseva & Zukow, 2020) have considered logoneurosis as a functional disorder in the field of speech, convulsive neurosis. Some others (Onufriieva, Chaikovska, Kobets, Pavelkiv & Melnychuk, 2020) defined logoneurosis as purely mental suffering, which was expressed by convulsive movements in the speech apparatus, as psychosis.

It is important to develop the problem of stuttering in the psychological aspect to reveal its genesis, to understand the behavior of people who stutter in the process of communication, to identify their individual psychological characteristics, that is **a purpose** of our research. To provide the empirical research of such people, who have logoneurosis, the research of their attention, memory, thinking, psychomotor skills have shown that they have changed the structure of mental activity, its self-re-

gulation. These people are less likely to perform activities that require a high level of automation (and, consequently, rapid involvement in activities), but differences in productivity between stutterers and healthy people disappear as soon as the activity can be performed at any level. The exception in psychomotor activity is: if in a case of healthy children psychomotor acts are performed largely automatically and do not require arbitrary regulation of the behavior, then for those ones, who stutter, regulation is a complex task that requires arbitrary control.

Methods of the research

The place of organizing the empirical stage of our research was the psychiatric hospital № 1 in Kyiv. With the help of clinical, pathopsychological and anamnestic methods 86 children at the age of 3-12 years old (the average age is 8 ± 0.5 years old) with logoneurosis in anamnesis were studied. The research method was empirical study of patients.

The examination of children who stutter was carried out comprehensively (a speech therapist, a neurologist, a psychologist) with the involvement of other specialists: a pediatrician, a therapist, a psychiatrist, an ophthalmologist, an otolaryngologist and others.

The content of the survey includes the study of anamnestic information, pedagogical, psychological and medical documentation. From the conversation with the parents, the speech therapist finds out the most significant events that took place in the family, and in this case he/she clarifies the features of general, motor and language development of the child.

The main points of the prenatal period were assessed: the mother's age (less than or more than 35 years) at the moment of the birth of the child, neuro-mental health, diseases of a mother, a father, pregnancy. Data on the health of a father and a mother before the birth of the child allows us to identify possible abnormalities in his/her somatic and neuropsychological state. Identifying adverse factors of fetal development will help us to deter-

mine their indirect impact on the further language development of a child.

Identified deviations, various negative facts of natal and postnatal periods of the child's development are analyzed and evaluated by specialists in order to the most fully studying of the etiology and pathogenesis of stuttering.

In the conversations with parents, information about the child's language development was clarified: when there were the first sounds, babbles, the first words, phrases; what rate of speech the child uses, whether there were any peculiarities of his/her behavior in the moments of speech communication with others. It is important to learn about the child's language environment (whether the adults around the child stutter, whether the parents or people close to the child speak very quickly).

Our attention was paid to the study of the methods of upbringing a child in the family: the attitude of adults to child (whether the adult indulges in whims or, conversely, there is unbalanced, abrupt treatment, physically punishes, intimidates); assistance in the formation of the child's correct language (whether there are no overloads in learning complex texts) or, conversely, almost complete lack of control over the development of the child's correct pronunciation, grammatically correct speech communication, etc.

We took into account that the speech therapist should be primarily interested in when stuttering occured, the first signs of it. How outwardly was it expressed? What are the possible reasons for it? As it developed, what features of the manifestations attracted the attention of parents: whether there are concomitant motor disorders (convulsions, tapping, shaking his head, etc.) or speech defects (extra words, sounds, pronunciation of certain sounds and words on the breath, etc.)? How does the child manifest himself/herself and whether it depends on the situation or the people around the child, on the different types of activities? How does a child speak alone (for example, with his/her toys)? What are the periods of deterioration and

improvement of the language? How does the child relate to his/her language deficiency (notices, does not notice, is indifferent, worried, ashamed, hides, afraid to speak, etc.)? Did the parents ask for help: where, when, what was recommended, what were the results?

The information about the peculiarities of stuttering allows in each case to choose the main form of diagnostic, therapeutic and pedagogical, therapeutic and corrective and therapeutic and propaedeutic actions. The presence of concomitant motor impairments of the child indicates the need for motor exercises, as well as a series of physical therapy classes.

The peculiarities of psychological manifestations of a stuttering child require the speech therapist to provide this plan of action for the patient: to divert the child's attention from fixing his/her thoughts on his/her defect, to restructure his/her attitude to himself/herself, his/her language, to teach the patient to hear his/her correct language.

Results and their discussion

By the beginning of the twentieth century all the diversity of understanding of the mechanisms of logoneurosis could have been reduced to *three theoretical directions*. Let us show them.

Logoneurosis as a spasmodic coordination of neurosis arising from the irritating weakness of speech centers (*the component of coordination*). This component was clearly formulated in the issues of scientists (Tabachnikov, Mishyiev, Drevitskaya, Kharchenko, Osukhovskaya, Mykhalchuk, Salden & Aymedov, 2021), who wrote that logoneurosis was a sudden violation of the continuity of articulation, caused by a convulsion that occurred in one of the departments of the speech apparatus as a physiological whole. Proponents of this theory initially emphasized the innate irritability of the apparatus that controlled the component of coordination. Later, the researchers explained logoneurosis in the light of neuroticism. They thought that logoneurosis was a convulsive spasm.

Logoneurosis is an associative disorder of a psychological nature of the person. This direction was put forward by some scientists (Khwaja, 2012). The other psychological approach to understanding the mechanisms of logoneurosis (Kharchenko & Vashchenko, 2021) has been further developed.

Logoneurosis is a subconscious manifestation that is developed on the basis of mental trauma, various conflicts of a man with the environment. Proponents of this theory were scientists (Onufriieva & Ivashkevych Ed., 2021), who believed that stuttering, on the one hand, showed the desire of the individual to avoid any possibility of confrontation with others, and on the other hand – to break the sympathy of others through such demonstrative suffering.

Thus, the idea that logoneurosis is a complex psychophysical disorder is becoming more and more definite. According to some researchers (Kharchenko & Kurytsa, 2021), it is based on *physiological disorders*, and psychological manifestations have been taken on a recurring nature (Brodsky, Oquendo, Ellis, Haas, Malone & Mann, 2001). Other researchers (Grunebaum, Oquendo, Burke, Ellis, Echavarria, Brodsky, Malone & Mann, 2003) considered psychological features to be primary, and physiological manifestations as a consequence of these psychological shortcomings. In a scientific field there have been many attempts to consider stuttering as a neurosis of expectation, a neurosis of fear, a neurosis of inferiority, an obsessive-compulsive disorder.

Also the mechanism of stuttering began to be considered, based on the teachings of I. Pavlov on the higher nervous activity of a man and, in particular, on the mechanism of neurosis (Hayden, Farrar & Peiris, 2014). At the same time, some researchers considered stuttering as a main symptom of neurosis (Corbitt, Malone, Haas & Mann, 1996), others – as a special form of it (Kharchenko & Komarnitska, 2021). But in both cases, these complex mechanisms of the development of logoneurosis are identical to the mechanisms of the development of neuroses in general. Stuttering, like other neuroses, occurs due to vari-

ous causes, causing overstrain of the processes of excitation and inhibition; logoneurosis is the formation of a pathological conditioned reflex. Stuttering is not a symptom or syndrome, but a disease of the central nervous system as a whole.

Disorders in the relationships of nervous processes (overexertion of their strength and mobility) in the cerebral cortex play a primary role in the occurrence of logoneurosis. Nervous breakdown in the cortex of the large hemispheres may be due to, on the one hand, the state of the nervous system, its readiness to deviate from normal state. On the other hand, nervous breakdown may be due to adverse exogenous factors, the importance of which in the genesis of stuttering was pointed out by scientists (Villar, Blanco & del Campo, 2015). A reflection of a nervous breakdown is a disorder of a particularly vulnerable area of higher nervous activity of a child – his/her speech, which is manifested in impaired coordination of speech movements with the phenomena of arrhythmia and convulsions. Violation of cortical activity is primary and leads to distortion of induction relations between the cortex and subcortex, to the violation of those conditioned-reflex mechanisms that regulate the activity of subcortical formations. Due to the conditions under which the normal regulation of the cortex is distorted, there are negative changes in the activity of the striopalidar system. Its role in the mechanism of stuttering is quite important, because normally this system is responsible for the rate and rhythm of respiration, according to the tone of the articulatory muscles. Logoneurosis does not occur under conditions of organic changes in the streopalidum, but in the case of dynamic deviations of its functions. These views reflect the understanding of the mechanism of neurotic stuttering as a kind of disorder of the cortex.

As for young children, according to our research, the mechanism of stuttering should be explained from the standpoint of *reactive neurosis* and *developmental neurosis. Reactive developmental neurosis* is understood as an acute violation of higher nervous activity. In the case of developmental neurosis, the for-

mation of pathological stereotypes occurs gradually, in adverse environmental conditions it was presented by irritation, suppression, decline. Developmental stuttering occurs at the early age against the background of delayed "physiological inconsistency" in the transition to complex forms of speech, to speech phrases. Sometimes it is a result of language underdevelopment of different genesis. Thus, we call logoneurosis a disease based on language difficulties associated with the design of more or less complex expressions that require a phrase to express people themselves. Speech difficulties can be caused by delays in the language development, by transition to another language, by cases of pathological personality development with underdevelopment of the emotional and volitional sphere, a need to express a complex opinion.

Also we consider stuttering as a language underdevelopment, sees its essence in the predominant violation of the communicative function of speech. The study of the general language development of a child, the state of his/her phonetic and lexical-grammatical development, the ratio of active and passive language, the conditions under which stuttering increases or decreases, confirms our observations. Speech difficulties, as we investigated, depends on different conditions: on the one hand, on the type of nervous system, on the other one – on the conversational environment, on the general and speech modes. The first manifestations of stuttering are characterized by affective tension, which accompanies the unbearable mental operation of finding words, grammatical forms, speech forms. From the physiological standpoint of the analysis of the speech apparatus we conclude that the phenomenon of stuttering can be defined as a violation of continuity in the selection of sound elements in compiling a geometric algorithm of words, as a violation of self-regulation in speech control at the syllabic level.

Along with neurotic logoneurosis, other forms of speech began to be studied with the appearance of the language after alalia and aphasia; post-concussion stuttering; logoneurosis of

oligophrenics; in a case of patients with various psychoses; with severe speech disorders and delayed speech development; in a case of organic logoneurosis. Thus, we distinguish two forms of organic stuttering: the first one by the type of cortical aphasia, when the systems of associative fibers are disrupted and the internal language suffers; the second one is a kind of motor insufficiency of the type of dysarthria and it is associated with the defeat of the crusts. The problem of organic logoneurosis still remains unresolved. Some researchers believe that stuttering is generally included into the category of organic diseases of the central nervous system and disorders of the brain substrate directly affect the language areas of the brain or related systems. Also we consider stuttering as a predominantly neurotic disorder, considering the organic disorders themselves as the "ground" for disruption of higher nervous activity and speech function.

We have studied the pathogenesis of stuttering and we noted those who stuttered had various autonomic changes. 84% of people who stuttered had autonomic dystonia. Among 98% of children who suffered from logoneurosis, 20% had a high intracranial pressure and extrapyramidal disorders. We believed that those people who stuttered were born with vasoneurotics. It is quite objectively showed a change in the neurovegetative response in those ones who stuttered during seizures: in 100% of cases there was dilation of the pupils (mydriasis), while in a case of people who spoke correctly, the width of the pupils during speech did not change or there was some narrowing (miosis).

In severe cases disorders of the autonomic nervous system, we mean self-stuttering, comes into the background, while the person is dominated by fears, anxiety, stress, distrust, general tension, prone to tremors, sweating, redness. In childhood those ones who stutter have sleep disorders: trembling before falling asleep, fatigue, restless shallow dreams, night terrors. Older stuttering children tend to associate all these unpleasant experiences with speech disorders. The thought of his/her disorder

is stable in accordance with the constantly disturbed state of the children's health. Against the background of general excitability, instability of physical conditions and constant doubts, speech is usually only improved for a short time. There is often a lack of focus and perseverance in stuttering classes. Such individuals' results are underestimated, as improvements in the speech only slightly alleviate their general well-being.

In the 70's in Psychiatry clinical criteria we proposed to distinguish between neurotic and neurosis-like disorders, and there was a tendency to differentiate between stuttering into neurotic and neurosis-like forms. According to the results of our empirical research we consider the mechanism of stuttering not only from clinical and physiological, but also from neurophysiological, psychological, psycholinguistic positions.

The results of our neurophysiological research of logoneurosis in the organization of speech activity show, that in a case of people who stutter while speaking the dominant left hemisphere can not perform its role firmly enough, which leads to its imbalance in relations to the right hemisphere. Provisions on the relationships between stuttering and vague speech dominance are confirmed by our empirical data.

Our researches of the organization of the function of vision in stutterers have shown that these people are characterized by atypical lateralization of speech and visual functions of the psyche. The revealed anomalies can be considered as a consequence of shortcomings of bilateral regulation of visual processes and deviations in interhemispheric relations. We believe that those people who stutter are more inert of mental processes than those ones who normally speak. They are characterized by phenomena of perseverance associated with the mobility of the nervous system.

There are researches of traits of individuals who stutter, both through clinical observations and with the use of experimental psychological techniques. With their help, anxious and trusting nature, suspicion, phobic states were revealed; insecu-

rity, isolation, predisposition to depression; passive-defensive and defensive-aggressive reactions to the defect.

It is worth considering the mechanisms of stuttering from the standpoint of psycholinguistics. This aspect of the study involves finding out at what stage of speech production convulsions occur, when a person begins to stutter. There are the following phases of *language communication*:

1) the presence of the need for speech or communicative intention;

2) the birth of the idea of the expression in internal speech;

3) sound realization of the statement.

In different structures of language activity, these phases are different in their completeness and duration, and do not always unambiguously follow from each other. But there is a constant comparison of plans and accomplishments. We believe that stuttering occurs when a person is ready to speak in the presence of the speaker's communicative intention, speech program and basic ability to speak normally. In the three-member model of speech generation, we propose to include a phase of readiness for this process, in which the stuttering mechanism "breaks" the whole utterance mechanism, all its systems: generator, resonator and energy. There are convulsions, which are also manifested later in the fourth, a final stage.

Considering different points of view on the problem of stuttering, we can conclude that the mechanisms of logoneurosis are heterogeneous. In some cases, stuttering is *a complex neurotic disorder*, which is the result of disorganization of nervous processes in the root of the brain, impaired interaction of the cortical subcortex, a disorder of a single autoregulated rate of speech movements (voice, breathing, articulation). In other cases, *logoneurosis is a complex neurotic disorder* caused by a fixed reflex of incorrect speech, which initially arose due to speech difficulties of various origins.

In the third case, *logoneurosis is a complex, mostly functional speech disorder* caused by general and linguistic dysonto-

genesis and disharmonious of person's development. Fourthly, *logoneurosis is a mechanism of stuttering* that can be explained by organic changes in the central nervous system. Other interpretations are also possible. But in any case it is necessary to take into account the violations of physiological and psychological nature, the peculiarities of their combination and so on.

Our research shows that the causes of stuttering are such emotions, as: shame, fear, anger, stress, severe blows to the head, serious illness, imitation of incorrect speech of a father and a mother. We also emphasize that stuttering is a characteristics of childhood, when the development of speech is not yet complete. We'd like to attribute the decisive role to heredity, considering other psychological and biological causes (fear, shock, infectious diseases, imitation) only as impulses that upset the balance of language mechanisms that are still unstable for children. We sought the cause of stuttering in the wrong methods of upbringing a child in the family and considered harmful both severe and fragile upbringing.

We have identified the wrong upbringing of children as the causes of stuttering; asthenia of the body due to infectious diseases; imitation, infections, falls, fear, stress, left-handedness in retraining. Thus, the etiology of stuttering emphasizes the combination of exogenous and endogenous factors. Currently, there are two groups of causes of logoneurosis: those ones that were attracted, and the reasons that produced logoneurosis. However, some etiological factors can both be contributed to the development of stuttering, and directly caused it.

Adverse conditions, which facilitate logoneurosis, are:
– *physically weakened children*;
– *age features of brain activity*; large hemispheres of the brain are mainly formed by the 5th year of life, by the same age functional asymmetry is formed in the brain. Language function is ontogenetically the most differentiated, especially fragile. Moreover, its slower maturation in a case of boys compared with girls caused greater instability of their nervous system;

– *accelerated development of speech* (3-4 years old), when the child's communicative, cognitive and regulatory functions are developed rapidly under the influence of communication with adults. Many children during this period are characterized by a repetition of syllables and words (iterations), which has a physiological nature;

– *hidden mental imbalance of a child*, increased reactivity as a result of not quite normal relationships with others;

– *a conflict between the peculiarities of the environment* and the degree of its awareness;

– *lack of positive emotional contacts between adults and children*. There is emotional tension, which is often externally accompanied by stuttering;

– *insufficient development of motility, sense of rhythm, facial expressions and articulatory movements*.

In the presence of one or another of these adverse conditions any extraordinary stimulus is enough to cause a nervous breakdown and stuttering. In the group of *production causes* there are anatomical and physiological, mental and social reasons.

Anatomical and *physiological causes are*: physical diseases with encephalitic consequences; injuries – such as intrauterine, natural, often with asphyxia, concussion; organic disorders of the brain, which can damage the mechanisms of the subcortex, regulatory movements; exhaustion or fatigue of the nervous system as a result of intoxication and other diseases that weaken the central speech apparatus: measles, typhoid, rickets, worms, especially whooping cough, diseases of internal secretion, metabolism; diseases of the nose, pharynx and larynx; imperfection of the sound apparatus in cases of dyslalia, dysarthria and speech delay.

Mental and *social causes of logoneurosis are*: short-term, one-time mental trauma (fear, stress); long-term (longitudinal) mental trauma, which means improper upbringing in the family: spoilage, imperative upbringing, unequal upbringing, upbringing of "the exemplary" child; chronic conflict experiences, long-

term negative emotions in the form of persistent mental stress or unresolved, constantly fixed conflict situations and situations of cognitive dissonance (internal conflict); acute severe mental trauma, strong, sudden shocks that cause acute reactions of affect: a state of horror, excessive joy; incorrect speech formation in childhood: speech on the breath, rapid speech, speech disorders, rapid nervous speech of parents; overloading young children with language material; age-inappropriate complication of language material and thinking (abstract concepts, complex phrase construction); polyglossia: simultaneous mastery of different languages at the early age, which can cause stuttering, usually in any one language; imitating another stuttering person.

There are two forms of such mental induction: passive one – the child involuntarily begins to stutter; the active form – a child copies the language and stutters; retraining of left-handedness. Constant reminders, requirements can disrupt the higher nervous activity of the child and bring him/her to a neurotic and psychopathic state with the onset of stuttering; wrong attitude to the child from the side of a teacher: excessive severity, inability to adjust the student to a positive perception of themselves. All these may also be a trigger for the emergence of logoneurosis.

Conclusions

So, *the reasons of logoneurosis* are:

– *neuropathic burden of parents* (nervous, infectious and somatic diseases that weaken or disrupt the functions of the central nervous system);

– *neuropathic features of a stuttering person* (night terrors, enuresis, irritability, emotional tension);

– *constitutional predisposition* (diseases of the autonomic nervous system and increased susceptibility to higher nervous activity, its special predisposition to mental trauma);

– *hereditary burden* (stuttering developed on the basis of congenital weakness of the speech apparatus, which can be inherited as a recessive trait). The role of exogenous factors must

be taken into account when the tendency to stutter is combined with adverse environmental effects;

– *brain damage in different periods of the personal development under the influence of many harmful factors*: intrauterine and birth injuries, asphyxia; postnatal factors, such as: infectious, traumatic and metabolic-trophic disorders in various diseases in the childhood.

These causes cause various pathological changes in the somatic and mental spheres of the person, lead to delayed speech development, speech disorders and contribute to the development of stuttering.

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Метою статті є розробити проблему заїкання в психологічному аспекті для розкриття його генезису, для розуміння поведінки людей, які заїкаються, в процесі комунікації, для виявлення їх індивідуально-психологічних особливостей.

Методи дослідження. Використано такі методи дослідження: спостереження та метод емпіричного дослідження хворих. Місцем організації емпіричного етапу нашого дослідження стала психіатрична лікарня № 1 м. Києва. За допомогою клініко-патопсихологічних та анамнестичних методів було обстежено 86 дітей віком 3-12 років (середній вік 8 ± 0,5 року) з логоневрозом в анамнезі.

Результати дослідження. В дослідженні зазначено, що діти, які заїкаються, мають різні вегетативні зміни. Доведено, що у 84% дітей, що заїкаються, є вегетативна дистонія. З 98% осіб, які страждають на логоневроз, 20% мають підвищений внутрішньочерепний тиск та екстрапірамідальні порушення. Показано, що, як правило, діти, що заїкаються, народжуються вазоневротиками. В нашому дослідженні досить об'єктивно показано зміну нейровегетативної реакції у тих дітей, що заїкаються, під час нападів: у 100% випадків у них спостерігається розширення зіниць (мидріоз), тоді як у людей, які правильно говорять, ширина зіниць під час мови не змінюється або наступає деяке їхнє звуження (міоз).

Висновки. Доведено, що до причин логоневрозу відносяться наступні: невропатична обтяженість батьків (нервові, інфекційні і соматичні захворювання, що послаблюють або дезорганізують функції центральної

нервової системи); невропатичні особливості людини, що заїкається (нічні страхи, енурез, підвищена дратівливість, емоційна напруженість); конституціональна схильність (захворювання вегетативної нервової системи і підвищений рівень сприйнятливості вищої нервової діяльності, її особлива схильність до психічних травм); спадкова обтяженість; поразка головного мозку в різні періоди розвитку.

The Process of Facilitative Learning as the Basis of the Humanization of Education

Процес фасилітативного навчання як основа гуманізації освіти

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ABSTRACT

The purpose *of our research is: to develop (by the type of speech reaction) four types of transformation utterances of facilitative interaction at lessons, which depend on the processes of internal interference and conceptual correlation of the definition "facilitative learning as the basis of the humanization of education"; to organize the pilot research of facilitative interaction of pupils at the English lesson (form 5-A, 42 pupils, school № 12, Rivne) during 2020-2021 years.*

Methods of the research. *The following theoretical methods of the research were used to solve the tasks formulated in the article: a categorical method, structural and functional methods, the methods of the analysis, systematization, modeling, and generalization. Also in our research we used the empirical method of the pilot experiment.*

The results of the research. *In order to test our hypothesis about facilitative activity of pupils, its productivity or non-productivity, we compared the results of respondents' cognitive activities when they worked alone and in the case of the implementation of facilitative activity in the presence of observers. It is proved that these two indicators were correlated again after some training (when cognitive activity was performed several times). While testing our hypothesis, it was found the most accurate physiological indicator to register changes in the level of arousal of the personality. A similar research was organized the next month. In this research, pupils performed appropriate tasks to actualize psychomotor skills in the presence of observers. The results showed that the presence of ten passive observers during the mastery of a highly complex of mental and psychomotor skill worsened the activity of respondents significantly at the beginning of the empirical study compared to training alone.*

Conclusions. It was proved, that C. Rogers' ideas on the importance of the process of facilitative learning, the role of the teacher, his/her facilitative relationships with pupils were the basis for the humanization of education abroad, and the main empirical research was provided in the 60-70's. The results of the facilitation training, which involved thousands of teachers and tens of thousands of primary, secondary and college schoolchildren in England and the United States, suggested that pupils' personal development had also been improved: their self-esteem had been improved, cognitive abilities had been developed, which facilitated the improvement of physical and mental health, performance and the activity of schoolchildren.

C. Rogers' humanistic ideas, which contribute to the growth of educational potential, are especially important for the democratization of the Ukrainian school and our society. In the theory of C. Rogers we often see implied system of certain ideas about a man and his/her essence, or a special method of psychotherapy, or just a set of carefully designed techniques for correcting interpersonal relationships.

Key words: facilitative learning, the humanization of education, cognitive activity, physical and mental health, productive facilitative activity of pupils, non-productive facilitative activity of pupils.

Introduction

While analyzing the concepts of *education, teaching, learning (in Ukrainian «навчання», «викладання» і «вчення»),* C. Rogers emphasizes that in today's world of constant changes the emphasis in the learning process has to be shifted from teaching to facilitation as a manifestation of a new thinking, as a real reform of education, which can not be achieved by improving skills, knowledge and abilities of teachers, nor through the development and the implementation in the learning process of experimental programs and modern technical learning tools (Rogers, 1983).

In the psychological paradigm (Гончарук & Онуфрієва, 2018) facilitation is seen as stimulating the development of people's consciousness, their independence, freedom of choice, rather than trying to make them dependent on public opinion. Thus, facilitation is traditionally analyzed as a change in the

effectiveness of the subjects of educational activities. Freedom does not mean permissiveness and release from professional responsibilities. If leading professionals, leaders in education are able to realize their role as facilitators, the educational paradigm will potentially change.

The discussion of the terminological problem of the definition of "facilitation" is indicated by the requirements formulated by L. Onufriieva & Ed. Ivashkevych. Scientists believe that, first of all, the facilitative interaction itself should be objective and holistic in a systemic and functional sense. Secondly, this term should be taken unambiguously: to denote one phenomenon that has a fairly clear paradigm. It is unacceptable to denote several phenomena by one term and, conversely, it is undesirable when one phenomenon is denoted by several terms. The existence of synonyms is sometimes justified, and in some cases inevitable. Thirdly, the etymological aspects of facilitative interaction should be considered. Fourthly, it is necessary, if it is possible, to take into account the traditions formed in Psychology. Fifthly, the procedural and productive aspects of facilitative interaction should be separated. Sixthly, the terminology of related sciences needs to be taken into account as an effort to avoid interdisciplinary contradictions (Onufriieva & Ivashkevych, Ed., 2021).

Thus, the term of "facilitative activity" in the paradigm of psychomotor learning is quite ambiguous, because it has a double meaning. Activity is usually seen as purposeful, deliberate behavior, that is observed for a relatively short (limited) period of time (Михальчук & Онуфрієва, 2020). However, this term has another, more special meaning for behavior, which this definition had been received after thorough training of respondents, when additional training led to only a slight improvement in a movement; that is, the right movements had become dominant (Оллпорт, 1998). Learning is seen as a continuous process of changing behavior during training. In terms of the theory of facilitative learning it is a process of changing the dominant action

in the direction from direct to indirect change (Івашкевич, Ер. & Комарніцька, 2020).

In our research, facilitation refers to *a person-centered approach*, having been expressed in a global sense of trust of a person, by the tendency to personal growth, the development and the realization of his/her individual potential. Facilitation is a key concept of non-directive, client-centered or person-centered psychotherapy developed by C. Rogers. To understand the essence of facilitative interaction, the main principles of C. Rogers theory are: a belief into the original, constructive and creative wisdom of a man; a belief into the content of socio-personal nature, which implies the actualization of the constructive personal potential of the individual in the processes of interpersonal communication; the main concepts are "necessary and sufficient conditions" of interpersonal communication, which contribute to the development of the person and ensure the implementation of constructive personal changes ("unconditional positive perception of another person", "active empathic listening", "congruent self-expression in the process of communication"); the ideas about real stages of the group process that takes place in certain social and personality-centered conditions (Rogers, 1983).

For our research it is very important to distinguish between *two types of learning*: unconscious and conscious ones. The first type of education is so called "impersonal", intellectualized, evaluated from the outside, with the aim of mastering the pupils' knowledge. Learning of the second type, on the contrary, is self-initiated, personally meaningful, such one that it has an impact on the individual as a whole, it is evaluated by the pupil to ensure mastery of meanings (or so called meaning frames) as the main elements of personally meaningful experience. The main tasks of the teacher are to stimulate and to initiate (promote) absolutely conscious learning.

The purpose of our research is: to develop (by the type of speech reaction) four types of transformation utterances of facilitative interaction at the lessons, which depend on the processes of internal interference and conceptual correlation of the

definition of "facilitative learning as the basis of the humanization of education"; to organize the pilot research of facilitative interaction of pupils at the English lesson (form 5-A, 42 pupils, school № 12, Rivne) during 2020-2021 years.

Methods of the research

The following theoretical methods of the research were used to solve the tasks formulated in the article: a categorical method, structural and functional methods, the methods of the analysis, systematization, modeling, generalization. Also in our research we used the empirical method of pilot experiment. In our experimental research 42 pupils from the form 5-A of the school № 12 in Rivne were participated.

The results of the research

On the basis of our pilot research of facilitative interaction of pupils at the English lessons we developed (by the type of speech reaction) *four types of transformation utterances of facilitative interaction* at the English lessons, which depend on the processes of internal interference and conceptual correlation:

1) informative facilitative interaction;
2) negative facilitative interaction;
3) inductive facilitative interaction;
4) emotional by nature facilitative interaction.

Here are the examples *of four types of transformation utterances of facilitative interaction* at the English lessons:

1. Informative facilitative interaction:

a) message information:

– Jane speaks Ukrainian fairly well.
– Her brother speaks Ukrainian, too;

b) whispering, refinement:

– *I've seen this film.*
– *Have you really seen this film?*

c) advice:

– *I'd like to become a teacher.*
– *Wouldn't you like to become an agronomist instead?*

    d) confirmation:
        – *I hear Alec is going to Kyiv.*
        – *That's right, he's going there next week;*
    e) promise:
        – *Mind you don't lose this book.*
        – *I promise I shan't lose it.*
    f) reference to someone:
        – *I'm planning to enter a university after school.*
        – *Your brother told me you were planning to enter a university.*

2. Negative facilitative interaction:
    a) disagreement:
        – *It's good to set up for a trip on Sunday.*
        – *I don't think it's good to set up for a trip on Sunday (that day).*
    b) contrasting:
        – *Let's go to the Black Sea this summer.*
        – *No, let's go to the Altai mountains instead.*
    c) denial:
        – *You missed two lessons last week.*
        – *But I didn't miss any lesson last week.*

3. Inductive facilitative interaction:
    a) order:
        – *I've been at school, not at the river.*
        – *Go and tell your father where you have been.*
    b) request:
        – *Could one of you open the window, please?*
        – *Yes, of course. Pete, open the window, please.*
    c) invitation:
        – *All the tourists generally visit this castle.*
        – *Look here: why not visit this castle tomorrow?*

4. Emotional by nature facilitative interaction:
    a) doubt:
        – *I can carry it.*
        – *I doubt you can carry it. It's too heavy.*

b) surprise:

– *I saw Nick yesterday.*
– *Did you really see him? He isn't in town.*

c) uncertainty:

– *He will come at six.*
– *He may come at this time but I'm not sure.*

As we know, the question-answer is a partial dialogical unity in the real acts of communication. Questions are always communicative, they have the aim to facilitate the partner of communication and require a response from him/her. Thus, a question is simultaneously a call to a speech reaction. In the practice of teaching foreign languages, questions may be both conditional and real-motivated. So, if the supervisor asks the pupils: *Why did not your father come to the university to see me as I asked you on Monday, Sydorenko?* (the teacher really asked the pupil's parent to come to school), then this is a real question, and a specific answer should be given.

But at the lesson the teacher can ask a lot of other questions, for example: *What color is the blackboard? How many doors are there in the classroom? What is Petrenko doing now? (Etc.)* The answers to these questions are known to those who asks, since they are related to reality. These questions are communicative only in form. In context they are conditional, representing only the form of educational actions, which lead to automatic replicas in the process of dialogical communication.

Here are the examples of the main structural and semantic groups of questions that stimulate the expression of teaching and training replicas (pupils' answers are free, and they use the verbal fragment of questions). *All these questions are facilitative by their nature.*

Questions on the topic "Our School":

– *What kind of the school is ours? (It's a newly-built school, a three- storeyed house).*

– *How many classrooms are there in it?*

– *How many windows are there in this room?*

− How many pupils are there in this class?

Questions on the topic "Weather", "Dates":
− What is the weather like today?
− What season is it now?
− What's the date today?
−What day is it today?

Questions about "My favorite subject at school":
− What subjects are taught now?
− What exams do you take at the end of the year?
− What foreign languages are you taught?
− What is the most difficult subject at school program?

Questions about pupils' actions:
− What are you doing now?
− What are your classmates doing now?
− Is Petrenko standing near the blackboard?
− Why is he standing at the blackboard?

Questions about the theme "Clothes":
− What do we put on when it's hot (cold, frosty, raining, etc.)?
− When do we wear a raincoat?
− What's Ann wearing now?
− Do we wear a fur cap in summer?

Questions regarding occupations of a person, as well as according to the subjects that are used:
− What do we call a person who teachers pupils?
− What do we call an object on which pupils write with chalk?
− What do we call a specialist who treats pupils who are ill (consults the sick person)?

Questions about objects' descriptions:
− What is this object (thing) made of?
− What colour is it?
− What are its dimensions (Is it big or small)?
− Is it heavy or light?
− Can a boy of 14 carry it?

Questions regarding the use of colloquial formulas:
− When do we say "Hello!"?

– *Whom do we greet saying "Hello!"?*
– *When do we say "Thank you"?*
– *When do we use the word "please"?*

The main types of questions are known to be general, alternative and special one. The simplest answers are to common questions. For educational purposes pupils are often offered to answer full sentences (after incomplete answers):

Teacher:
– *Is our classroom small?*
– *Does this classroom face the shop (a yard)?*

A pupil:
– *No, it isn't. It isn't small (It's large).*
– *Yes, it is. It's small.*
– *Yes, it is. It faces the university yard.*
– *No, it isn't. It doesn't face the shop (yard) (It faces the street).*

The reliance on pupils' ability to respond to questions and to respond to empirical statements, as well as non-standard forms expressing confirmation or denial (*of course, surely, by no means, that's right, etc.*) is of great importance.

– *Do you often take books from the library?*
– *How often?*
– *Do you often go in for sport?*
– *What sport do you go in for?*
– *Surely (yes, rather). (Not very often).*
– *Once a fortnight. (Once or twice a month).*
– *Yes.*
– *Swimming.*

Alternative questions partly contain an answer themselves:
– *Must we do this exercise orally or in a writing form?*
– *We must do it orally.*

Pupils can give both laconic or elliptical (incomplete) answers for special questions, but detailed explanations:
– *What do we usually put on when it rains?*
– *A raincoat.*

– As a rule, a raincoat.
– We put on a raincoat.
– When it rains we usually put on a raincoat.

As it was noted above, replicas in the usual dialogue are not always correlated with each other as a question – an answer. In a free conversation the partners react productively to such statements as assertion (assessment, judgment, statement, informing, aphorism), invitation, expression of emotions and others. But is it possible in high school to teach students more or less widely to speak in response to a replica that does not contain the requirement (an invitation) to speak? Students themselves create the content of the statement and, what is especially important, they freely choose the form of its expression (relying, of course, on the previously learned language material).

As practice shows, pupils' performance of ***replicative exercises*** is not only necessary but also possible ***for organizing facilitative interaction at the English lessons.*** It should be noted that pupils should be taught to participate freely in such forms of the activity in accordance with the typology of dialogical unities (including questions and answers). So, ***we distinguish the following varieties of replicative exercises (according to their communicative structure)***:

1) ***affirmation – a question*** (replica in response is expressed by surprise, doubt, questioning, clarification, assumption, desire to receive additional information, etc.);

2) ***assertion – assertion*** (replica in response expresses confirmation, consent, judgment, promise);

3) ***confirmation of the negation*** (replica in response expresses disagreement, protest, contestation);

4) ***motivation – a story*** (the replica contains questions or prompts).

We'll show the examples of each kind. So, we'd like to propose sentence-stimuli and possible reactions to them:

1. a) specify the details:
– I'm going to the country.

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ЗБІРНИК НАУКОВИХ ПРАЦЬ
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– *I like watching television.*
– *What for?*
– *For how long?*
– *Are you going to stay there all the holidays?*
– *When do you usually watch TV?*
– *What programs do you like to watch?*

b) Check the veracity of the statement:

b.1) Express surprise:

– *It takes me almost an hour and a half to get to the stadium where I train.*
– *Do you live so far?*
– *Does it really take you so long?*

b.2) Ask about information leakage: Pete's collection of postage stamps won the third prize:

– *How do you know?*
– *Who told you that?*

b.3) Ask for an explanation:

– *I won't see Jack any more.*
– *What do you mean?*
– *What do you mean by saying "any more"?*

2. a) Please tell us what you are talking about:

– *I'm crazy about music.*
– *I like tennis more.*

b) Agree with the statement and if it is possible – inform us about something else:

– *Sometimes it's very cold here in autumn.*
– *Yes, rather. And not sometimes but always.*

c) Express your doubts:

– *Pete and I will go fishing tomorrow, we'll be at the lake at 4 in the morning.*
– *I doubt you'll go there. Pete never gets up so early.*

d) Exchange with a partner by politeness formulas:

– *I'm very sorry.*
– *Thank you very much.*
– *That's all right.*

– *Don't mention it.*

e) Give confirmation and clarify what the partner said:

– *You've found the way very quickly.*

– *Yes, I was shown the way by a passer-by.*

3. a) Do not agree with the statement:

– *Buses are usually empty in the morning.*

– *Every city with a population of a million has the under-ground.*

– *I don't think that's correct. They are usually full during rush hours.*

– *That isn't always true. There's a number of cities which haven't the underground.*

b) Deny and correct the partner of communication:

– *There are 30 days in May.*

– *That isn't right. May has 31 days.*

c) Fix the affirmation:

– *Alex says you're going to stop training because you've hurt your arm.*

– *Nothing of the kind. I'm not going to stop training, I haven't hurt my arm.*

4. React to the order:

– *Bring the spade, please.*

– *But I have already brought it.*

– *Yes, but give me the key from the shed.*

On the basis of our pilot research of facilitative interaction of pupils at the English lessons (form 5-A, 42 pupils, school № 12, Rivne), we can conclude that the use of *such types of dialogical unities positively influence the facilitative interaction of pupils*: the answers about smth. – 30%, the questions – 6%, the story as answering the questions – 16%, a story-narrative – 34%.

Thus, this pilot research shows that organizing facilitative interaction of pupils at the English lesson with educational mechanisms of conceptual correlation and internal interference will contribute the development of dialogical speech of pupils at the English lessons.

In order to test our hypothesis about facilitative activity of pupils, its productivity or non-productivity, we compared the results of respondents' cognitive activities when they worked alone and in the case of the implementation of facilitative activity in the presence of observers. We proved that these two indicators were correlated again after some training (when cognitive activity was performed several times). While testing our hypothesis, we found the most accurate physiological indicator to register changes in the level of arousal of the personality. A similar research was organized by us the next month. In this research, pupils performed appropriate tasks to actualize psychomotor skills in the presence of observers. The results showed that the presence of ten passive observers during the mastery of a highly complex of mental and psychomotor skill significantly worsened the activity of respondents at the beginning of the empirical study compared to training alone.

The result of our research was also interesting, however, when after the respondents had developed a strong enough facilitative skill the psychomotor task in the presence of observers respondents had begun to perform much better than alone, and this proved that the presence of outsiders was largely arousing. Our hypothesis about the remarkable role of the presence of observers was confirmed in the other our research, when we used the technique of senso-motor examination using a rotating disk.

Conclusions

C. Rogers' ideas on the importance of the process of facilitative learning, the role of the teacher, his/her facilitative relationships with pupils were the basis for the humanization of education abroad, and the main empirical research was provided in the 60-70's. The results of the facilitation training, which involved thousands of teachers and tens of thousands of primary, secondary and college schoolchildren in England and the United States, suggested that pupils' personal development had been improved: their self-esteem had been improved, cognitive

abilities had been developed, which facilitated the improvement of physical and mental health, performance and the activity of schoolchildren.

C. Rogers' humanistic ideas, which contribute to the growth of educational potential, are especially important for the democratization of the Ukrainian school and our society. In the theory of C. Rogers we often see implied system of certain ideas about a man and his/her essence, or a special method of psychotherapy, or just a set of carefully designed techniques for correcting interpersonal relationships. C. Rogers emphasizes that in today's world, which is characterized by constant changes, the emphasis in the learning process must be shifted from teaching to the facilitation of learning. C. Rogers sees such a change in the learning process as a manifestation of a new thinking, as a real reform of education, which can not be achieved either by improving the skills and abilities, knowledge and possibilities of teachers, or by developing and implementing new experimental programs and state-of-the-art technologies, funds, etc.

C. Rogers' theoretical ideas, his concept of facilitative development of the person are also actively used in the situations of facilitative communication. Since the 60's and until nowadays, the ideas of the scientist have significantly influenced the development of methods and technologies for the educational process. Among all the representatives of Humanistic Psychology, in our opinion, only C. Rogers managed to create an author's concept of facilitative learning.

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Хупавцева Наталія, Логвіна Оксана. Процес фасилітативного навчання як основа гуманізації освіти.

Метою *статті є: розробити (за типом мовленнєвої реакції) чотири типи трансформаційних висловлювань фасилітативної взаємодії на уроках, які залежать від процесів внутрішньої інтерференції та концептуальної кореляції визначення «фасилітативне навчання як основа гуманізації освіти»; організувати пілотне дослідження фасилітативної взаємодії учнів на уроках англійської мови (клас 5-А, 42 учні, заклад середньої освіти № 12, м. Рівне) упродовж 2020-2021 років.*

Методи дослідження. *Для розв'язання поставлених завдань використовувалися такі теоретичні методи дослідження: категоріальний, структурно-функціональний, аналіз, систематизація, моделювання, узагальнення. Також у дослідженні використано емпіричний метод пілотного дослідження.*

Результати дослідження. *Здійснено порівняння результатів виконання респондентами пізнавальної діяльності, коли вони працювали наодинці, та у випадку її здійснення в присутності спостерігачів. Доведено, що ці два показники знову співвідносили після деякого тренування (коли пізнавальна діяльність виконувалась декілька разів). Перевіряючи гіпотезу, було знайдено найбільш точний фізіологічний показник для реєстрації змін рівня збудження особистості. Подібного роду дослідження було проведено нами наступного місяця. У цьому дослідженні учнями виконано відповідні завдання з метою актуалізації психомоторики в присутності спостерігачів. Результати засвідчили, що під час опанування великою мірою складним мисленнєвим та психомоторним навиком присутність десяти пасивних спостерігачів значно погіршувала діяльність респондентів на початку проведення емпіричного дослідження порівняно з тренуваннями наодинці.*

Висновки. *Доведено, що ідеї К. Роджерса щодо значущості процесу фасилітативного навчання, ролі вчителя, його фасилітативних взаємостосунків з учнями було покладено в основу гуманізації освіти за кордоном, і основні емпіричні дослідження були здійснені у 60-70-их роках. Результати фасилітативного навчання, в якому брали участь тисячі вчителів і десятки тисяч учнів початкових, середніх шкіл і коледжів в Англії і США, дозволили стверджувати, що спостерігається розвиток особистості учнів: покращилася їхня самооцінка, розвинулися пізнавальні*

здібності та здатності, що, в свою чергу, фасилітувало поліпшення фізичного і психічного здоров'я, успішність та активність школярів.

Показано, що гуманістичні ідеї К. Роджерса, які сприяють зростанню освітнього потенціалу, є особливо важливими для демократизації української школи і суспільства. Зазначено, що в теорії К. Роджерса найчастіше бачать або імпліковану систему певних уявлень щодо людини та її сутності, або особливий метод психотерапії, або всього лише сукупність ретельно розроблених технік корекції міжособистісних взаємостосунків.

Ключові слова: *фасилітативне навчання, гуманізація освіти, пізнавальна діяльність, фізичне та психічне здоров'я, продуктивна фасилітативна діяльність учнів, непродуктивна фасилітативна діяльність учнів.*

Features of Formation of Value-and-Semantic Mindsets in Adolescence

Особливості сформованості ціннісно-смислових настановлень у підлітковому віці

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ABSTRACT

The aim of the article *is to present the results of the experimental study of features of value-and-semantic mindsets in adolescence.*

Methods of the research. *The following empirical methods were used in the sudy: "Diagnosis of the real structure of value orientations of the individual" by S. Bubnova, "Value orientations" by M. Rockeach (RVS) in modification of B. Kruglov, S. Schwartz's method, adapted by V. Karandashev; "Value*

spectrum" by D. Leontiev; R. Kettell's method of multifactorial personality research (14 PF) (adolescent version); mathematical and statistical methods of data processing.

The results of the research. *Research data of the structural components of value-and-semantic mindsets of adolescence have been presented. Peculiarities of formation of value-and-semantic mindsets in adolescence have been revealed: 1) the content of the parameter "values-knowledge" is reflected in the dominance of communication values ("cheerfulness", "education", "honesty", "goodness"); values conditionad by the age characteristics of adolescents ("independence", "conformity"); 2) the content of the parameter "values-meanings" has shown that important values for adolescents are specific values ("health", "happy family life", "having good and faithful friends"), personal life values "happy family life", "having good and faithful friends", "love"). This reflects the age-related changes in the adolescent's personality associated with the development of introspection and reflection, the formation of identity ("sense", "justice", "uniqueness", "integrity", "truth"); 3) "values-stimuli" include values of self-development ("learning new things"), self-affirmation ("recognition and respect of people", "independence"), hedonistic ("pleasant rest", "hedonism"), altruistic ("help and mercy"), the values of communication ("universalism", "kindness"), the search for new and acute sensations ("stimulation"). The structure of each of the selected parameters includes different groups of values, which indicates the inconsistency of the components and the disharmony of the general value-semantic sphere of adolescents.*

Conclusions. *The results of the experimental study have shown the presence of reproductive (insufficient) level of formation of value-and-semantic mindsets in adolescents.*

Key words: *value-and-semantic mindsets, value-and-semantic sphere, values, senses, value orientations, adolescence.*

Introduction

Socio-economic and political changes are constantly taking place in modern Ukrainian society, which are characterized by the transformation of public consciousness, changes in leading values and moral priorities. Such changes can lead a person, who is in the process of formation, to the formation of a blurred system of values, which will be reflected in the value-semantic mindsets of a man.

In the context of modern psychological science development, the study of value-semantic mindsets is one of the insufficiently studied areas, while the value-semantic sphere is the central formation of personality, its "core", and value-semantic mindsets are an integral component of personality's semantic structure. They define the attitude to themselves, other people and the world as a whole. The contradiction between the importance of adolescence in the formation of personality, especially in the field of value-semantic development, and the lack of representation of theoretical and practical grounds for developing measures of competent influence on the formation of value-semantic mindsets in psychology is rather relevant.

The inclusion of value-semantic mindsets in the conceptual apparatus of modern psychology has taken place recently, and the prerequisites include the achievements of axiology, philosophy, psychology and psychology of meaning. Modern researchers have paid attention to the study of age features of the development of value-semantic attitudes. Thus, scientists (Ефименко, 2011; Перелыгина, 2008; Москвіна, 1994) studied their formation in adolescence, I. Kanieieva (Канеева, 2011) studied the development of value-semantic mindsets in senior adolescents and early adolescence, A. Yakovlieva (Яковлева, 2009) analyzed them from adolescence to old age. However, most of the studies reviewed the features of value-semantic mindsets limited, as they study their specific types (environmental, anti-terrorist) or relate to a narrow range of subjects (visually impaired, etc.).

The peculiarities of the value-semantic sphere of adolescents are the object of research of domestic and foreign scientists (Лавріненко, 2020; Яновська & Когут, 2020; Edwards & Kirven, 2019; Lewis-Smith, Pass & Reynolds, 2021). At the same time, despite the presence of research on the general features of the value-semantic sphere, in psychological science unresolved issues remain to determine the structure, functions, levels, features of the formation of value-semantic mindsets in adolescents, while this age stage is a sensitive period of their formation

(Абакумова & Годунов, 2019; Антоненко, 2018; Лавріненко, 2020; Леонтьєв, 2003; Avalueva, 2020). The study of these features will allow to develop the practice-oriented measures of purposeful influence on the formation of value-semantic attitudes in adolescence.

The purpose of the article is to present the results of an experimental study of the peculiarities of value-semantic mindsets in adolescence.

Methods of the research

The following psychodiagnostic methods were used: to identify the real structure of value orientations – the method of "Diagnosis of the real structure of value orientations of the personality" by S. Bubnova (Бубнова, 1995); to study the holistic hierarchical system of value orientations of a personality – the test "Value Orientations" by M. Rokeach (RVS) in B. Kruglov's modification (Галян, 2011); for the study of individual values – Schwartz's method, adapted by V. Karandashev (Карандашев, 2004); for the study of semantic and value spheres of personality – the method of "Value Spectrum" of D. Leontiev (Леонтьєв, 2003); for the study of adolescent personality – the method of multifactorial personality research (14 PF) of R. Cattell (adolescent version) (Галян, 2011). The mathematical and statistical methods of data processing were used (IBM SPSS-20: descriptive statistics, correlation analysis).

The study involved 160 pupils of secondary schools, lyceums in Zaporizhzhia. The age of respondents is 12 – 16 years, among them 55 respondents are 12 years, 53 – aged 13-14 years, 52 – aged 15-16 years. The distribution of respondents into three groups (junior, middle and senior adolescents) reflects the essential features of adolescence.

Results and their discussion

The value-semantic mindsets are determined by researchers in different ways, in particular: 1) expression of cognitive-ethical position, personal meaning in the form of readiness for

a certain direction, behavior, interaction, stabilizing these processes as a whole, giving them a stable character; act as an integral component of the semantic structure of personality, determine the nature of attitudes towards themselves, other people, the world as a whole, the nature of communication, evaluation and behavior, both in the current situation and during the long term (Канеева, 2011; Яковлева, 2009); 2) stable subjective attitudes of man to various aspects of real life, which are refracted in the activity and determine its nature, position of the subject, his way of life; meaningful, realized by the subject, real motives reflected in the activities (Перелыгина, 2008).

Based on the ideas of researchers on the components of the value-semantic sphere (value orientations, semantic and value mindsets), we consider it appropriate to identify emotional, cognitive and behavioral components in the structure of value-semantic mindsets (Шевченко & Сошина, 2016).

The cognitive (informational) component includes the vision of the world, the image of the desired thing – this is the semantic component, knowledge of values and knowledge-values is the value component.

The emotive component is a person's evaluative judgment, which is manifested in sympathy or antipathy towards significant objects, through which the individual perceives the surrounding world.

The behavioral (conative) component of value-semantic mindsets is manifested as a willingness to act in relation to the object that has personal meaning and value significance for the personality. Based on the views of researchers on the functions of the structural components of the value-semantic sphere of personality, the functions of value-semantic mindsets are determined: regulatory (it determines the stable and consistent nature of behavior and activities); adaptive (it is the ability of a person to meet their own needs through the values that are specific to a particular society, as well as involvement in the system of norms and values that function in it); expressive (it promotes

self-affirmation and self-expression of the individual) (Братусь, 2016; Легун, 2010; Романюк, 2014; Яницкий, 2000).

The comparative analysis of researchers' views on the mechanism of formation of value-semantic mindsets showed different features: interiorization of values, transformation of personality, formation of a hierarchy of values (Галян, 2013); operational, target and motivational value-semantic mindsets (Абакумова & Годунов, 2019); determination of orientation, correction of behavior and formation of necessary value-semantic mindsets (Канеева, 2011); providing psychological, communicative and methodological conditions (Ефименко, 2011). Thus, interiorization, identification and internalization are the mechanisms which help a personality to perceive value, appropriate it, transforming it into his own value orientation, and, being mastered, translates it through actions, behavior in the form of their own value-semantic mindsets.

A detailed analysis of the scientific literature on the researched issues allowed to determine the specifics of the general features of adolescents' value-semantic sphere development, individual mechanisms of their transformation. Among the psychological features of the development of the value-semantic sphere of personality in adolescence there are: formal features (relative differentiation of components, order and structure, crystallization of generalized meanings); informative features (decentration, verbalization of meanings, irragularity); dynamic features (instability, reflexivity, disharmony). The age features of development that ensure the transformation of the value-semantic sphere are considered: reflexive mechanisms (rethinking of the adolescent's own appearance, relationships with other people, socio-role experimentation); transformation and development of the cognitive sphere; changes in the motivational sphere of an adolescent (change in the hierarchy of motives) (Галян, 2013; Ефименко, 2011; Канеева, 2011; Лавріненко, 2018; Пенькова, 2013; Яновська & Когут, 2020; Lavrinenko, 2021).

Taking into account the views of researchers on value-semantic mindsets, mechanisms of their formation and taking into account the scientific achievements of scientists concerning the structure of the value-semantic sphere and its components, the concept of *value-semantic mindsets of adolescents* can be defined as mental education, being a component of value and semantic sphere of adolescent's personality and is expressed in readiness for action and self-expression and it is based on the system of values, value orientations and personal meanings of an adolescent.

The results of an empirical study of the peculiarities of value-semantic mindsets in adolescence will be presented in accordance with the defined structural organization of value and semantic mindsets.

To diagnose the parameter of "value-knowledge", that corresponds to the cognitive component of value-semantic mindsets, we used the test "Value Orientations" of M. Rokeach (block of instrumental values) and the method of studying individual values of S. Schwartz (adapted by V. Karandashev), the level of normative ideals.

The study found that the content of the parameter "values-knowledge", that reflects the values of adolescents and declared values, is characterized by a number of features: most values belong to the block of values of communication ("cheerfulness": junior group – 6.69, middle group – 6.03, senior group – 6.58; "education": junior group – 5.55, middle group – 5.7, senior group – 5.29; "honesty": junior group – 7.15, middle group – 7.78; "kindness": junior group – 4.64, middle group – 4.5, senior group – 4.61); contain values conditioned by the age characteristics of adolescents ("independence": middle group – 4.53, senior group – 4.48; "conformity": junior group – 4.62, middle group – 4.57, senior group – 4.5); includes values that are due to socio-economic and political instability ("security": junior group – 4.5).

Psychological features of the parameter "value-knowledge" mean that they reflect the current needs of adolescence in communication, emancipation, etc., but they are manifested at the

cognitive level. Thus, adolescents recognize the importance of the above values, but their representation in behavior may be completely absent.

The diagnosis of the emotive component of value-semantic mindsets, reflecting the results of the study of the parameter "values-meanings" was performed using the test "Value Orientations" by M. Rokeach (block of terminal values) and the method of "Value Spectrum" by D. Leontiev.

The study revealed the following psychological features of the system of dominant values of adolescents: the predominant group is the group of specific values ("health": junior group – 3.22, middle group – 4.46, senior group – 4.51; "happy family life": junior group – 6.86, middle group – 5.3; "presence of good and faithful friends": junior group – 6.89, middle group – 6.10, senior group – 5.37) and group of personal life values "happy family life", "the presence of good and faithful friends", "love": senior group – 6.35).

The state of subjective semantic reality includes the following categories of "good": the junior group – 6.11; middle group – 5.62; senior group – 5.55; "meaning": middle group – 4.3, senior group – 4.66; "justice": junior group – 4.43; "uniqueness": senior group – 4.38; "integrity": middle group – 4.22; "truth": junior group – 4.25.

The identified psychological features of the parameter "values-meanings" are in fact a reflection of age-related changes in the personality of an adolescent, associated with the development of introspection and reflection, the formation of identity. That is, the identified significant values have an emotional color and attractiveness and can be manifested in the behavior of adolescents, depending on the situation.

To study the parameter "values-incentives", which reflects the conative component of value-semantic attitudes, the method of research of individual values by S. Schwartz (level of individual priorities) and the method of "Diagnosis of the real structure of value orientations" by S. Bubnova were used.

Summarizing the obtained results, we note that the following values are significant for adolescents, manifested at the level of behavior: values of self-development ("recognizing new things": junior group – 3.64, middle group – 4.09, senior group – 4 .04); self-affirmation ("recognition and respect of people": junior group – 4.03, middle group – 3.64; "independence": senior group – 2.28); hedonistic ("pleasant rest": junior group – 4.02, middle group – 3.89, senior group – 4.23; "hedonism": middle group – 2.77; senior group – 2.1) and altruistic ("help and mercy": senior group – 4.8); values of communication ("universalism": junior group – 2.49, middle group – 2.44; "kindness": junior group – 2.33, senior group – 2.13); search for something new and getting thrills ("stimulation": junior group – 2.44, middle group – 2.7, senior group – 2.41).

Thus, the identified psychological features of value-semantic mindsets on the parameter of "values-incentives" are characterized by the typical needs of adolescents in establishing social contacts, independence, as well as the desire to experience thrills and pleasure. The peculiarity of the studied parameter is that the identified significant values are reflected in the propensity to certain actions, behaviors, and therefore they are implemented in the activity.

Comparing the results of the study of the parameters of "values-knowledge", "values-meanings" and "values-incentives" it is found that the structure of each of the parameters corresponding to the cognitive, emotional and conative component of value-semantic mindsets included different groups of values, thus confirming the results of theoretical analysis of the problem, according to which the general structure of an adolescent's value-semantic sphere is characterized by instability and disharmony.

According to the distribution of correlations between the parameters of value-semantic mindsets ("values-knowledge", "values-meanings" and "values-incentives") and individual psychological characteristics of adolescents by certain generalized factors "Consciousness", "Social introversion", "Conformity",

"Anxiety" (the method of multifactorial personality research 1 PF by R. Cattell) it is revealed the largest number of close correlations between the parameters of value-semantic mindsets and the factor of "Consciousness" ("conformity" (0.34; p≤0. 01), "traditions" (0.31; p≤0.01); "kindness" (0.27; p≤0.01), "universalism" (0.37; p≤0.01), "power" (-0.25; p≤0.01). Thus, the assimilation (interiorization) of values by adolescents depends on specific individual psychological characteristics, in particular activity, persistence, responsibility, high level of control of behavior, volitional qualities and balance.

The qualitative and quantitative analysis of the results showed that, despite some changes in the leading values of senior adolescents compared to junior and middle, significant differences between the indicators in the subjects were not found. It means that the current conditions of school education do not cause significant changes in the value-semantic sphere of personality and its components.

In previous studies (Шевченко & Сошина, 2016) we have established the criteria for the formation of value-semantic mindsets in adolescence. The criterion for the formation of the cognitive component is determined to be the formation of an individual system of meanings, i.e. the gradual assimilation of socially produced values by adolescents in the process of personal development and the formation of an individual system of meanings on this basis. The criterion for the formation of the emotive component is the appropriation of social values, i.e. the modification of socially significant values through the introduction of subjective features. For the conative component, the criterion of formation is determined to be the meaningfulness of the individual space of activity, manifested in selectivity of the personality's activity, the formation of behavioral patterns due to the system of values and meanings of the personality.

According to empirical data on the formation of value-semantic mindsets, we have indicated the selected criteria, i.e. their reflection in the context of psychodiagnostic techniques.

The indication was conducted in order to identify the levels of formation of value-semantic mindsets in adolescence, by comparing qualitative results and numerical indicators. In order to obtain statistically significant results that will reflect the peculiarities of the formation of value-semantic mindsets in adolescence (from junior and middle to senior adolescence), it was necessary to determine the standard indicators of their levels of formation. Therefore, the results according to the above criteria were transferred into a single evaluation system using the scale of standards.

For this purpose the standard indicator was determined for each of the studied criteria (average meaning) which corresponds to the following levels of formation of value-semantic mindsets: creative and reproductive.

The indicators of development of value-semantic mindsets for the creative level are established: significance of higher spiritual and universal values (well-being, freedom, mercy and others); the importance of the values of knowledge, development; the expressed tendency to independence, achievement orientation; ability to set personal perspectives; social interaction based on the principles of mutual respect, tolerance, honesty; aesthetic development.

The reproductive level of development of value-semantic mindsets has the following features: low importance of higher spiritual and universal values; lack of focus on personal development, achievement, self-realization; in interpersonal interaction there are no manifestations of tolerance, mutual respect for others; low level of significance of aesthetic values.

Let's consider the boundaries of the levels of development of value-semantic mindsets according to the first criterion – the formation of an individual system of meanings expressed in values on a set of indicators of instrumental values and values at the level of normative ideals.

In the group of junior adolescents it was found that the values of "education", "cheerfulness", "honesty" were within the

creative level of development. Other values ("accomplishments", "responsibility", "self-control", "courage to defend opinions" and others) meet the limits of the reproductive level of development.

The results of the middle group respondents are distributed as follows: creative level includes the values of "education" and "cheerfulness"; reproductive level of development is established for the values of "independence", "accomplishments", "responsibility", "self-control", "care", "honesty" and others.

In the senior group of respondents, the distribution of results by the value of the indicator of instrumental values showed that the creative level of value development is identical to the results obtained in the middle group of respondents, except for the value of "accomplishment", which also sets the creative level. Values of "high demand", "discipline", "rationalism", "courage in defending opinions", "tolerance", "latitude of views", "firm will", "efficiency in business", "intolerance to failures" have a reproductive level of formation.

The distribution of indicators of normative values-ideals showed that the levels of development for adolescents of junior and middle groups are identical: the creative level is set for values of "conformity", "kindness", "universalism", "independence", "hedonism", "achievement" and "security"; the values of "tradition", "stimulation", and "power" have a reproductive level of development. In the group of senior adolescents, the distribution of values coincides with the exception of the value of "universalism", that is within the reproductive level of development.

The analysis of the results of the second criterion "Appropriation of social values", that is expressed in the value by a set of indicators of significant terminal values and significant values-meanings.

The distribution of values by the indicator of significant terminal values in all groups of respondents is identical. Thus, the values of "health", "love", "the presence of good and faithful friends", "happy family life" are within the creative level;

other indicators – "development", "freedom", "self-confidence", "interesting job", "financially secure life" and others are in the zone of reproductive level of development.

According to the indicator of values-meanings, it is established that in the group of junior adolescents values-meanings of "good", "truth", "beauty", "order", "meaning", "justice", "integrity" are within the creative level. Other values have a reproductive level of formation.

Respondents of the middle adolescent group were found to have the values of "integrity", "uniqueness", "justice", "meaning", "order", "truth", "well-being" at a creative level of development. Values-meanings of "beauty", "lightness", "simplicity", "self-sufficiency", and "perfection" belong to the reproductive level. The respondents of the senior group have identical levels of development, except for the values-meanings of "order", "justice" and "integrity", which were decreased to the reproductive level of development for adolescents.

The limits of the levels of development of value-semantic mindsets are established according to the third criterion – "Meaningfulness of the individual space of activity", that is expressed in the value by the set of indicators of significant values-priorities and real value orientations.

Respondents of the junior group have values-priorities distributed by levels as follows: values of "kindness", "universalism", "independence", "stimulation", "security" have a creative level of development; the reproductive level is set for the values of "conformity", "tradition", "hedonism", "achievement", "power".

According to the results by the second criterion in the group of middle-aged adolescents, the values of "kindness", "universalism", "independence", "stimulation", "hedonism", "achievement", "security" have a creative level of development. The other values are within the reproductive level of development.

It has been established that in the group of senior adolescents the values of "security", "achievement", "universalism",

"traditions", "power" and "conformity" had a reproductive level of formation. Within the creative level of development there are the values-priorities of "kindness", "independence", "stimulation", "hedonism".

The distribution of results according to the indicator of real value orientations established that in the group of junior adolescents the values of "financial well-being", "love", "high social status", "social activity", "communication", "health" have a reproductive level. The values of "pleasant rest", "search and enjoyment of the beautiful", "help and mercy", "knowledge of new things", "recognition and respect for people" have a creative level of development.

In the middle group of adolescents the values of "pleasant rest", "search and enjoy the beautiful", "help and mercy", "love", "learning new things", "recognition and respect for people" have a creative level of development, other values are within the reproductive level. For the senior adolescent group, the values of "help and mercy", "pleasant rest", "search and enjoyment of the beautiful", "love", "learning new things", "recognition and respect for people" are within the creative level. The rest of the values have the reproductive level of formation.

The results of the generalized comparison of the levels of value-semantic mindsets development are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Distribution of levels of value-semantic mindsets' formation

Levels of formation (%) Criteria of formation	Creative	Reproductive
Formation of individual system of values	42.86	57.14
Appropriation of social values	42.07	57.93
Recognition of individual space of activity	40.13	59.87

It should be noted that by all criteria, indicators of adolescents are quite high in a significant number of values (creative

level of development). This indicates that the value-semantic mindsets that reflect the system of values, value orientations and personal meanings of an adolescent are developed at a certain level. This fact can be explained by that the value-semantic sphere of adolescents and its structural components are actively formed in adolescence and continue their development throughout the life.

Despite the mentioned above, many values being important for the general development of personality are within the reproductive level of development: at the cognitive level (values of "discipline", "courage in defending opinions", "tolerance", "latitude of views" and others); at the emotional level ("beauty of nature and art", "knowledge", "happiness of others", "creativity", "self-sufficiency", "perfection", etc.); at the conative level ("achievements", "traditions", "social activity", "health" and others).

Thus, the results of the study indicate an insufficient level of formation of value-semantic mindsets of adolescents and indicate the need for practical and targeted measures of purposeful influence on the formation of value-semantic mindsets in adolescence.

Conclusions

The article presents the results of an experimental study of the features of value-semantic mindsets in adolescence. It is shown that the structure of value-semantic mindsets is represented by emotive, cognitive and behavioral components. The functions, mechanisms of formation of value-semantic mindsets and the specifics of adolescents' value-semantic sphere development are determined. Adolescents' value-semantic mindsets are defined as mental formation, being a component of the value-semantic sphere of adolescent's personality and are expressed in prereadiness for action and self-expression. It is based on the system of values, value orientations and personal meanings of an adolescent.

The psychological features of the formation of value-semantic mindsets of adolescents are empirically studied and the following characteristics are identified: 1) the content of the parameter "values-knowledge" is reflected in the dominance of communication values ("cheerfulness", "education", "honesty", "goodness"); values due to the age characteristics of adolescents ("independence", "conformity"); 2) the content of the parameter "values-meanings" showed that important values for adolescents are specific values ("health", "happy family life", "having good and faithful friends"), personal life values "happy family life", "having good and faithful friends", "love"), reflects the age-related changes in an adolescent's personality, associated with the development of introspection and reflection, the formation of identity ("meaning", "justice", "uniqueness", "integrity", "truth"); 3) "values-stimuli" include values of self-development ("learning new"), self-affirmation ("recognition and respect of people", "independence"), hedonistic ("pleasant rest", "hedonism"), altruistic ("help and mercy"), values of communication ("universalism", "kindness"), the search for new and acute sensations ("stimulation"). The structure of each of the selected parameters includes different groups of values, that indicates the inconsistency of the components and disharmony of general value-semantic sphere of an adolescent.

The distribution of data by levels of formation of value-semantic mindsets (creative and reproductive) is carried out. It is concluded on the presence of reproductive (insufficient) level of formation of value-semantic mindsets in adolescents.

A promising direction in the development of scientific issues is the further study of peculiarities of value-semantic mindsets at different age stages, development of methodological tools for the study of value-semantic mindsets.

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Шевченко Наталія. Особливості сформованості ціннісно-смислових настановлень у підлітковому віці.

Мета статті – презентувати результати експериментального дослідження особливостей ціннісно-смислових настановлень у підлітковому віці.

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Методи дослідження. *У дослідженні використано такі емпіричні методи: «Діагностика реальної структури ціннісних орієнтацій особистості» С. Бубнової; «Ціннісні орієнтації» М. Рокіча (RVS) у модифікації Б. Круглова; методика Ш. Шварца, адаптована В. Карандашевим; «Ціннісний спектр» Д. Леонтьєва; методика багатофакторного дослідження особистості (14 PF) Р. Кеттелла (підлітковий варіант); математико-статистичні методи обробки даних.*

Результати дослідження. *Представлено дані дослідження структурних компонентів ціннісно-смислових настановлень підлітків. Виявлено особливості формування ціннісно-смислових настановлень у підлітковому віці: 1) зміст параметру «цінності-знання» відображується домінуванням цінностей спілкування («життєрадісність», «вихованість», «чесність», «добро»); цінностей обумовлених віковими особливостями підлітків («самостійність», «конформність»); 2) зміст параметру «цінності-смисли» показав, що важливими для підлітків є конкретні цінності («здоров'я», «щасливе сімейне життя», «наявність гарних та вірних друзів»), цінності особистого життя («щасливе сімейне життя», «наявність гарних та вірних друзів», «кохання»), відображує вікові зміни в особистості підлітка, що пов'язані з розвитком самоаналізу та рефлексії, становленням ідентичності («смисл», «справедливість», «унікальність», «цілісність», «істина»); 3) «цінності-стимули» включають цінності саморозвитку («пізнання нового»), самоствердження («визнання та повага людей», «самостійність»), гедоністичні («приємний відпочинок», «гедонізм»), альтруїстичні («допомога та милосердя»), цінності спілкування («універсалізм», «доброта»), пошук нового та отримання гострих відчуттів («стимуляція»). В структуру кожного з виокремлених параметрів включено різні групи цінностей, що свідчить про неузгодженість компонентів та дисгармонійність загальної ціннісно-смислової сфери підлітка.*

Висновок. *Результати експериментального дослідження засвідчили наявність репродуктивного (недостатнього) рівня сформованості ціннісно-смислових настановлень у підлітків.*

Ключові слова: *ціннісно-смислові настановлення, ціннісно-смислова сфера, цінності, смисл, ціннісні орієнтації, підлітковий вік.*